

p-ISSN 2598-4101  
e-ISSN 2615-4706

# JOURNAL OF APPLIED STUDIES IN LANGUAGE

JASL - Volume 9 Number 2 December 2025

# Editor

---

## Editor-in-Chief:

Gusti Nyoman Ayu Sukerti, S.S., M.Hum (Politeknik Negeri Bali, Indonesia)

## Editorial Boards:

Dr. Anak Agung Ngurah Gde Saptaka (Politeknik Negeri Bali, Indonesia)

Elvira Septevany, S.S., M.Li (Politeknik Negeri Bali, Indonesia)

Dewa Ayu Indah Cahya Dewi, S.TI., M.T. (Politeknik Negeri Bali, Indonesia)

Wayan Eny Mariani, S.M.B., M.Si (Politeknik Negeri Bali, Indonesia)

Rifqi Nurfakhrurozi, M.A.B (Politeknik Negeri Bali, Indonesia)

Dr. Liu Dandan (Nanchang Normal University, China)

# Reviewer

---

Prof. Dr. Nengah Arnawa, M.Hum (Universitas PGRI Mahadewa Indonesia, Indonesia)

Prof. Dr. Ni Luh Putu Sri Adnyani, M.Hum (Universitas Pendidikan Ganesha, Indonesia)

Prof. Dr. Bambang Wibisono, M.Pd (Universitas Negeri Jember, Indonesia)

Prof. Dr. I Made Rai Jaya Widanta, S.S., M.Hum (Politeknik Negeri Bali, Indonesia)

Dr. Lu Xing (Henan Normal University, Xinxiang, China)

I Nyoman Suka Sanjaya, S.S, M. TESOL, Ph.D (Politeknik Negeri Bali, Indonesia)

Dr. Sugeng Hariyanto, M.Pd. (Politeknik Negeri Malang, Indonesia)

I Nyoman Aryawibawa, SS.,MA.,Ph.D (Universitas Udayana, Indonesia)

Dr. MV. Joyce Merawati BR., M.Pd (Politeknik Negeri Bandung)

Dr. I Ketut Suar Adnyana, M.Hum (Universitas Dwijendra)

## ACKNOWLEDGMENT

We express our sincere gratitude to Almighty God for the publication of the Journal of Applied Studies in Language (JASL), Volume 9, Number 2, December 2025. The articles published in this edition were contributed by authors from a diverse range of institutions, including Politeknik Pertanian Negeri Kupang (Indonesia), Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia (Indonesia), Malaysian Teacher Training Institute Malay Language Campus (Malaysia), Universitas Katolik Indonesia Santu Paulus Ruteng (Indonesia), Universitas Negeri Surabaya (Indonesia), Universitas Pendidikan Mandalika (Indonesia), GENIUS Institute (Indonesia), Universitas PGRI Sumatera Barat (Indonesia), Universitas Islam Negeri Sjech M. Djamil Djambek Bukittinggi (Indonesia). All articles in this edition contribute to scholarly inquiry in the fields of linguistics, language and language teaching, consistent with the journal's scope.

The following titles reflect the wide-ranging research presented in this volume: Rural EFL Teachers' Perceptions of Promoting Learner Autonomy in Indonesia's Independent Curriculum; From Sheet To Screen: Teachers' Needs for Science Literacy-Based Explanatory Text Writing Learning in Vocational Schools; Indirect Speech Acts and Persuasive Strategies of Cultural Narratives of Go'et in Health Promotion; The Interplay of Segmental and Suprasegmental Features in ESL/EFL Reading Aloud Performance; and Metacognitive Strategies in Teaching Essay Writing: Repeated Measures in the Creative Writing Classroom.

We would also like to express our heartfelt appreciation to the external reviewers from Henan Normal University, Xinxiang (China), Universitas PGRI Mahadewa Indonesia, Universitas Pendidikan Ganesha, Universitas Negeri Jember, Universitas Udayana, Universitas Dwijendra, Politeknik Negeri Bandung, Politeknik Negeri Malang, as well as to the internal reviewers from Politeknik Negeri Bali and the editorial team, for their time, expertise, and valuable insights that significantly contributed to the quality and academic rigor of this edition. We hope that the articles in this issue will serve as useful references for scholars, educators, and practitioners in the fields of linguistics and language education, and that the Journal of Applied Studies in Language (JASL) will continue to be a trusted platform for the dissemination of research in applied language studies.

Badung, December 22<sup>nd</sup> 2025

Politeknik Negeri Bali  
Editor in Chief,

Gusti Nyoman Ayu Sukerti, S.S., M.Hum.



# Table of Content

---

Bonik Kurniati Amalo, Laurensius Lehar

**Rural EFL Teachers' Perspectives on Promoting Learner Autonomy in Indonesia's Independent Curriculum ..... 68-84**

Risnawati Sofia, Dadang S. Anshori, Halimah, Nurulrabihah Mat Noh

**From Sheet to Screen: Teachers' Needs for Science Literacy-Based Explanatory Text Writing Learning in Vocational Schools ..... 85-99**

Gabriel Fredi Daar, Fithriyah Inda Nur Abida, Lisetyo Ariyanti, Rahayu Kuswardani

**Indirect Speech Acts and Persuasive Strategies of Cultural Narratives of Go'et in Health Promotion ..... 100-112**

Lalu Ari Irawan, Ramli Ahmad

**The Interplay of Segmental and Suprasegmental Features in ESL/EFL Reading Aloud Performance ..... 113-123**

Dina Ramadhanti, Diyan Permata Yanda

**Metacognitive Strategies in Teaching Essay Writing: Repeated Measures in the Creative Writing Classroom ..... 124-133**

## **Rural EFL teachers' perceptions of promoting learner autonomy in Indonesia's independent curriculum**

**Bonik Kurniati Amalo<sup>1</sup>, Laurensius Lehar<sup>2</sup>**

Politeknik Pertanian Negeri Kupang<sup>1,2</sup>  
email: bonik.kerrin@gmail.com

**Abstract** - As Indonesia's education system adopts the Independent Curriculum, the promotion of learner autonomy has attained renewed importance, particularly in English language education. While the theoretical advantages of learner autonomy are well-established, empirical research examining how EFL teachers in rural Indonesian contexts perceive and implement this concept remains limited. This study examined the views and self-reported practices of 40 in-service EFL teachers from rural schools in Kupang Regency within the framework of the Independent Curriculum. Data were obtained through structured questionnaires and open-ended reflections. The findings indicated that although teachers generally expressed positive attitudes toward the value of learner autonomy, many participants demonstrated limited theoretical understanding and lacked the pedagogical strategies necessary for fostering autonomy in their classrooms. While a majority believed that promoting learner autonomy was feasible, their justifications often relied on general assumptions. These assumptions included potential improvements in language proficiency rather than a concrete understanding of how autonomy can be integrated into classroom practice. These findings highlight the need for targeted professional development that equips teachers with both conceptual knowledge and practical tools aligned with the goals of the Independent Curriculum.

**Keywords:** EFL teachers' perceptions, Independent Curriculum, Learner Autonomy, Rural Schools

## 1. Introduction

The concept of learner autonomy was initially proposed by Holec (1981) has become a cornerstone in contemporary language education. Described as the learners' capacity to independently regulate their learning activities through goal-setting, strategy selection, tracking and assessing ones' own learning. It is widely endorsed not only for its pedagogical effectiveness but also for its alignment with humanistic educational values. It emphasizes learners' active role in directing their learning processes and is increasingly seen as essential for cultivating self-directed, reflective, and lifelong learners.

Beyond its function as an instructional strategy, learner autonomy is also conceptualized as a fundamental educational right (Spratt et al., 2002) grounded in the principles of independence, self-determination, and personal responsibility (Cotterall, 1995; Crabbe, 1993; Little, 2006). This perspective regards learners as active agents, instead of being passive recipients of knowledge, who are capable of making well-informed decisions about their learning pathways. By encouraging learners to take ownership of their educational journey through setting goals, choosing strategies, monitoring progress, and evaluating outcomes, autonomy fosters a sense of agency and control that goes beyond in-class learning contexts.

Research has shown that autonomous learners are more efficient and reflective, leading to improved academic performance (Benson, 2011; Murphy & Hurd 2011; Rebenius, 2003). This efficiency is attributed to learners' heightened motivation and competence to regulate and control their own learning, characteristics that are especially valuable in contexts where teacher support may be limited or inconsistent. Furthermore, when learners experience success through autonomy, it enhances their self-efficacy, reinforcing their long-term commitment to learning.

Another significant advantage of fostering learner autonomy is its positive relationship with learner motivation. Motivation and autonomy are reciprocally linked, as autonomy enhances motivation, and motivated learners demonstrate greater willingness to explore opportunities for autonomous learning (Murphy & Hurd, 2011; Ushioda, 1996). This correlation has been supported by empirical data. For example, Liu (2015) provided evidence of significant positive link between learners' motivation and their autonomy among non-English majors. Similarly, Spratt et al. (2002) demonstrated that Hong Kong-based university students who perceived themselves as more responsible for their learning reported higher motivation levels. Additional studies affirm this connection (Günes, S., & Alagözlü, 2020; Lamb, 2009), emphasizing that promoting learner autonomy contributes to prolonged and self-regulated learning.

Furthermore, learner autonomy has been linked to improved language proficiency. Numerous studies have shown that learners who exhibit higher autonomy often perform more successfully in language proficiency examinations (Apple, 2011; Hashemian et al., 2011; Karataş et al., 2015; Mohamadpour, 2013; Myartawan et al, 2013; Ng et al., 2011; Phuong & Vo, 2019). In the Indonesian context, Myartawan et al., (2013) reported a significant direct relationship between students' autonomy in learning and their English proficiency in the context of first-year university students in Bali. Similarly, Mohamadpour (2013) found that students with higher autonomy scored better on standardized English proficiency tests. Phuong and Vo's (2019) study in Vietnam mirrored these findings, concluding that students who demonstrated greater autonomy in learning strategies and self-awareness of their learning styles achieved higher levels of English proficiency.

Given its numerous pedagogical benefits, learner autonomy has been widely embraced in educational systems around the world. Its significance has grown in tandem with global shifts in educational paradigms that emphasize the development of 21st-century competencies. In this evolving context, learner autonomy plays a vital role in supporting pedagogical innovation by fostering student-centered learning environments that encourage inquiry, creativity, and reflective thinking. These skills, such as adaptability, analytical problem solving, and digital competence, are increasingly recognized as essential for learners to navigate competently within a rapidly changing and networked global community. Therefore, the integration of autonomy-oriented approaches into second and foreign language educational instruction not only develops language learning outcomes but also aligns with broader educational objectives aimed at cultivating responsible, motivated, and self-regulated learners.

In Indonesia, cultivating learner autonomy has been formally embedded in recent educational reforms, most notably through the introduction of the Independent Curriculum (*Kurikulum Merdeka*). This curriculum aligns with Ki Hadjar Dewantara's philosophy of *merdeka belajar* or independent learning emphasizing learners' freedom and responsibility to develop their potential within a supportive environment. Dewantara's principles, *ing ngarso sung tulodo, ing madyo mangun karso, and tut wuri handayani*, highlight a balance between teacher guidance and learner independence, positioning teachers as facilitators rather than mere transmitters of knowledge (Dwiwarso, 2010; Witasari, 2022). The



Independent Curriculum also represents a significant pedagogical shift, designed to address the demands of globalization and cultivate 21st-century skills among Indonesian learners, promoting student agency, autonomy, and active participation in the learning process (MoECRT, 2022). A central feature of this curriculum is the greater autonomy granted to schools, teachers, and students in designing, managing, and evaluating learning. This flexibility allows instructional strategies to be tailored to learners' individual needs and contextual realities, encouraging differentiated instruction, fostering critical thinking, and supporting the meaningful integration of digital technology to enhance learning outcomes (MoECRT, 2022).

At the heart of this reform is the promotion of learner autonomy, commonly defined as learners' ability to assume responsibility for their learning by setting objectives, employing suitable strategies, monitoring progress, and assessing outcomes (Benson, 2011; Holec, 1981). The curriculum's focus on project-oriented learning, formative assessment, and student agency aligns with internationally recognized principles of autonomous learning (MoCERT, 2022). While learners are encouraged to take initiative, teachers play a fundamental role in guiding learners toward autonomy by designing supportive learning environments, scaffolding student decision-making, providing timely feedback, and gradually transferring responsibility to learners. These approaches aim to foster self-regulated, reflective learners who are prepared for lifelong learning and capable of navigating complex, dynamic learning environments.

Empirical studies have examined various aspects of the Independent Curriculum's implementation. For instance, Hunaepi and Suharta (2024) provide a comprehensive analysis of the *Merdeka Belajar* curriculum, evaluating its progression, pedagogical applications, and challenges in the Indonesian education system. Similarly, Rahmadhani et al. (2022) investigated the curriculum's impact on improving numeracy literacy, highlighting its positive effects on learning processes. Collectively, these studies underscore the curriculum's potential to enhance educational outcomes by emphasizing learner autonomy and allowing for contextual adaptability in teaching practices.

Despite these insights, empirical research examining how Indonesian EFL teachers, particularly those working in rural areas, understand and implement learner autonomy within the Independent Curriculum remains limited. While the curriculum explicitly promotes student agency and autonomy as central pedagogical goals, its successful enactment depends heavily on teachers' beliefs, knowledge, and competencies, as well as the constraints and affordances of their teaching contexts. Prior research has consistently demonstrated that teacher cognition, including beliefs, prior experiences, and professional knowledge, plays a pivotal role in shaping classroom practices that support learner autonomy. (Borg, 2017; Borg & Al-Busaidi, 2012; Camilleri, 2007; Phipps & Borg, 2009). In many rural Indonesian contexts, systemic and situational constraints, including limited access to learning materials, high student teacher ratios, and varying levels of professional support, may impede the full realization of autonomy-oriented instruction. These challenges highlight the need for context sensitive approaches to curriculum implementation. These constraints include limited access to professional development opportunities, insufficient teaching resources, outdated classroom infrastructure, and linguistic diversity resulting from the widespread use of local dialects, low student motivation and the socio-economic disadvantages of many learners (Amalo & Petraki, 2024; Febriana et al., 2018; Ramos- Holguín & Morales, 2016) and lack of authentic opportunities for language use outside the classroom also limits learners' ability to develop autonomy (Fonseka, 2003). Such conditions complicate the delivery of interactive and autonomous learning experiences in English, as they limit opportunities for student-centered engagement and the integration of technology or project-based tasks. Moreover, these constraints often force teachers to rely on traditional, teacher-centered methods that may hinder the advancement of students' critical thinking and self-regulated learning skills.

In light of the specific constraints, particularly the inadequate accessibility to resources, students' socio-economic disadvantages, students' low motivation and a lack of exposure to authentic English use of rural education, promoting learner autonomy under the Independent Curriculum requires careful consideration of the contextual challenges faced by EFL teachers in this disadvantaged setting. Such challenges may undermine learners' inclination and capacity to take initiative and assume responsibility for their own learning, both of which are fundamental to the fostering of autonomous learning (Benson, 2011; Dam, 2011; Sinclair, 2000). As Sinclair (2000) emphasizes, learner autonomy is not merely a set of instructional strategies but a psychological readiness that must be nurtured over time. Therefore, the inclination toward autonomous learning should be understood as a developed competence rather than an automatic tendency; it must be supported by a conducive environment and particularly scaffolding from teachers, and the gradual transfer of responsibility.

The effective integration of learner autonomy within the Independent Curriculum necessitates a critical examination of teachers' belief systems and prior experiences. This is because teachers are

instrumental in fostering autonomy through encouraging students to take responsibility for their learning. (Benson, 2011). Borg (2003) emphasizes that teacher cognition, defined by what educators understand, believe, and reflect upon, has a major influence on their professional decision-making and classroom actions. These beliefs are shaped by a combination of personal learning histories, professional development experiences, and broader socio-cultural influences. As Levin (2014) highlights, teachers' beliefs extend beyond pedagogy and learners to encompass broader societal concerns such as poverty and inequality, all of which can shape their teaching practices. A growing body of empirical evidence demonstrates that teacher beliefs are instrumental in determining the extent to which pedagogical innovations, including autonomy-supportive approaches, are adopted and sustained (Borg, 2017; Camilleri, 2007). In rural and resource-constrained educational contexts, teachers may be more inclined to believe that students require constant supervision, often resorting to rigid routines to ensure academic performance. Such assumptions can pose significant barriers to the shift toward learner-centered instruction and the meaningful development of learner autonomy.

Given the important roles of teacher beliefs, research in the field of learner autonomy has consistently demonstrated that EFL teachers' attitudes toward autonomy are shaped by a range of contextual factors, including institutional policies, student readiness, curriculum demands, and the availability of teaching resources. Across various international settings, teachers generally express support for the concept of learner autonomy but often face systemic and pedagogical barriers when implementing it in the classroom. Studies from Turkey (Balçıklı, 2010; Doğan & Mirici, 2017), Iran (Salimi & Ansari, 2015), and Oman (Al-Busaidi & Al-Maamari, 2014; Al-Shaqsi, 2009) reveal that while teachers value autonomy, centralized curricula, limited flexibility in instructional approaches, and a tendency toward learner dependence limit its practical application. Similar issues have been observed in Saudi Arabia (Al Asmari, 2013; Asiri & Shukri, 2018), where low language proficiency and limited instructional time contribute to skepticism about students' readiness to learn independently. In Pakistan and Iraq, researchers (Alzebaree & Alzebaree, 2016; Yasmin & Sohail, 2018) have identified additional barriers such as rigid, exam-oriented curricula, socio-cultural expectations, and hierarchical classroom structures that inhibit autonomy-supportive teaching.

Although these studies provide valuable insights, they primarily focus on urban or semi-urban educational contexts where provision of learning resources and continuous professional development are relatively more available. Rural areas, where infrastructural limitations, socio economic constraints, and teacher isolation are more pronounced, remain significantly underrepresented in the literature. This urban-centric focus limits the generalizability of findings and leaves critical gaps in understanding how autonomy is conceptualized and practiced in under-resourced environments.

In the Indonesian context, a similar trend is evident. Existing scholarship on learner autonomy has predominantly concentrated on urban or more developed regions such as Java, Sumatra, and Bali (e.g., Agustina, 2017; Daflizar, 2017.; Lengkanawati, 2017; Mardjuki, 2018; Melvina & Suherdi, (2019); Wiraningsih & Santosa, 2020) studies report generally favorable teacher attitudes toward autonomy, yet also point to challenges such as high-stakes examinations, low student proficiency, and limited classroom autonomy. For instance, Agustina (2017) discovered that although teachers acknowledged the significance of autonomy development, they struggled to balance this goal with the demands of national assessments. Similarly, Wiraningsih and Santosa (2020) identified structural and policy-related limitations, such as the school zoning system and inadequate institutional support as key obstacles.

However, minimal emphasis has been placed on teachers' experiences within rural and remote educational environments, where such challenges are often intensified by infrastructural deficits, limited access to professional development, and socio-economic disadvantages. The lack of empirical research on learner autonomy in rural Indonesian EFL classrooms leaves a critical gap in the literature, particularly at a time when the Independent Curriculum called for more learner-centered and autonomy-supportive teaching approaches.

This research seeks to fill a significant void in existing studies by examining how high school EFL teachers in rural areas of Kupang Regency, East Nusa Tenggara, perceive and promote learner autonomy within the framework of the *Kurikulum Merdeka*. The region is characterized by geographical isolation and limited educational infrastructure. As Indonesia undergoes a significant curriculum reform aimed at fostering learner agency, autonomy, and 21st-century skills, rural educators are expected to implement these changes despite facing persistent constraints including restricted availability of resources, minimal professional development, and rigid institutional structures.

By focusing on this under-researched context, the study aimed to inform the implementation of inclusive and contextually grounded, and evidence-based insight of learner autonomy in Indonesian EFL education. Specifically, it explored how rural EFL teachers conceptualize, interpret, and translate autonomy-supportive pedagogies into their teaching practices. These educators play a pivotal role in



bridging national curriculum reforms and the realities of the classroom, yet their perspectives remain largely underexplored. Understanding how they navigate the pedagogical, institutional, and socio-economic constraints that shape their teaching is essential to informing more equitable and effective curriculum implementation strategies.

The research is informed by two key theoretical frameworks: (1) Benson's (2011) three-dimensional model of learner autonomy which highlights learner control over the content, process, and evaluation of learning and; (2) Borg's (2003) concept of teacher cognition emphasising the interplay between teachers' beliefs, past experiences, and the teaching contexts in shaping their instructional decisions. These frameworks provide a lens for analyzing how teacher-held conceptions, together with situational constraints, offer empirical insights into classroom-level practices of learner autonomy in rural EFL classrooms. In line with these objectives, this study seeks to address the following research questions:

1. What are the general perceptions and beliefs of Indonesian rural EFL teachers about learner autonomy (RQ1)?
2. To what extent are Indonesian rural EFL teachers prepared to enact autonomy-supportive approaches in their classrooms (RQ2)?

## **2. Method**

### **2.1 Research Design**

This study explored the perceptions rural EFL high school (English as a Foreign Language) teachers in East Nusa Tenggara, Indonesia, regarding the promotion of learner autonomy. A survey-based design was adopted in this study, employing a standardized questionnaire to acquire quantitative data from teachers. A survey is an effective method for examining teachers' beliefs, learner motivation, and teaching strategies as it offers a numerical summary of patterns, perspectives, or viewpoints within a population by examining a representative sample of that group (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). By utilizing a questionnaire, the study aimed to document diverse teacher perspectives on learner autonomy alongside the teaching methods utilized in their classroom practice.

### **2.2 Data collection instrument**

This research utilized an adapted form of the questionnaire originally developed by Yildirim, (2008) to explore teachers' perspectives and self-reported practices regarding learner autonomy. Yildirim's original instrument, which examined student-teacher beliefs about autonomy in a specific educational setting, provided a valuable foundation for this research due to its clear structure and relevance to language education. The adapted questionnaire consisted of three sections: (i) a demographic section gathering respondents' background information; (ii) a modified Likert-scale section to assess their views about promoting learner autonomy; and (iii) an open-ended question inviting their opinions on the applicability of cultivating learner autonomy in their pedagogical contexts. The questionnaire was administered to 60 Indonesian EFL teachers, and a total of 40 completed questionnaires were returned. The collected data were analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively.

Data collection was conducted through a one-phase survey approach, utilizing a combination of closed- and open-ended items to capture both quantitative and qualitative dimensions of teacher beliefs and practices. The closed-ended items, formatted using a five-point Likert scale, aimed to measure the degree of agreement with various statements related to the concept and implementation of learner autonomy. In contrast, the open-ended questions were designed to elicit richer, more nuanced insights into how teachers encourage autonomy within their teaching practices and the barriers they encounter in doing so.

### **2.3 Research Setting and Participants**

The study involved 40 Indonesian EFL teachers from 12 public high schools situated in rural areas of the Kupang Regency, East Nusa Tenggara. These schools are classified as rural based on their remote geographical locations, limited accessibility, and underdeveloped educational infrastructure—characteristics that align with common definitions of rural schooling (Lu, 2024; Wood, 2023). Compared to their urban counterparts, rural schools in Indonesia often operate under significant structural and resource-related constraints. These include inadequate school facilities, a lack of qualified English

teachers and restricted availability of current teaching and learning resources. Further, in these contexts, children are frequently expected to assist with household chores or contribute economically to support their families, which reduces the time and energy available for school-related tasks, such as homework, reading, or autonomous language practice (Amalo & Petraki,; Pramesty et al., 2022)

## 2.4 Procedure of Data Collection and Analysis

Sixty questionnaires were circulated to EFL teachers serving in rural high schools in the Kupang Regency area. Of these, 40 completed responses were received, yielding a response rate of approximately 67%. The distribution of the questionnaire was conducted through two primary methods: in printed form through direct delivery to schools, and electronically, with the Google Forms link distributed through WhatsApp, alongside dissemination via other online platforms. To ensure maximum accessibility and participation, both digital and physical formats were made available. Prior to the distribution process, the researcher conducted school visits to seek formal permission from school administrators and to offer a concise summary of the study's aims. These visits also functioned as a means of establishing rapport with the participants, address potential concerns, and underscore the significance of their contribution to the research.

In the course of these visits, participants were provided with detailed directions for completing the questionnaire, encompassing both Likert-scale items and open-ended responses. To foster honest and thoughtful responses, assurances of anonymity and confidentiality were clearly communicated. Moreover, teachers were made aware that participation was optional and that the collected data would be used only for academic inquiry.

To maintain the validity and reliability of the collected data, the questionnaire was piloted with several teachers and reviewed by two English language specialists and two lecturers, who provided feedback on item content, format, and wording (Bryman, 2016; Cohen, et al., 2018) This process ensured that the questionnaire was clear, relevant, and appropriate for the target participants. After data collection, 40 completed questionnaires were analyzed using percentages to synthesize responses to the Likert-scale items to provide a clear and concise overview of teachers' perceptions of learner autonomy and associated instructional practices.

## 3. Results and Discussion

**Answering Research Question 1 (RQ1): What are the general perceptions and beliefs of Indonesian rural EFL teachers about learner autonomy?**

### Participants' Perception of Students' Engagement in the Pedagogical Process

Table 1 reports the percentage distribution of responses to 12 Likert-scale statements, each measured on a five-point scale from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree.' These items were designed to capture teachers' perceptions of students' involvement in teaching and learning, an essential dimension of learner autonomy.

**Table 1.** Participants' Perception of Learners' Engagement in The Pedagogical Process

How would you rate your level of agreement on students' participation during the educational process?	SD	D	U	SA	A
1. Learners should participate in selecting classroom learning activities	20	43	18	13	6
2. Learners should participate in selecting homework tasks.	25	45	15	10	5
3. Learners should participate in determining learning objectives in class.	18	42	25	10	5
4. Learners should participate in determining learning objectives outside class.	15	40	20	17	8
5. Learners should participate in selecting instructional material.	22	43	20	10	5
6. Learners should participate in choosing classroom learning resources.	23	45	10	15	7

7. Learners should have the capacity to choose learning resources independently outside the classroom.	10	18	6	45	21
8. Learners should have the ability to evaluate their own learning.	7	13	8	48	24
9. Learners should be able to evaluate the course.	10	20	10	40	20
10. Learners should have the capacity to recognize their strengths and weaknesses in English.	6	12	6	48	28
11. Learners should actively participate in selecting what to learn next in their English studies.	20	45	12	15	8
12. Learners should be able to manage the time allocated for each learning activity.	8	14	8	48	22
<i>Note: SD = strongly disagree; D = disagree; U= Undecided; SA = strongly agree; A = agree</i>					

The findings in Table 1 highlight the varying levels of support among rural EFL teachers for student involvement in the course of teaching and learning activities. Teachers showed strong support for autonomy in evaluation-related activities. To illustrate, 76% of respondents (48% strongly agree, 28% agree) believed that students should identify their own English language strengths and areas for improvement. Similarly, 72% (48% strongly agree, 24% agree) supported the notion that students are responsible for assessing their own learning progress. These findings align with the views cited by scholars such as Holec (1981) and Little (2007), who argue that autonomy is grounded in learners' responsibility for their own progress. Furthermore, 76% of teachers (48% strongly agree, 28% agree) indicated that students should determine how much time to allocate to tasks, further highlighting the role of learner reflection in fostering autonomy in language acquisition.

Teachers showed moderate support for learner autonomy outside formal classroom settings. A total of 66% (45% strongly agree, 21% agree) indicated that students should have the capacity to select their own learning resources. Similarly, 60% (40% strongly agree, 20% agree) of teachers supported students' involvement in course evaluation. This supports Borg & Al-Busaidi's (2012) view that student input in less structured areas can boost motivation and ownership. However, support was much lower for learner autonomy within the classroom. Only 20% of teachers (15% strongly agree, 5% agree) favored student involvement in choosing in-class activities. Likewise, just 15% (10% strongly agree, 5% agree) supported involving students in selecting homework or setting learning objectives. This reflects a reluctance to share control over instructional content, often influenced by centralized curricula, hierarchical classroom dynamics, and doubts about students' capabilities (Borg & Al-Busaidi, 2012; Lengkanawati, 2017). These findings also align with broader patterns in Asian educational contexts, where learner autonomy tends to be reactive, limited to teacher defined boundaries, rather than proactive or student driven (Borg & Al-Busaidi, 2012; Borg & Alshumaimeri, 2019; Bui, 2018; Lengkanawati, 2017). In Indonesia, although the new curriculum promotes independent learning, the persistent focus on national examinations restricts flexibility (Agustina, 2017). As a result, teachers often follow the prescribed syllabus closely, leaving little room for student input or independent learning strategies.

Interestingly, while autonomy in evaluation received strong support, there was considerably less agreement regarding students' involvement in setting learning goals. Only 15% of teachers (10% strongly agree, 5% agree) endorsed students' participation in setting in-class goals and 25% (17% strongly agree, 8% agree) supported student involvement in establishing out-of-class learning goals. This reflects a traditional view that goal-setting is primarily the teacher's responsibility, potentially limiting students' opportunities to actively engage with their learning journey (Little, 2004).

These findings can be understood through the lens of Benson's, (2011) three-dimensional framework of learner autonomy. Teachers were more open to promoting learner's control over evaluation, encouraging self-assessment and reflection, than over content or process. This aligns with autonomy scholars' contention such as Benson (2011) and Little (2007), suggesting autonomy in evaluation fosters metacognitive awareness and independent learning. Teachers also showed some receptivity to promoting learner control over the learning process, particularly in managing time and tasks, but this was largely confined to informal or supplementary activities rather than core instruction.

Overall, the research results indicate that while rural EFL teachers are increasingly willing to foster learner autonomy in particular areas, especially evaluation and process, they remain reluctant to allow students greater agency in content decisions. This indicates that teachers held partial understanding

of learner autonomy indicating that learner autonomy in rural contexts is not fully realized across all dimensions of Benson's (2011) framework. To support the development of learner autonomy, professional development initiatives should encourage teachers to view autonomy as a holistic pedagogical approach rather than isolated strategies.

### Participants' Perceptions of the of the Nature of Autonomous Classrooms

Table 2 presents participants' perceptions of the nature of autonomous classrooms based on 10 Likert-scale statements. Respondents evaluated each item on a five-point agreement scale extending from 'Strongly Disagree' (SD) to 'Strongly Agree' (SA). The distribution of responses provides insights into how teachers conceptualize learner autonomy in classroom contexts, particularly regarding roles, responsibilities, and the balance between teacher control and student participation.

**Table 2.** Participants' Perceptions of the Nature of Autonomous Classrooms

Nature of Autonomous Classrooms	SD	D	U	SA	A
1. In the classroom, I talk more than my students as I play a role as a transmitter of knowledge	25	15	20	10	30
2. My role in the classroom is more as a facilitator than a model and controller	20	15	5	25	35
3. In the autonomous classroom, teachers can join in an activity as a teacher and also as participants	10	5	10	40	35
4. Teachers should not position themselves as the only resource in classrooms	6	4	5	50	35
5. Teachers should encourage students to exercise greater autonomy in directing their own learning processes	15	10	5	30	40
6. Teaching should be student-centred rather than teacher-centred to promote autonomous classrooms	10	5	5	45	35
7. In autonomous classrooms, teachers should allow students to choose to work with other students they like	20	15	10	20	35
8. Working in groups and pairs helps students build their learning autonomy	12	8	15	30	35
9. Autonomy involves learner independence within collaborative and supported environments.	3	2	5	57	33
10. Students learn best when they do not depend entirely on their teachers for knowledge and information	18	12	10	22	37

*Note: SD = Strongly Disagree; D = Disagree; U= Undecided; SA = Strongly Agree; A = Agree*

Table 2 provides insights into participants' perceptions of the characteristics that define an autonomous classroom. The responses reflect a general acknowledgment of the need to redefine teacher roles and to embrace learner-centered approaches that foster autonomy. A notable majority of participants endorsed characteristics consistent with the principles of learner autonomy. For example, 80% of teachers (45% strongly agree, 35% agree) affirmed that the classroom should center on the learner's role rather than the teacher's dominance, a view that resonates with Benson's (2011) notion of learner control over the learning process. Learner-centered teaching involves designing activities that allow learners to direct their own engagement, make choices, and develop critical thinking skills (Borg & Al-Busaidi, 2012; Little, 2007). This finding suggests that the respondents recognize the importance of shifting pedagogical strategies to support learner initiative and participation.

The findings further revealed that 85% of teachers supported a more distributed role in knowledge construction, with 50% strongly agreeing and 35% agreeing that teachers should not position themselves as the sole source of knowledge in the classroom. This aligns with both control over content and process, as it reflects a belief in diversifying sources of knowledge and encouraging students to explore beyond the teacher's input (Benson, 2011). This notion is well-supported in the literature, where the teacher's role in fostering autonomy is described as moving from a "transmitter of knowledge" to a facilitator and co-learner (Benson, 2011; Dam, 2003). This is also in line with previous study in this context, where teachers defined learner autonomy in terms learners' engagement in independent knowledge discovery, while teachers serve as facilitators rather than mere providers of information (Amalo, 2023)

A large majority of participants (90%) supported the statement that ‘autonomy involves learner independence within collaborative and supported environments,’ with 57% strongly agreeing and 33% agreeing. This reflects a substantial and accurate comprehension of the principles underlying learner autonomy. This challenges a common misconception that autonomy equates to solitary learning. As Little (1995) asserts, autonomy involves interdependence, where learners exercise choice and agency while also engaging collaboratively with others. Similarly, Benson (2011) emphasizes that learner autonomy includes important social dimensions, particularly through interaction and cooperation with peers in shared learning tasks.

This high level of agreement suggests that participants recognize the value of promoting autonomy by assuming active roles in their learning, think independently, and engage in meaningful peer interactions (Jang et al., 2010). Such an understanding aligns with Little's (1995) argument that collaboration is essential to the development of autonomy as a psychological skill or capacity. Collaborative learning not only supports academic progress but also enhances students' learning strategies, creativity, and self-reliance. Importantly, the teacher's role in this context does not diminish but shifts. Rather than acting as the primary source of information, teachers are now expected to function as facilitators who foster autonomous and active learning environments.

The agreement (40 strongly agree and 35% agree) with the statement that teachers can join classroom activities “as both teachers and participants” also points to a redefinition of traditional hierarchies. This egalitarian approach fosters a more collaborative learning community, in which students and teachers mutually learn from each other. As Dam (2003) suggests, teachers in autonomous classrooms model learning behaviors and support students in becoming reflective and independent thinkers. However, some responses indicate lingering tensions. For instance, only 55% (20 strongly agree and 35 agree) expressed agreement that students should have the freedom to choose their peers to collaborate with which may suggest hesitancy to fully implement learner choice. While collaborative learning was generally viewed positively (with 30% strongly agree and 35 agree), full control over peer interaction remains a delicate issue for many teachers, likely due to concerns about classroom management or equitable participation.

Interestingly, opinions were evenly divided on the statement that the teacher talks more than the students. While 40% of respondents expressed agreement (10% strongly agree, 30% agree), an equal proportion (40%) expressed disagreement (25% strongly disagree, 15% disagree). This division suggests that many educators are still negotiating their professional identity between the roles of knowledge transmitter and learning facilitator. This ambivalence reflects the complexity of changing classroom dynamics and the deeply ingrained roles teachers have historically held (Borg & Al-Busaidi, 2012).

The findings from Table 2 demonstrate that teachers are beginning to adopt a more autonomy-supportive stance in their classrooms, especially in terms of shifting control over content, process, and evaluation to learners. While most respondents showed a theoretical comprehension of the epistemological bases of learner autonomy, particularly the role of collaboration, facilitation, and student responsibility, some uncertainty remains. This uncertainty centers on relinquishing teacher control and providing full learner choice.

These insights indicate a need for ongoing professional development and reflective practice as a means to align pedagogical beliefs with classroom application, particularly in shifting from traditional, teacher-led instruction to student-focused approaches in the Indonesian EFL context.

### **Participants' Perceptions on Supporting Learner Autonomy through Out-of-Class Practices**

Table 3 presents teachers' perceptions of how they support learner autonomy through out-of-class practices. Participants were asked to indicate the extent to which they promote specific activities for their students when learning English. Responses were measured on a five-point Likert scale ranging from ‘Never’ (N) to ‘Always’ (A), with options for ‘Occasionally’ (O), ‘Sometimes’ (S), and ‘Usually’ (U). The distribution of responses provides insight into the strategies teachers encourage in out-of-class contexts to facilitate learner autonomy.

**Table 3.** Participants' Perceptions of Supporting Learner Autonomy through Out-of-Class Practices

<b>To what extent do you promote the following practices when teaching English?</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>O</b>	<b>S</b>	<b>U</b>	<b>A</b>
1. Engage in self-directed grammar learning	3	5	42	20	30
2. Engage in reading English-language news articles	0	2	42	15	40
3. Engage in letter and email writing using the English language	6	10	34	27	33



4. Read printed media such as books and magazines written in English	8	50	12	5	25
5. Watch English TV program	0	3	40	37	20
6. Listen to English program (podcast/radio)	0	6	36	40	18
7. Listen to English songs	0	0	5	15	80
8. Practise using English with friends.	0	2	20	30	48
9. Do English self study in a group	0	10	25	20	45
10. Do grammar exercises on their own	0	2	34	12	52
11. Watch English movies	0	12	45	20	23
12. Write diary or journal in English	1	17	27	40	15
13. Practise speaking English with native Speakers	12	36	43	9	0

*Note: N= Never; O=Occasionally; S= Sometimes; U=Usually; A= Always*

Table 3 demonstrates that participants are generally in favor of encouraging the development of learner autonomy through a range of extracurricular English language practices. A strong majority of respondents reported encouraging students to listen to English songs, with 15% selecting ‘usually’ and 80% ‘always.’ This suggests recognition of the value of authentic and enjoyable content in enhancing learner motivation. Similarly, high levels of endorsement were observed for other practices, including practising English with peers (30% usually, 48% always), undertaking self-study in groups (35% usually, 40% always), and completing grammar exercises independently (12% usually, 52% always). This finding aligns with Amalo's (2023) research conducted in a comparable setting, which reported that teachers actively promoted various out-of-class autonomous learning by encouraging students to participate in self-initiated language activities, including peer interactions in English and engagement with English-language media content. This result supports Little's (1995) view that autonomy is significantly enhanced through collaborative engagement.

Notably, 50% of participants reported encouraging students to engage in grammar learning (20% usually, 30% always). In addition, 60% promoted writing letters and emails in English (27% usually, 33% always), while 45% encouraged reading English-language news articles (15% usually, 30% always). These practices suggest a balanced view that values both formal and informal learning modes, supporting Benson's (2011) notion of *content autonomy*, in which learners engage with varied materials that serve their learning goals. However, extensive reading activities (e.g., reading books or magazines) received less support, with 50% of respondents rarely encouraging this practice. This may reflect contextual challenges such as limited access to engaging texts or students' low reading motivation.

Personal writing practices, such as journaling, received moderate support: 45% of participants reported ‘usually’ encouraging it and 5% ‘always,’ while 27% indicated ‘sometimes’ and 17% ‘rarely’ promoting this activity. This may stem from uncertainty about how personal writing contributes to language development or how to guide students in reflective writing, a key feature of *evaluation autonomy* as described by Benson (2011).

The findings show relatively limited support for promoting interaction with native speakers, with only 9% of participants encouraging it frequently, compared to 36% who rarely and 12% who never encouraged it. This hesitation may arise from the scarcity of native speakers in the local context or concerns over learner confidence. However, with the advancement of technology, learners could access this opportunity to speak with native speakers through social media as Reinders and White (2011) contend that technology offers learners the means to accept more responsibility for managing their own learning, thereby fostering autonomous learning behaviors. Furthermore, Tyers (2013) points out that advancements in technology are empowering motivated learners in developing countries to engage in autonomous learning practices, such as communicating with native speakers.

The responses indicate that participants tend to favor practical, accessible, and socially-oriented activities, which is consistent with the sociocultural dimension of autonomy (Oxford, 2003). However, certain practices such as extensive reading and self-reflective writing remain underutilized. This signals areas where teacher training could play a crucial role in bridging belief practice gaps and expanding teachers' understanding of how to support autonomy through diverse learning pathways, including the use of technology.

### Participants' Familiarity with the Learner Autonomy Concept

Table 4 presents participants' self-reported comprehension of learner autonomy, defined in the questionnaire as learners' capacity to take responsibility for their own learning, specifically by setting

educational objectives, selecting strategies, monitoring progress, and reflecting on outcomes. This was assessed using a five-point scale ranging from 'Not at all' (NA) to 'Very Much' (VM)

**Table 4.** Participants' Conceptual Knowledge of Learner Autonomy

Knowledge of the principles underpinning learner autonomy	NA (%)	L (%)	P (%)	M (%)	VM (%)
Learner autonomy refers to an individual's capacity to assume control over various aspects of their own learning process. This includes the ability to independently establish learning objectives, select and apply suitable learning strategies, track their progress throughout the learning journey, and critically evaluate the outcomes of their efforts. How much are you familiar with this concept?	20	22	20	18	20
<i>Note: NA=Not at all; L=little; P=Partly; M=Much; VM=Very Much</i>					

The results indicate that only 38% of participating EFL teachers (18% very familiar, 20% familiar) demonstrated a clear understanding of the principles of learner autonomy, while 22% reported partial familiarity and 20% acknowledged having no familiarity. These findings highlight a notable knowledge gap among English teachers concerning a key aspect of modern language teaching. This lack of familiarity is particularly concerning since the implementation of Independent Curriculum places a strong emphasis on student-centered, autonomy-supportive instruction. Without a solid understanding of learner autonomy, teachers may face challenges in creating environments that effectively foster student independence and self-directed learning.

As Benson (2011) argues, teachers are not merely facilitators of learner autonomy; they are key agents who shape its practical enactment through classroom design, task choices, and interactional styles. Without a solid conceptual understanding of autonomy, particularly its dimensions of control over content, process, and evaluation, teachers may unintentionally reinforce conventional, teacher centered approaches that restrict learners' active participation and ownership of their learning. This concern is also reflected in Borg and Al-Busaidi's (2012) findings, which revealed that while many language teachers agree with the concept of autonomy in theory, they often lack the pedagogical knowledge, training, or confidence to implement it systematically in their classrooms.

Furthermore, through the lens of teacher cognition theory (Borg, 2003), it argues that teachers' beliefs, prior experiences, and knowledge significantly influence how pedagogical innovations are interpreted and implemented. Without a well-defined, research-informed conceptualization of learner autonomy, educators may be hesitant to implement it effectively or may adopt inconsistent practices in its application (Al-Busaidi & Al-Maamari, 2014). This misalignment between policy intentions and teachers' readiness to adopt autonomy-focused practices can undermine both teacher agency and student development.

In light of these findings, urgent attention is required for context-specific professional development and curricular enhancements both before and during professional practice. Training programs should go beyond promoting general awareness of autonomy to include concrete strategies, such as goal-setting, self-assessment techniques, collaborative learning structures, and reflective dialogue. Teachers also need support in navigating the challenges of applying these strategies in diverse contexts, particularly in under-resourced rural areas where structural constraints and traditional educational norms may pose additional barriers.

### Participants' Perceptions of the Prospects for Developing Learner Autonomy

Table 5 presents participants' perspectives on the feasibility of fostering learner autonomy within their current educational contexts, indicating whether they perceived it as possible ('Yes') or not feasible ('No').

**Table 5.** Participants' Perceptions of the Prospects for Developing Learner Autonomy

The Prospects for Developing Learner Autonomy	Yes	No
Do you consider it feasible to encourage learner autonomy in your current educational setting?	88	12

The data in Table 5 reveals strong optimism among participants concerning the practicality of fostering learner autonomy with 88% agreeing it is achievable in their teaching contexts, while only 12% expressed doubt. This positive outlook is further supported by qualitative responses, in which participants associated autonomy with improved English proficiency, heightened motivation, increased learner ownership of the learning process, greater students' responsibility for their own learning, and the development of independent learning habits. Notably, 81 percent of respondents, representing 26 teachers, reported that learner autonomy significantly enhanced English proficiency and academic performance. This finding is supported by numerous studies in EFL contexts (Alrabai, 2021; Karataş et al., 2015; Mohamadpour, 2013; Myartawan, 2013; Ng et al., 2011; Phuong & Vo, 2019; Soodmand Afshar & Jamshidi, 2022). Additionally, 22% of participants highlighted enhanced memory and retention through active, hands-on learning as another advantage of learner autonomy.

However, while the belief in its feasibility was widespread, participants did not provide clear, context-specific justifications for this view. Rather than citing practical factors such as institutional support, teaching strategies, or cultural alignment, they emphasized the benefits of autonomy in general terms. This lack of concrete pedagogical reasoning suggests a superficial understanding of how to implement autonomy-supportive practices. As Ahmadianzadeh et al., (2020) argue, awareness of learner autonomy's value alone is insufficient to ensure its effective integration into teaching practice.

This disconnect between belief and practice is further evidenced by earlier findings (see Table 4), which show that 42 % of participants had a basic or incomplete grasp of what learner autonomy entails. According to Borg's (2003) theory of teacher cognition, such inconsistencies are common, as beliefs, experiences, and professional training significantly shape classroom implementation. Similarly, as reported by Borg & Al-Busaidi (2012), although the concept of autonomy is generally accepted by teachers in theory, they often struggle to apply it, particularly in systems still dominated by traditional, teacher-centered approaches. Lee et al., (2011) further echoed this in their study on curriculum reform in China, where many teachers expressed support for new policies but lacked the pedagogical depth to implement them effectively, resulting in surface-level compliance. Likewise, in the current study, participants' endorsement of learner autonomy appears more aspirational than grounded in practical understanding or actionable strategies. Overall, these findings indicate that rural EFL teachers view learner autonomy positively, particularly in its reflective and motivational aspects, but their understanding remains limited to the evaluative dimension of Benson's (2011) autonomy model. They support the concept ideologically but not yet methodologically, revealing a belief–practice gap shaped by contextual barriers such as centralized curricula, exam-oriented teaching, and scarce professional development opportunities (Lengkanawati, 2017; Wiraningsih & Santosa, 2020). Addressing these gaps through sustained, context-sensitive professional training will be critical for enabling teachers to translate their favorable perceptions into autonomy-supportive classroom practices aligned with Indonesia's Independent Curriculum (MoECRT, 2022).

### ***Answering Research Question 2 (RQ2): To what extent are Indonesian rural EFL teachers prepared to enact autonomy-supportive approaches in their classrooms***

Building on the findings from Research Question 1, which revealed teachers' generally positive but partial understanding of learner autonomy, the results of Research Question 2 indicate that rural EFL teachers' readiness to implement autonomy-supportive practices remains limited. Although 88% of participants believed that fostering autonomy is feasible in their teaching contexts (see Table 5), their explanations were largely aspirational rather than grounded in pedagogical reasoning. This pattern echoes Borg's (2003, 2017) theory of teacher cognition, which emphasizes that teachers' beliefs, shaped by experience and training, often diverge from classroom reality when not supported by sufficient professional competence. Similar findings have been reported by Borg and Al-Busaidi (2012) and Al-Busaidi and Al-Maamari (2014), who found that many EFL teachers endorse learner autonomy conceptually but lack confidence and strategies to operationalize it.

The limited conceptual understanding identified in Table 4, where fewer than 40 percent of teachers reported being familiar with the principles of learner autonomy, further explains this gap. As Benson (2011) and Little (2007) argue, promoting autonomy requires teachers to transfer control gradually over content, process, and evaluation, which demands both theoretical grounding and practical techniques. In the rural Indonesian context, however, teachers face constraints such as limited resources, exam-driven curricula, and entrenched teacher-centered norms (Amalo & Petraki, 2024; Lengkanawati, 2017; Wiraningsih & Santosa, 2020). These conditions restrict opportunities to experiment with learner-centered instruction and reduce teachers' confidence to facilitate independent learning.

Thus, while teachers express strong support for the *idea* of autonomy, their preparedness to enact it remains underdeveloped. This misalignment between belief and practice, also noted in studies by Camilleri (2007) and Lee et al. (2011), suggest that policy reforms alone are insufficient; sustained, context-sensitive professional development is essential. Such training should integrate theoretical models of autonomy (Benson, 2011) with concrete classroom strategies, such as goal-setting, peer collaboration, and self-assessment to help teachers internalize and apply autonomy-oriented pedagogy effectively within Indonesia's Independent Curriculum framework (MoECRT, 2022).

To bridge this gap, pre-service teacher education programs must go beyond promoting awareness of learner autonomy's benefits. They should provide explicit training in autonomy-supportive pedagogy, including theoretical frameworks such as Benson (2011) practical strategies for learner-centered instruction, and classroom management techniques that empower student agency.

#### 4. Conclusion

This study, among the limited research available on this topic, employed a survey to examine rural EFL teachers' beliefs and readiness to support learner autonomy in Indonesia. Drawing on Benson's (2011) framework of autonomy and Borg (2003) teacher cognition theory as the theoretical lens, the findings reveal that rural EFL teachers largely display encouraging perspective of learner autonomy. Many participants of this study believed that fostering autonomy can improve students' English proficiency, enhance motivation, and cultivate habits of lifelong learning. Teachers commonly linked autonomy to extracurricular activities such as tuning in to songs in English listening, engaging in conversations in English with fellow students and consuming English-language audiovisual content. These perceptions are in line with the vision of Indonesia's Independent Curriculum, which emphasizes flexible, student-centered learning and encourages students to independently regulate and take charge of their learning journey. Overall, the findings from both research questions reveal that while rural Indonesian EFL teachers hold positive attitudes toward learner autonomy (RQ1), their readiness to implement autonomy-supportive practices remains limited (RQ2). Additionally, many participants reported limited familiarity with the theoretical foundations of learner autonomy. This lack of grounding presents a critical barrier, especially when considering that the Independent Curriculum initiative calls for adaptable, learner-driven teaching approaches.

To address this gap, professional development efforts should be prioritized. Training programs that integrate theoretical insights on learner autonomy with practical teaching strategies would align teachers' pedagogical beliefs with their instructional practices in the classroom. By aligning such training with the principles of Independent Curriculum, rural teachers can be better equipped to foster student-centered learning environments. This is especially critical in resource-limited contexts, where autonomous learning can serve as a means of overcoming limitations in instructional support. By providing targeted, context sensitive professional development, educational stakeholders can help ensure that learner autonomy becomes a reality in rural classrooms. This support can foster both linguistic development and the attainment of broader educational aims, including the goals of educational reform in Indonesia.

However, this study is subject to certain limitations, particularly its use of self-reported measures, which may not precisely represent teachers' actual classroom practices. The sample was also limited to rural teachers in a specific region of Indonesia, which restricts the applicability of the results to other educational settings. In addition to this, this study did not include classroom observations or interviews, which could have provided a deeper understanding of how learner autonomy is interpreted and implemented in real classroom settings. It is recommended that future investigations involve a larger and more varied sample of rural EFL teachers across Indonesia and explore regional variations in their perceptions and practices. Longitudinal studies could track how teachers' beliefs and pedagogical approaches evolve over time, particularly in response to professional development aligned with Independent Curriculum. Incorporating qualitative methods involving interviews and classroom-based observations would offer richer data on the complexities of implementing learner autonomy.

#### References

- Agustina, D. (2017). *A complex system of teachers' beliefs and practices in developing learner autonomy in Indonesian junior high school contexts: A mixed-methods study* [PhD Thesis]. Victoria University of Wellington.
- Al Asmari, A. (2013). Practices and Prospects of Learner Autonomy: Teachers' Perceptions. *English Language Teaching*, 6(3), 1-10. <https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v6n3p1>



- Ahmadianzadeh, B., Seifoori, Z., & Hadidi Tamjid, N. (2020). Exploring EFL teachers' beliefs about and practices of learner autonomy across experience and licensure. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 14(2), 97–113. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1080/17501229.2018.1501694>
- Al-Busaidi, S., & Al-Maamari, F. (2014). Exploring University Teachers' Understanding of Learner Autonomy. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 4(10), 2051-2060 <https://doi.org/10.4304/tpls.4.10.2051-2060>
- Al-Shaqsi, T. S. (2009). Teachers' beliefs about learner autonomy. In S. Borg (Ed.), *Researching English language teaching and teacher development in Oman* (pp. 157–165). Ministry of Education Oman.
- Alrabai, F. (2021). The Influence of Autonomy-Supportive Teaching on EFL Students' Classroom Autonomy: An Experimental Intervention. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 12(4), 1-15. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2021.728657>
- Alzeebaree, Y., & Alzeebaree, Y. (2016). Learner Autonomy: Iraqi EFL Teachers' Beliefs. *European Scientific Journal*, 12(31), 59-71. <https://doi.org/10.19044/esj.2016.v12n31p59>
- Amalo, B. (2023). *Developing learner autonomy in underprivileged Indonesian senior high schools: EFL teachers' and students' beliefs and teachers' practices* [PhD Thesis]. University of Canberra. <https://doi.org/10.26191/zz0t-7e38>
- Amalo, B., & Petraki, E. (2024). Exploring the Enabling Factors and Constraints for Developing Learner Autonomy in an Underprivileged Indonesian EFL Context. *The Journal of AsiaTEFL*, 21(3), 640–660. <https://doi.org/10.18823/asiatefl.2024.21.3.8.640>
- Apple, M. (2011). Autonomy as a predictor of English proficiency. *OnCUE Journal*, 4(3), 191–216.
- Asiri, J., & Shukri, N. (2018). Female Teachers' Perspectives of Learner Autonomy in the Saudi Context. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 8(6), 570-579. <https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.0806.03>
- Balçıkınlı, C. (2010). Learner Autonomy In Language Learning: Student Teachers' Beliefs. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 35(1). 90-103. <https://doi.org/10.14221/ajte.2010v35n1.8>
- Benson, P. (2011). *Teaching and researching autonomy in language learning*. Pearson Education.
- Borg, S. (2003). Teacher cognition in language teaching: A review of research on what language teachers think, know, believe, and do. *Language Teaching*, 36(2). <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444803001903>
- Borg, S. (2017). Teachers' Beliefs and Classroom Practices. In P. Garrett, & J. M. Cots (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of language awareness* (pp. 75–91). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315676494-5>
- Borg, S., & Al-Busaidi, S. (2012). Teachers' beliefs and practices regarding learner autonomy. *ELT Journal*, 66(3) 283 – 292. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccr065>
- Borg, S., & Alshumaimeri, Y. (2019). Language learner autonomy in a tertiary context: Teachers' beliefs and practices. *Language Teaching Research*, 23(1), 9–38. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168817725759>
- Bryman, A. (2016). *Social research methods*. Oxford University Press.
- Bui, N. (2018). Learner autonomy in tertiary English classes in Vietnam. In J. Albright (Ed.), *English tertiary education in Vietnam* (pp. 158–171). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315212098-12>
- Camilleri, G. A. (2007). Pedagogy for autonomy, teachers' attitudes and institutional change: A case study. In M. J. Raya & L. Sercu (Ed.), *Challenges in Teacher Development: Learner Autonomy and Intercultural Competence* (pp. 81–102). Peter Lang.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2018). *Research methods in education* (8th Edition). Routledge.
- Cotterall, S. (1995). Readiness for autonomy: Investigating learner beliefs. *System*, 23(2), 195–205. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0346-251X\(95\)00008-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/0346-251X(95)00008-8)
- Crabbe, D. (1993). Fostering autonomy from within the classroom: the teacher's responsibility. *System*, 21(4), 443–452.
- Creswell, J. W., & Creswell, J. D. (2018). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (5th Edition). Sage.
- Daflizar. (2017). *Readiness for learner autonomy: An investigation into beliefs and practices of Indonesian tertiary EFL students* [PhD Thesis, University of Canberra]. <https://researchprofiles.canberra.edu.au/en/studentTheses/readiness-for-learner-autonomy-an-investigation-into-beliefs-and-/>
- Dam, L. (2003). Developing learner autonomy: the teacher's responsibility. In E. Dam, L., Little, D., Ridley, J., & Ushioda (Eds.), *Learner autonomy in the foreign language classroom: teacher, learner, curriculum and assessment*. Authentik.



- Dam, L. (2011). Developing learner autonomy with school kids: Principles, practices, results. In D. Gardner (Ed.), *Fostering autonomy in language learning* (pp. 40–51). Zirve University.
- Doğan, G., & Mirici, I. H. (2017). EFL instructors' perception and practices on learner autonomy in some Turkish universities. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 13(1), 166–193. <https://api.semanticscholar.org/CorpusID:96455513>
- Dwiarso, P. (2010). *Napak Tilas Ajaran Ki Hadjar Dewantara*. Majelis Luhur Pesatuan.
- Febriana, M., Nurkamto, J., Rochsantiningsih, D., & Muhtia, A. (2018). Teaching in Rural Indonesian Schools: Teachers' Challenges. *International Journal of Multicultural and Multireligious Understanding*, 2(2), 87-96. <https://doi.org/10.18415/ijmmu.v5i5.305>
- Fonseka, E. G. (2003). Autonomy in a resource-poor setting: Enhancing the carnivalesque. In D. Palfreyman & R. C. Smith (Eds.), *Learner autonomy across cultures* (pp. 147–163). Springer.
- Günes, S., & Alagözlü, N. (2020). The Interrelationship between Learner Autonomy, Motivation and Academic Success in Asynchronous Distance Learning and Blended Learning Environments. *Novitas-ROYAL (Research on Youth and Language)*, 14(2), 1–15.
- Hashemian, M., Heidari, K., & Soureshjani. (2011). The Interrelationship of Autonomy, Motivation, and Academic Performance of Persian L2 Learners in Distance Education Contexts. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 1(4), 319-326. <https://doi.org/10.4304/tpsls.1.4.319-326>
- Holec, H. (1981). *Autonomy and foreign language learning*. Pergamon Press.
- Hunaepi, H., & Suharta, I. G. P. (2024). Transforming Education in Indonesia: The Impact and Challenges of the Merdeka Belajar Curriculum. *Path of Science*, 10(6), 5026–5039. <https://doi.org/10.22178/pos.105-31>
- Ministry of Education, Culture, Research, and Technology of the Republic of Indonesia [MoECRT]. (2022). Indonesia's *Independent Curriculum* (*Kurikulum Merdeka*). [https://kurikulum.kemdikbud.go.id/wp-content/unduhan/CP\\_2022.pdf](https://kurikulum.kemdikbud.go.id/wp-content/unduhan/CP_2022.pdf)
- Jang, H., Reeve, J., & Deci, E. (2010). Engaging Students in Learning Activities: It Is Not Autonomy Support or Structure but Autonomy Support and Structure. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 102(3), 588–600. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0019682>
- Karataş, H., Alci, B., Yurtseven, N., & Yuksel, H. (2015). Prediction of ELT Students' Academic (Language) Achievement: Language Learning Orientation and Autonomous Learning. *International Online Journal of Educational Sciences*, 7(1), 160–171. <https://doi.org/10.15345/iojes.2015.01.014>
- Lamb, T. (2009). Controlling Learning: Learners' Voices and Relationships between Motivation and Learner Autonomy. In R. Pemberton, S. Toogood, & A. Barfield (Eds.), *Maintaining Control: Autonomy and Language Learning* (p. 67-86). Hong Kong University Press. <https://doi.org/10.5790/hongkong/9789622099234.003.0005>
- Lee, J., Yin, H., Zhang, Z., & Jin, Y. (2011). Teacher Empowerment and Receptivity in Curriculum Reform in China. *Chinese Education & Society*, 44(4), 64–81. <https://doi.org/10.2753/CED1061-1932440404>
- Lengkanawati, N. (2017). Learner autonomy in the Indonesian efl settings. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 6(2) 222-231. <https://doi.org/10.17509/ijal.v6i2.4847>
- Levin, B. B. (2014). The development of teachers' beliefs. In H. Fives & M. G. Gill (Eds.), *International handbook of research on teachers' beliefs* (pp. 48–65). Routledge.
- Little, D. (1995). Learning as dialogue: The dependence of learner autonomy on teacher autonomy. *System*, 23(2), 175–181. [https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/0346-251X\(95\)00006-6](https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/0346-251X(95)00006-6)
- Little, D. (2004). Democracy, discourse and learner autonomy in the foreign language classroom. *Utbildning & Demokrati: Tidsskrift För Didaktik Och Utbildningspolitik*, 13(3), 105-126. <https://doi.org/10.48059/uod.v13i3.784>
- Little, D. (2006). Learner autonomy: Drawing together the threads of self-assessment, goal-setting and reflection. *European Centre for Modern Languages*. [http://archive.ecml.at/mtp2/Elp\\_tt/Results/DM\\_layout/00\\_10/06/06 Supplementary text.pdf](http://archive.ecml.at/mtp2/Elp_tt/Results/DM_layout/00_10/06/06%20Supplementary%20text.pdf)
- Little, D. (2007). Language Learner Autonomy: Some Fundamental Considerations Revisited. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 1(1), 14–29. <https://doi.org/10.2167/illt040.0>
- Liu, H. (2015). Learner Autonomy: The Role of Motivation in Foreign Language Learning. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 6(6), 1165. <https://doi.org/10.17507/jltr.0606.02>
- Lu, J. (2024). Study on the Difference between Urban and Rural Education in Yuyao: -- Take Two Local Schools as Examples. *Journal of Education and Educational Research*, 10, 1–5. <https://doi.org/10.54097/d9x9x054>
- Mardjuki, M. (2018). Learner Autonomy: Gender-Based Perception Among EFL Indonesian Students. *Indonesian Journal of EFL and Linguistics*, 3(1). <https://doi.org/10.21462/ijefll.v3i1.46>

- Melvina, M., & Suherdi, D. (2019). Indonesian ELT teachers' beliefs toward language learner autonomy. *Second Conference on Language, Literature, Education, and Culture (ICOLLITE 2018)*, 239–242. <https://doi.org/10.2991/icollite-18.2019.53>
- Mohamadpour, P. (2013). Realization of Autonomy and English Language Proficiency among Iranian High School Students. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 3 (7), 1187-1193 <https://doi.org/10.4304/tpls.3.7.1187-1193>
- Murphy, L., & Hurd, S. (2011). Fostering learner autonomy and motivation in blended teaching. In L. M. & M. S. M. Nicolson (Eds.). *Language Teaching in Blended Contexts* (pp. 43–56). Edinburgh Dunedin Academic Press Ltd. <http://www.dunedinacademicpress.co.uk>Title
- Myartawan, I. P. N. W., Latief, M. A., & Suharmanto, S. (2013). The correlation between learner autonomy and English proficiency of Indonesian EFL college learners. *TEFLIN Journal*, 24(1), 63–81. <https://doi.org/10.15639/teflinjournal.v24i1/63-81>
- Ng, S., Confessore, G., Yusoff, Z., Aziz, N. A. A., & Lajis, N. M. (2011). Learner autonomy and academic performance among undergraduate students. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Education*, 1(4), 669–679.
- Oxford, R. L. (2003). Toward a More Systematic Model of L2 Learner Autonomy. In D. Palfreyman & R. C. Smith (Eds.). *Learner Autonomy across Cultures: Language Education Perspectives* (pp.75–91). Palgrave Macmillan UK. [https://doi.org/10.1057/9780230504684\\_5](https://doi.org/10.1057/9780230504684_5)
- Phipps, S., & Borg, S. (2009). Exploring tensions between teachers' grammar teaching beliefs and practices. *System*, 37(3), 380-390. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2009.03.002>
- Phuong, Y. H., & Vo, P. Q. (2019). (2019). Students learning autonomy, involvement and motivation towards their English proficiency. *EduLite (Online)*, 4(1), 1–12. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.30659/e.4.1.1-12> proficiency.
- Pramesty, N., Maghfiroh, A., & Mustikawati, D. (2022). Teachers' Challenges in Teaching English to Young Learners in Rural Area. *AL-ISHLAH: Jurnal Pendidikan*, 14(4), 5283–5292. <https://doi.org/10.35445/alishlah.v14i4.1517>
- Rahmadhani, R., Hindri, S., & Rachmawati, D. (2022). Learning Analysis: Implementation of the Independent Curriculum in Improving Numeracy Literacy. *Eduhumaniora | Jurnal Pendidikan Dasar*, 14(2), 123–135. <https://ejournal.upi.edu/index.php/eduhumaniora/article/view/57200%0A>
- Ramos- Holguín, B., & Morales, J. (2016). English Language Teaching in Rural Areas: A New Challenge for English Language Teachers in Colombia. *Cuadernos de Lingüística Hispánica*, 209-222. <https://doi.org/10.19053/0121053X.4217>
- Rebenius, I. (2003). Discussing learner autonomy. *Canarian Conference on Developing Autonomy in the FL Classroom*. Tenerife, Spain: The University of La Laguna.
- Reinders, H., & White, C. J. (2011). Learner Autonomy and New Learning Environments. *Language, Learning and Technology*, 15(3), 1–3. <https://doi.org/10.64152/10125/44254>
- Salimi, A., & Ansari, N. (2015). Learner Autonomy: Investigating Iranian English Teachers' Beliefs. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 5(5), 1106-1115. <https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.0505.28>
- Sinclair, B. (2000). Learner autonomy: The next phase. In I. M. & T. L. B. Sinclair (Eds.), *Learner autonomy, teacher autonomy: Future directions* (pp. 4–14). Longman.
- Soodmand Afshar, H., & Jamshidi, B. (2022). EFL learners' language learning strategy use, instrumental motivation, self-efficacy, self-regulation, autonomy, and L2 achievement: A SEM analysis. *Applied Research on English Language*, 11(4), 133–160. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.22108/are.2022.133123.1880>
- Spratt, M., Humphreys, G., & Chan, V. (2002). Autonomy and motivation: which comes first? *Language Teaching Research*, 6(3), 245–266. <https://doi.org/10.1191/1362168802lr106oa>
- Tyers, A. (2013). *Is digital education easily accessible to Bangladeshi girls*. In: British Council website. <http://www.britishcouncil.org/blog/digital>.
- Ushioda, E. (1996). Developing a dynamic concept of L2 motivation. In T. Hickey & J. Williams (Eds.), *Language, education and society in a changing world* (pp. 239–245). Multilingual Matters.
- Wiraningsih, P., & Santosa, M. (2020). EFL teachers' challenges in promoting learner autonomy in the 21st-century learning. *Journal on English as a Foreign Language*, 10(2), 290-314. <https://doi.org/10.23971/jefl.v10i2.1881>
- Witasari, R. (2022). Pemikiran Pendidikan Ki Hajar Dewantara Dan Relevansinya Dengan Kebijakan Pendidikan Merdeka Belajar. *Indonesian Journal of Elementary Education and Teaching Innovation*, 1(1), 1-8. [https://doi.org/10.21927/ijeeti.2022.1\(1\).1-8](https://doi.org/10.21927/ijeeti.2022.1(1).1-8)

- Wood, R. . (2023). A review of education differences in urban and rural areas. *International Research Journal of Educational Research*, 14(2), 1–3.
- Yasmin, M., & Sohail, A. (2018). *Learner Autonomy: Pakistani English Teachers' Beliefs*. 40(2), 179–194.
- Yildirim, Ö. (2008). Turkish EFL Learners' Readiness for Learner Autonomy. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 4(1), 65-80.

## **From sheet to screen: Teachers' needs for science literacy-based explanatory text writing learning in vocational schools**

**Risnawati Sofia<sup>1</sup>, Dadang S. Anshori<sup>2</sup>, Halimah<sup>3</sup>, Nurulrabihah Mat Noh<sup>4</sup>**

Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia<sup>1,2,3</sup>  
Malaysian Teacher Training Institute Malay Language  
Campus<sup>4</sup>  
email: risnawatisofia@upi.edu<sup>1</sup>

**Abstract** - This study aims to describe the profile and needs of teachers in learning to write science literacy-based explanatory texts at Vocational High Schools (SMK) in Cianjur, Jawa Barat. Employing a descriptive qualitative method, data were collected via an online questionnaire distributed to 19 Indonesian language teachers. The questionnaire instrument consisted of closed and open questions covering respondents' identity, teaching experience, learning challenges, and needs for teaching materials. The results show that most teachers, with varying teaching experience, have taught explanatory texts. However, learning still predominantly focuses on mechanical aspects and has not been optimally integrated with elements of science literacy. Conventional textbooks are still the primary source of learning, while utilizing digital media and contextual materials is minimal. Teachers also expressed the need for teaching materials linking text structures with scientific understanding relevant to students' lives. In addition, training for teachers in integrating science literacy into writing instruction is urgently needed. These findings confirm the importance of developing science literacy-based writing e-modules to solve classroom learning challenges and improve students' critical thinking, information literacy, and writing skills in a contextual and meaningful way.

**Keywords:** Explanatory Text, Science Literacy, Teachers' Needs, Vocational School, Writing Skills

## 1. Introduction

The literacy skills of Indonesian students, especially reading and writing, are still relatively low. Based on the PISA results in 2022, Indonesia ranked 69th out of 81 countries with a reading literacy score of 359, far below the OECD average of 487 (PISA 2022 Results (Volume I), 2023). This lack of literacy impacts students' ability to understand and produce texts, including explanatory texts that demand logical and scientific thinking skills (Ayu Apriliana & Anggrella, 2024).

Explanatory texts are a type of writing that aims to describe how certain phenomena occur, whether natural or social. By presenting information coherently and logically, explanatory texts help readers understand the background and processes underlying certain events (Anshori & Damaianti, 2022; Kosasih, 2016). In the context of vocational high schools, the ability to write explanatory texts is essential because it supports vocational learning that requires a scientific understanding of practical phenomena (Sofia & Anshori, 2024). This skill improves students' academic achievement and provides essential competencies for the world of work, where clear, logical, and evidence-based communication is highly valued.

Writing texts requires planned steps and learning resources per learning needs (Ramadhanti et al., 2023). Writing skills cannot be acquired naturally, but must undergo a continuous process of learning and practice (Khasanah & Yulianto, 2024; Munaiseche et al., 2024). Therefore, learning to write must be designed systematically and oriented towards developing students' competencies.

Ideally, learning to write explanatory texts does not only focus on structure and linguistic aspects. It also needs to integrate scientific understanding of a phenomenon to align with the principles of science literacy (Maryanti & Haryadi, 2022). Science literacy includes scientific knowledge, critical thinking skills, attitudes, and the ability to relate scientific concepts to real-life contexts. Integrating science literacy in learning to write explanatory texts is expected to improve students' understanding in depth and application (Haruna et al., 2024). Thus, science literacy includes scientific knowledge and the ability to apply it in real-life contexts.

However, the results of research by Rufaidah et al. (2022) and Santi et al. (2023) showed that writing learning in SMK still focuses on mechanical aspects and has not touched on scientific and contextual content aspects. Research by Eden (2024) also, many teachers tend to teach writing as a separate skill from scientific content, so students do not get the opportunity to develop a deep understanding of the material they write about.

This is exacerbated by the lack of teaching materials supporting science literacy integration. A study conducted by Febrianti et al. (2022) found that available teaching materials are often not designed to connect scientific concepts with students' daily lives, hindering their ability to apply scientific knowledge in relevant contexts. In addition, other studies have also emphasized that the lack of training for teachers in integrating science literacy into writing instruction is also a significant obstacle (Fajariyah Akbari, 2023; Hutami & Pratiwi, 2024; Niswaty et al., 2023).

Collaborating efforts between educators, curriculum developers, and educational researchers are needed to overcome these challenges. This collaboration aims to design teaching materials that emphasize structure and language and enrich students' scientific understanding. In addition, training for teachers in integrating science literacy into writing lessons is essential. This training aims to enable students to develop writing skills that are not only mechanical but also meaningful and contextualized.

Science literacy is critical in language learning, especially at the Vocational High School level. Several previous studies emphasize the urgency of science literacy in improving the quality of language learning. One of them is a study conducted by Alfiah & Bramastia (2024) This shows that science literacy contributes significantly to developing students' communication skills. With good science literacy, students can understand scientific concepts in depth and convey them clearly and precisely. These skills become essential in the world of work, especially in cross-disciplinary collaborative situations, where students are required to express ideas logically, construct data-based arguments, and work together effectively. In addition, strong communication is also needed when students have to interact with superiors, clients, or other parties who may not have the same technical background.

In line with these findings, Saputra (2023) emphasizes that science literacy in language learning enables students to connect scientific knowledge with real-world phenomena. Language serves as a means of thinking, solving problems, and understanding scientific concepts, which are highly relevant in social and professional life (Alejandro, 2024; Krauss, 2024). Through practical language skills, students can interpret scientific information, think critically, and communicate ideas. This close link



between language and science literacy is essential in shaping individuals sensitive to social and technological issues.

Amidst the global push to prioritize academic writing in English, academic writing in Indonesian continues to play a strategic role, especially in vocational secondary education. Mastery of academic writing in Indonesian provides a foundation for students to develop critical thinking and scientific argumentation skills, while also strengthening linguistic identity and preparing for the transition to academic writing in English (Muhsin et al., 2024; Shofiah et al., 2024). Thus, strengthening academic literacy in Indonesian is not contrary to global practices but rather a relevant and sustainable pedagogical step to equip students to face academic and professional demands in the global era. In this framework, teachers' role is vital to ensure the integration of academic literacy and science literacy in writing learning in vocational schools.

However, there is still little research that specifically examines the needs of teachers in implementing science literacy-based writing instruction in vocational schools. Understanding these needs is crucial because teachers are the main facilitators in student-centered learning, whose challenges and needs must be addressed to ensure effective instructional design. Based on this gap, this study was guided by the following research question: What challenges and needs do teachers face in teaching science literacy-based explanatory texts in vocational schools? The findings of this study are expected to serve as a basis for designing teaching resources that specifically address teachers' instructional needs. By strengthening teachers' capacity, these resources can create more relevant, contextual, and practical learning opportunities for students.

## 2. Method

This study uses a qualitative descriptive method. The qualitative descriptive method aims to describe the object of study narratively (Anggito & Setiawan, 2018; Sugiyono, 2023). The research respondents were determined using purposive sampling with the following criteria: (1) teachers who actively teach the Indonesian language at vocational high schools, (2) have experience teaching explanatory texts, and (3) are willing to participate voluntarily. The questionnaire link was distributed to all members of the Indonesian language teacher communication group of the West Cianjur Regency vocational high schools, coordinated by the coordinator, which consisted of 22 people. Of these, 19 teachers were willing to fill out the questionnaire and became research participants. The respondents comprised 63% women and 37% men with an average age of 38 years and approximately 12 years of teaching experience. This region was chosen because it has an active and well-organized community of teachers, which facilitated data collection coordination and was considered representative in providing an initial overview of teachers' needs.

The research instrument was a questionnaire developed based on the principles of qualitative research instrument development according to Sugiyono (2023). The questionnaire consisted of closed and open-ended questions. Closed questions were used to obtain quantitative data on the frequency of learning media use, the types of teaching materials commonly used, and the extent to which teachers applied science literacy elements in learning. Open questions explored teachers' perceptions of science literacy's challenges, needs, and relevance in teaching explanatory text writing. The questionnaire consisted of 23 questions divided into four sections, namely: (1) identity (Q = 3), (2) teacher profile and experience in teaching explanatory texts (Q = 7), (3) teachers' challenges in teaching explanatory texts (Q = 7), and (4) teachers' needs for teaching materials for writing explanatory texts in class (Q = 6).

To ensure content validity, the questionnaire was reviewed by two experts, namely a lecturer in Indonesian language education and a researcher in science literacy. Both provided input on the clarity of the wording, relevance, and suitability of the questions to the research objectives. Based on this input, several questions were revised in terms of language and several indicators were rearranged to make the instrument easier to understand and more relevant to the research focus.

The research procedure was carried out in six stages: (1) drafting the questionnaire based on the research objectives, (2) expert review to ensure content validity and readability, (3) distribution of the final questionnaire online via Google Form to all teachers who met the criteria in the communication group, (4) giving respondents two weeks to complete the questionnaire with periodic reminders, (5) data verification to ensure the completeness and consistency of the answers, and (6) qualitative descriptive data analysis.

Data validity was maintained by applying Lincoln (2017) four criteria of trustworthiness, namely (1) credibility, maintained through method triangulation by combining quantitative and qualitative data and expert validation of the instruments; (2) transferability, achieved through contextual descriptions of

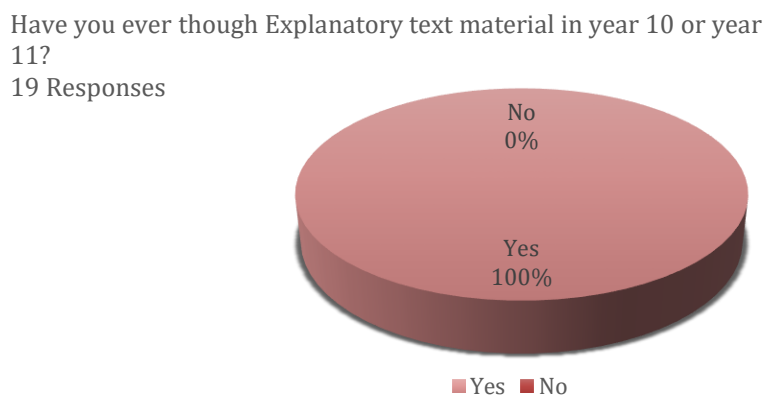
the respondents and the research setting at vocational schools in Cianjur Regency; (3) reliability, maintained by systematically recording all research procedures as an audit trail; and (4) confirmation, ensured by basing the analysis entirely on respondent data and storing the original data for re-examination purposes.

Quantitative data from closed questions were analyzed descriptively to obtain percentages that describe the profile and needs of teachers. Qualitative data from open-ended questions were analyzed using thematic analysis (Akramul Kabir, 2024; Sandhiya & Bhuvaneswari, 2024). The coding process was carried out manually in three stages (Liu, 2022). The first stage was open coding to identify and label important answers, the second was axial coding to group similar codes into broader categories, and the third was selective coding to compile the main themes that explained the challenges and needs of teachers. The coding process was carried out carefully and cross-checked by the research team to ensure the consistency and reliability of the analysis results.

### 3. Results and Discussion

#### 3.1 Teacher's Practices in Writing Explanatory Text: Current Challenges and Science Literacy Gaps

Teachers' practices in teaching exploratory text writing are known through their experiences teaching exploratory texts in class. Nineteen teachers who became respondents were known to have more than one year of teaching experience. The questionnaire results show that all respondent teachers have taught the material of writing explanatory texts in class. This can be seen in Figure 1 below.

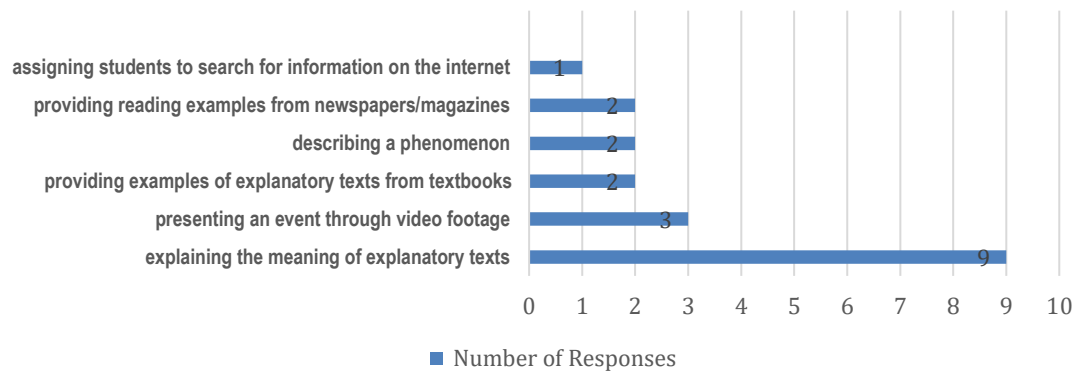


**Figure 1.** Teacher's Experience of Teaching Explanatory Text

The teachers' teaching experience of more than one year and their involvement in teaching explanatory texts show that this material is not unfamiliar to them. For teachers, teaching explanatory texts has become part of their daily professional journey that shapes how they understand writing challenges in the classroom. The fact that all respondents have taught this material shows that they share an experience that confirms that writing explanatory texts is not merely a curricular obligation, but a practice that continuously trains their pedagogical intuition in dealing with students' diverse abilities.

Teachers used various approaches to introduce the material in the initial learning activities. Nine teachers began by explaining the definition of explanatory texts. Three teachers used video media to illustrate an event. Two teachers asked students to read sample texts from books. Two other teachers described a phenomenon. Two other teachers asked students to read samples from newspapers or magazines. One teacher encouraged students to search for information independently on the Internet. This is illustrated in Figure 2 below.

## Methods Used By Teachers In Early Learning Activities For Writing Explanatory Texts



**Figure 2.** Methods Used by Teachers in Explanatory Text Learning

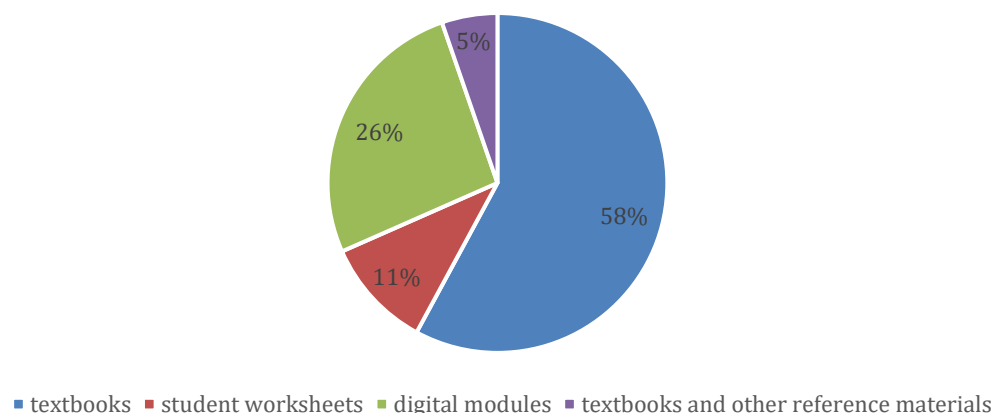
At first glance, this data distribution only shows variations in strategy. However, the meaning behind this practice reveals teachers' dependence on approaches that feel safe and familiar. The finding that nine teachers began the lesson by explaining the definition of explanatory text shows that conventional patterns are still dominant. Teachers are more comfortable transmitting knowledge than facilitating exploration. This strategy reflects a tendency to rely on lectures, which are considered the safest method, but simultaneously reveals limitations in applying science literacy approaches.

In contrast, many teachers tried to use videos, current events, or online searches. These efforts show a drive to make learning more contextual and relevant to students' realities. This situation highlights the tension between traditional knowledge-centered patterns and a new orientation that emphasizes discovery and contextualization. This new direction is in line with the PISA 2022 Results (Volume I) (2023) framework, which emphasizes observation, media utilization, and problem-solving. This dynamic is also consistent with the findings of Rufaidah et al. (2022) that teachers still tend to teach writing as a mechanical skill separate from scientific content.

Based on the questionnaire results, the profile of teaching materials used in explanatory text writing instruction is as follows: 58% of teachers still rely on textbooks, 26% use digital modules, 11% use Student Worksheets (LKS), and the rest combine books with online articles. This is illustrated in Figure 3 below.

What kind of teaching materials do you usually use to teach explanatory writing?

19 Responses

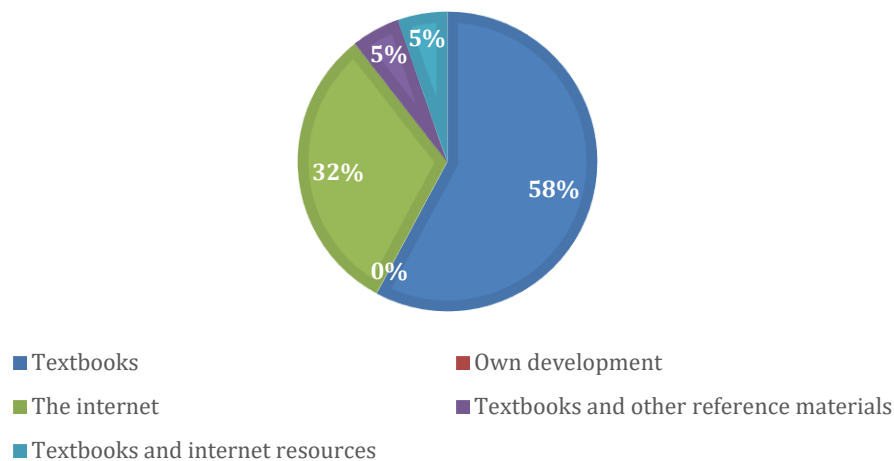


**Figure 3.** Teaching Materials Used in Learning

The dependence on textbooks seen in the data above cannot be interpreted merely as a practical choice; it reflects the experience of teachers who view textbooks as the most stable, curriculum-compliant, and accessible teaching resource. However, using digital modules and online articles indicates a shift in pedagogical orientation, as teachers realize that student engagement increases when teaching materials are related to the digital world and contemporary issues. This duality between stability (textbooks) and innovation (digital teaching materials) captures the experience of teachers navigating curriculum demands and the need for modernization. This aligns with Aegustinawati et al. (2024), who state that although textbooks are still dominant, teachers are becoming more open to alternative teaching materials that can increase student engagement.

A similar pattern is seen in the explanatory text sources used in learning. A total of 58% of teachers only use textbooks published by the Ministry of Education and Culture, 32% take text examples from the internet, and a small percentage combine various sources. This data shows that although textbooks are still the primary choice, digital sources are beginning to grow and are seen as an alternative that can enrich teaching materials. This can be seen in Figure 4 below.

Where does the source material for explanatory texts come from?  
19 Responses

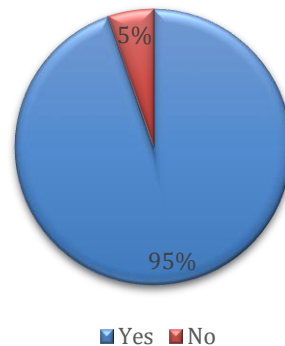


**Figure 4.** Explanatory Text Resources

Upon closer examination, teachers' choice of primary sources for textbooks is not only a matter of availability, but also an internal negotiation between authority and authenticity. Textbooks represent authority and standards, while online sources offer variety, relevance, and proximity to the students' context. The combination of the two shows a shift in perspective that explanatory texts are not only seen as linguistic structures, but also as representations of real knowledge.

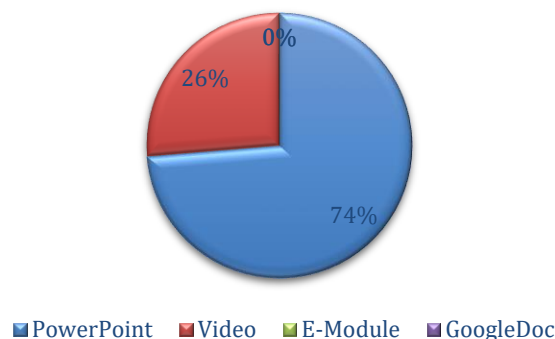
The respondents' answers regarding the use of media in classroom learning are shown in Figures 5 and 6 below.

Do you use digital or online media when teaching writing?  
19 Responses



**Figure 5.** Use of Digital Media

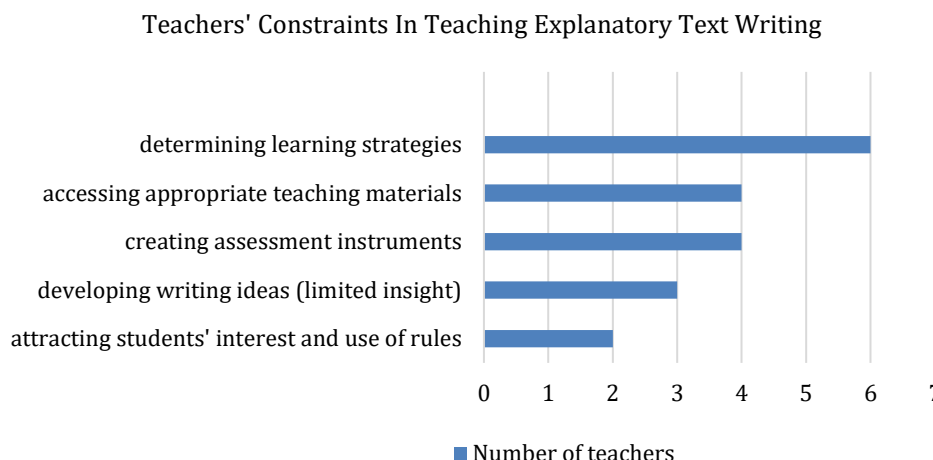
If so, what media is used?  
19 Responses



**Figure 6.** Digital Media Used in Learning

From the two figures above, it can be seen that most teachers (95%) stated that they had used digital media in teaching explanatory text writing. Of this number, the majority, or around 74% of teachers, used PowerPoint presentations to deliver material. Meanwhile, 26% of teachers use digital modules as learning media. This finding indicates a high level of readiness to integrate digital media into writing instruction activities. This reflects teachers' awareness of the importance of technology in supporting learning. However, the media used are still presentation-based and have not yet moved towards interactive or inquiry-based media. Learning media development should be directed toward using multimodal elements such as text, images, videos, and graphics that can encourage students to write based on observations or interpretations of scientific data. Findings also reinforce this Handoyo et al. (2024), which emphasizes that the use of various multimedia elements, including text, images, audio, and video, can increase student motivation and understanding, thereby supporting the development of learning media that engages students in interpreting scientific data effectively. Building on this, the study also explored the challenges faced by teachers in implementing explanatory text writing in the classroom, as illustrated in the following diagram.





**Figure 7.** Learning Constraints for Explanatory Texts

The obstacles highlighted the importance of aligning teaching strategies with pedagogical principles supporting interdisciplinary learning. Six teachers admitted having difficulty determining the appropriate learning strategy, indicating a need for a more focused and contextual pedagogical approach. Four other teachers reported challenges in accessing appropriate teaching materials, and four teachers also experienced obstacles in developing assessment instruments relevant to the targeted competencies. Additionally, three teachers stated that students' limited knowledge posed a unique challenge in developing writing ideas. Two other teachers noted that students' lack of interest in learning and limited understanding of language rules hindered writing instruction. These findings highlight the importance of strengthening teachers' pedagogical capacity regarding technical teaching skills and applying approaches that combine language and science literacy. Teacher training should include developing teaching materials based on current scientific issues, integrating project- or problem-based learning strategies, and designing assessments that evaluate critical thinking skills and scientific writing abilities.

This is in line with the statement of Ryan et al. (2023) and Sartika (2020) teachers must be able to choose learning strategies and teaching materials aligned with the material to be delivered to achieve learning objectives optimally. In this context, teachers must also be willing to use and continue learning about how to utilize simple technological tools, given the tremendous potential technology has in supporting teaching and learning practices in the classroom (Lokollo & Mali, 2024). The research findings of Ismayani et al. (2025) demonstrate that the appropriate use of technology can enhance student engagement and active participation. Additionally, technology enriches the learning process, particularly in writing activities that require creativity and a deep understanding of the subject matter.

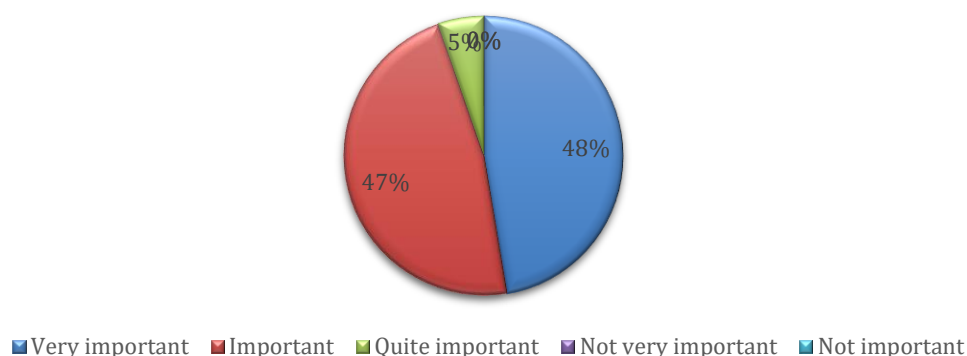
Overall, teachers' practices in teaching explanatory text writing reveal a dialectic between conventional habits and the need for science literacy-based innovation. The collected data does not merely show numbers or percentages, but reveals the real experiences of teachers in navigating learning: a sense of security in using textbooks and PowerPoint, adaptive efforts in utilizing digital modules or online articles, and anxiety when faced with low motivation and limited knowledge among students. When understood through the lens of experience, these practices reflect teachers' struggles to balance curriculum demands with the real conditions of the classroom. Thus, the challenges that arise are not only technical issues, but also part of an evolving pedagogical journey. This is an opportunity to strengthen teachers' capacity to integrate science literacy through contextual strategies, multimodal media, and assessment designs that encourage students' critical thinking and scientific writing skills.

### **3.2 Teachers' Needs in Teaching Explanatory Text Writing Based on Science Literacy in Vocational Schools**

Building upon the instructional challenges identified in the previous section, this part further explores how science literacy integration can address these limitations and what specific needs teachers express to support such integration. The findings revealed that most respondents positively perceived the

importance of integrating science literacy in learning to write, especially explanatory texts. These results are illustrated in Figure 8 below.

In your opinion, is it important to link writing instruction with science literacy content?  
19 Responses



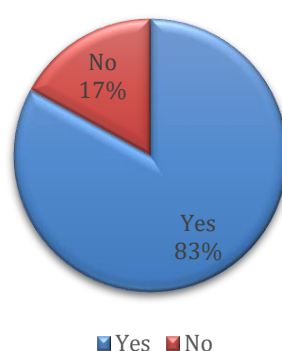
**Figure 8.** The Importance of Science Literacy Integration in Writing Learning

In the questionnaire section that asked teachers' opinions on the importance of linking writing instruction to science literacy content, the researchers first provided a brief operational definition so that respondents would have a common understanding. The definition explained science literacy as linking language learning to scientific phenomena through observation, interpretation, and authentic multimodal learning resources, such as texts, images, graphs, and scientific data. With this explanation, respondents were guided to interpret science literacy consistently in the practical context of classroom learning, rather than as an abstract theoretical concept. This step was taken to ensure clarity of meaning and minimize variations in understanding, thereby increasing the validity of the answers provided in the questionnaire.

The survey results showed that 48% of respondents stated it was essential to link writing learning with science literacy content, 47% stated that it was important, and only 5% stated it was pretty important. When understood more deeply, this data reveals teachers' collective awareness that science literacy is relevant to improving the quality of writing instruction. This awareness does not stem from mere curriculum fulfilment, but from daily experiences dealing with students' limited motivation, difficulties in writing meaningful topics, and the need to provide real-world contexts in learning.

However, recognition of the importance of science literacy does not automatically correlate with classroom practice. Eighty-three percent of teachers admitted that they have never integrated science literacy content into learning to write explanatory texts. Figure 9 below shows this.

Have you ever integrated science literacy content into teaching explanatory writing?  
19 Responses



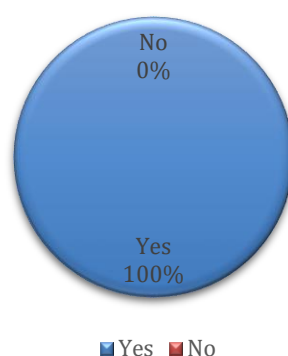
**Figure 9.** Integrating Science Literacy in Learning

This contradiction can be interpreted as a form of experiential gap. Teachers have a conceptual awareness of the urgency of science literacy, but their practical understanding of how to implement it is

still limited. In other words, teachers' experiences reveal an inner tension: they recognize its relevance, but a lack of training, limited access to popular science reading materials suitable for students, and a lack of concrete examples make integration difficult to achieve. This is in line with the findings of Hutami & Pratiwi (2024) and Alwi et al. (2020), which emphasize the need to strengthen teachers' capacities and provide contextual teaching materials.

The questionnaire results found that all respondents (100%) expressed interest in using science literacy-based e-modules to improve students' writing skills, especially in learning explanatory texts. Questionnaire data from this study are shown in Figure 10 below.

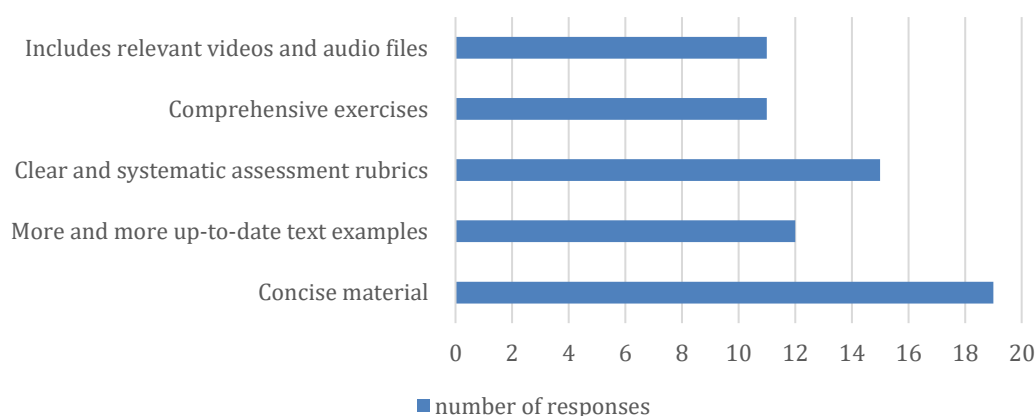
Are you interested in using science literacy-based e-modules to improve students' writing skills?  
19 Responses



**Figure 10.** Teachers' Interest in Using E-modules

This enthusiasm not only demonstrates teachers' openness to digital innovation, but also reflects the need for learning media that is in line with the times. From the teachers' experience, e-modules are seen as a means of connecting language and real-world phenomena, making learning more contextual and meaningful. Furthermore, teachers emphasized that science literacy-based e-modules should draw from various popular media that present up-to-date and scientific information in language that is easy for students to understand. In addition, they also want teaching materials that have a clear text structure, complete with exercises, writing guides, and systematic assessment rubrics. This desire of the respondents is illustrated in Figure 11 below.

What features do you think are important for science-based writing e-modules to have? (You may select more than one answer.)  
19 Responses



**Figure 11.** Desired E-Module Features

Based on the diagram of the questionnaire results displayed above, it can be seen that all respondents (100% or 19 teachers) agreed that concise material is the most crucial feature for science-based writing e-modules to have. Furthermore, 78.9% of respondents (15 teachers) stated the importance of having a clear and systematic assessment rubric in the e-module. As many as 63.2% of respondents (12 teachers) also wanted the text examples presented in the e-modules to be more numerous and authentic to provide contextual and relevant student references. Meanwhile, 57.9% of respondents (11 teachers) considered that complete practice questions and supporting media, such as appropriate video and audio, are also critical features that should be included. These results show that teachers have high expectations for the quality of content and completeness of features in e-modules, especially those that support science literacy-based writing skills. Features considered necessary are generally related to the ease of understanding the material, clarity of assessment, and completeness of learning resources, both text and multimedia.

The questionnaire results show that most teachers have high expectations for developing science literacy-based writing e-modules as effective assistive media in the learning process. This expectation reflects the need for writing learning innovations that can overcome academic obstacles, such as low motivation and student involvement in writing activities. In line with that, findings from previous research indicate that e-modules have advantages in facilitating the learning process of students, thanks to their interactive, flexible, and adaptive nature to individual learning characteristics and needs (Sari et al., 2020; Sriwahyuni & Eliza, 2024; Sutarna et al., 2021). Therefore, developing writing e-modules integrated with science literacy principles is seen as having great potential in improving learning effectiveness, especially in gradually, contextually, and meaningfully building writing skills. The respondents also emphasized the importance of the suitability of the e-module content with learning objectives, students' learning styles, and the relevance of real-world contexts, such as information from actual news or the results of scientific studies, to increase students' engagement and understanding. The respondents' expectations and wishes are summarized in Table 1 below.

**Table 1.** Thematic Analysis of Suggestions and Expectations for Science Literacy-Based E-Module Development

Theme Category	Theme Description	Respondent Statements
Linkage to Learning Objectives	Modules must be tailored to learning objectives and student learning styles.	Pay attention to learning objectives and student learning styles.
Interesting and Visual Content	Modules are expected to be concise, interesting, use visual/audio media, and easy to understand	Make e-modules as enjoyable as possible so that students are interested in learning.
Real World Integration	The module should relate the material to real life, news, or current scientific phenomena.	Be complete, concise, and engaging. Integrate real-world examples such as news or scientific studies.
Development of Science Process Skills	Focus on thinking critically, solving problems, making observations, making hypotheses, and drawing conclusions.	Use real-world examples. Focus on science process skills such as observing, asking questions, making hypotheses, and drawing conclusions.
Clear Assessment System	Modules must be equipped with assessment rubrics and evaluations aligned with learning outcomes.	Assessment rubrics that are in line with learning outcomes. Evaluation that represents student understanding.

Technology Accessibility	Expectations for the module to be easily accessible, including when offline and for the long term.	Accessible when offline.  More accessible in the long term.
Support for Teachers and Students	The module should help teachers and students understand the material in an actual and relevant manner.	Helps teachers provide complete and accurate material.  Facilitate learning.
Socialization and Continuous Development	The module needs to be socialised more widely and continuously developed.	To be further disseminated.  More interesting e-modules should be developed.
Utilization of Technology in Learning	Integrate digital media such as video, audio, and other learning technologies.	Utilize technology in learning.  By using relevant images.

More broadly, the e-modules developed are expected to transfer information, develop critical thinking skills and problem-solving abilities, and encourage students to ask questions and engage in scientific discussion. Some teachers have suggested that the modules facilitate observation and simple experiments to reinforce science literacy-based learning experiences.

In addition, teachers participating in the survey want e-modules that are visually appealing, concise but comprehensive, and easy to understand. These expectations reflect not only the needs of teachers, but also the real experiences of students in the learning process. For example, teachers' desire for e-modules to be equipped with visual illustrations and interactive media stems from the fact that students often have difficulty understanding abstract concepts in explanatory texts when they are only presented in the form of long texts. Similarly, the demand for offline accessibility reflects the conditions of vocational school students who often have limited internet quotas and networks.

Teachers' expectations for clear assessment rubrics also indicate that students often feel confused about the standards for successful explanatory writing. Thus, the needs of teachers and students are interrelated: teachers articulate pedagogical needs, while students are the ones who directly feel the urgency of having e-modules that are systematic, accessible, and relevant to their context. These findings align with Sari et al. (2020) and Sriwahyuni & Eliza (2024) research, which confirms that interactive digital teaching materials can increase student engagement while facilitating a deeper understanding of writing skills.

In integrating science literacy, teachers emphasize the importance of teaching materials that connect language themes with real scientific or social issues. For example, when assigned to write an explanatory text, students may be asked to write about acid rain formation, waste recycling processes, or phenomena related to climate change, which not only practices their writing skills but also enhances their understanding of scientific principles. This learning strategy encourages student engagement with scientific concepts, promotes critical evaluation of information, and facilitates restructuring that information into coherent and logically structured texts. These findings are in line with previous studies conducted by Yusnaeni et al. (2024) and Heryani et al. (2024), which shows that integrating scientific literacy into language learning can increase students' active engagement, critical thinking, and ability to organize ideas systematically in writing. Thus, language learning does not stand alone but serves as a means of strengthening cross-disciplinary literacy.

This expectation is in line with the findings of Nurhaq et al. (2025) who concluded that teachers' primary needs in the learning process include the development of various learning resources, such as textbooks, enrichment books, and exercise books; the preparation of structured lesson plans; the development of accurate assessments in measure student abilities; and improving teacher competence through training to teach skills more effectively. Respondents also wanted recommendations for varied media and visual support, such as relevant images and videos, to stimulate students' critical thinking skills.



Overall, the teachers' expectations of the e-module development were positive and constructive. They considered that e-modules made by considering the development of science, the needs of teachers and students, and science-based learning approaches can be an innovative learning solution. The accuracy of the selection of teaching materials will help achieve learning objectives (Asnawi et al., 2023). The teachers hope that this kind of module can be developed and disseminated so that there are more quality references for learning Indonesian writing. They also hope that the development of e-modules continues by trying new things so that the benefits can be widely felt in the world of education.

#### 4. Conclusion

This preliminary research shows that the practice of learning to write explanatory texts in vocational schools still faces various challenges. One of the main problems teachers faces is the limited teaching materials relevant to the context of students' lives and the needs of the times. Most teachers still rely on textbooks and have not optimally utilized other sources that are more current and contextual. In addition, the learning strategies teachers use tend to be conventional, so the integration of science literacy content and the use of interactive digital media have not been implemented systematically. These findings reflect the need for a more innovative and contextualized approach to learning writing, primarily through strengthening content and teaching strategies.

Furthermore, the questionnaire results also show the urgent need for teachers to teach materials integrated with science literacy. As many as 83% of teachers stated that they had never integrated science literacy into writing learning, but all respondents expressed interest in using e-modules based on science literacy. Teachers expect the presence of e-modules that contain concise materials, actual text examples, systematic assessment rubrics, and interesting supporting media such as audio and video. This expectation confirms the urgency of developing science literacy-based writing e-modules to solve classroom learning challenges and foster students' critical thinking, information literacy, and writing skills that are more contextual and meaningful.

However, this study has limitations. First, the data obtained is still limited to questionnaire responses, so it does not fully reflect classroom learning practices. Second, the relatively small number of respondents and the fact that they only come from a few vocational schools limit the generalization of the findings to a broader context. Thus, the results of this study are best understood as an initial overview that needs to be explored further through follow-up studies.

For this reason, it is recommended that subsequent research empirically develop and test science literacy-based e-modules in the context of writing instruction through experimental approaches to assess their effectiveness and qualitative studies to explore the experiences of teachers and students in greater depth. The pedagogical implications of this study emphasize the need for policy support and teacher training programs to enable the integration of science literacy into language teaching. The development of science literacy-based modules is not only seen as an innovation in materials but also as a pedagogical shift that enables writing instruction to go beyond language conventions and empowers students to engage with real-world issues, thereby supporting more holistic, contextual, and relevant learning in line with 21st-century competency requirements.

#### References

- Aegustinawati, Mulyati, Y., & Kurniawan, K. (2024). Analisis Kebutuhan Pengembangan E-Module Menulis Teks Berita Berancangan Konsep Diferensiasi untuk Siswa Jenjang SMK. In *Bahasa dan Sastra* (Vol. 10, Issue 4). Pendidikan. <https://e-journal.my.id/onoma>
- Akramul Kabir, S. M. (2024). Thematic Analysis: A Practical Guide. *Pasaa Paritat Journal*, 39, 142–145. <https://doi.org/10.58837/CHULA.PPJ.39.8>
- Alejandro, J. (2024). The Role of Language in Thought Formation and Personality. *International Journal of Multidisciplinary Sciences*, 2(4), 356–367. <https://doi.org/10.37329/ijms.v2i4.3759>
- Alfiah, M. H., & Bramastia, S. (2024). Peran Literasi Sains dalam Meningkatkan Kompetensi Siswa SMK: Sebuah Tinjauan Literatur. *Proceeding Biology Education Conference*, 21(1), 108–115.
- Alwi, M., Burhan, B., Basmi, B., S, A. A., & risnashari, R. (2020). *Training and Assistance in Scientific Writing for Teachers of Smpn Minasa Tene in Pangkep Regency*. 2(2), 78–88. <http://journal.unhas.ac.id/index.php/kp/article/download/10777/5648>
- Anggito, A., & Setiawan, J. (2018). *Metodologi Penelitian Kualitatif*. CV Jejak.
- Anshori, D. S., & Damaianti, V. S. (2022). *Memahami Genre Teks*. Simbiosis Rekatama Media.
- Asnawi, Desi Sukenti, Alber, Sri Wahyuni, Fauzul Etfita, & Zulhafizh. (2023). Materi Ajar Membaca berbasis E-Book bagi Mahasiswa di Riau: Kebutuhan Pembelajaran Bahasa. *Jurnal Sastra Indonesia*, 12 (1), 15–21.

- Ayu Apriliana, N., & Anggrella, D. P. (2024). Science Literacy and Critical Thinking Skills of Elementary School Students: A Correlation Study. *JENIUS (Journal of Education Policy and Elementary Education Issues)*, 5(2), 74–89. <https://doi.org/10.22515/jenius.v5i2.10198>
- Eden, A. (2024). Promoting Scientific Literacy through the Writing of Abstracts. *The Science Teacher*, 91(2), 27–28. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00368555.2024.2314680>
- Fajariyah Akbari, U. (2023). Training in Writing and Publication of Scientific Articles for Teachers-Primary school teachers. *Teumulong: Journal of Community Service*, 1(2), 74–81. <https://doi.org/10.62568/jocs.v1i2.27>
- Febrianti, Y., Sinaga, P., & Feranie, S. (2022). Pengembangan bahan ajar komik fisika berbasis pendekatan kontekstual pada materi hukum Newton. *WaPFI (Wahana Pendidikan Fisika): Jurnal Pendidikan Pembelajaran Fisika*. <https://doi.org/10.17509/wapfi.v7i1.43954>
- Handoyo, T., I'natul Ashriyah, & Rahmat Kamal. (2024). Pengembangan Bahan Ajar Berbasis Multimedia. *Harmoni Pendidikan : Jurnal Ilmu Pendidikan*, 2(1), 230–250. <https://doi.org/10.62383/hardik.v2i1.1064>
- Haruna, Moh. F., Kenta, Abd. M., Nurlia, N., Anggo, S., & Bungaji, R. N. S. (2024). Analysis of Students' Science Literacy Skills on the Circulatory System Material at SMA Negeri 1 Luwuk. *Journal of World Science*, 3(6), 632–638. <https://doi.org/10.58344/jws.v3i6.633>
- Heryani, R., Muyassaroh, I., Heryanto, D., Somantri, M., Mulyasari, E., Rakhmawati, E., & Salimi, Moh. (2024). Promoting Language and Scientific Literacy Through Children's Literature: A Systematic Literature Review. *Salud, Ciencia y Tecnología - Serie de Conferencias*, 3. <https://doi.org/10.56294/sctconf2024.1232>
- Hutami, W. S., & Pratiwi, V. U. (2024). Scientific Writing Training for Elementary School Teachers, Jaka Sanga Teacher Working Group, Karanganyar Regency. *Jurnal Pengabdian Teknologi Tepat Guna*, 5(2), 122–129. <https://doi.org/10.47942/jpttg.v5i2.1751>
- Ismayani, M. R., Damaianti, V. S., Mulyati, Y., & Sastromiharjo, A. (2025). Pengaruh Bahan Ajar Terhadap Motivasi Membaca Siswa SMP. *Semantik*, 14(1), 2252–4657. <https://doi.org/10.22460/semantik.v14i1.p127-140>
- Khasanah, M., & Yulianto, S. (2024). Using Flashcard Media is Seen from the Result of the Skill in Writing Narrative Texts Fifth-Grade Elementary School Students. *JPI (Jurnal Pendidikan Indonesia)*, 13(3), 562–570. <https://doi.org/10.23887/jpiundiksha.v13i3.76685>
- Kosasih, E. (2016). *Jenis-jenis Teks*. Penerbit Yrama Widya.
- Krauss, A. (2024). Linguistics of Science. In *Science of Science* (pp. 101–103). Oxford University PressOxford. <https://doi.org/10.1093/9780198937401.003.0016>
- Lincoln, Y. S. (2017). Authenticity Criteria. In *The Blackwell Encyclopedia of Sociology* (pp. 1–3). Wiley. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781405165518.wbeosa076>
- Liu, Q. (2022). Grounded Theory and Its Applications. *Academic Journal of Humanities & Social Sciences*, 5(15). <https://doi.org/10.25236/AJHSS.2022.051520>
- Lokollo, N. C. E., & Mali, Y. C. G. (2024). Speak More, Students! Harnessing Technology for Active Students' Engagement in EFL English-Speaking Classes. *OKARA: Jurnal Bahasa Dan Sastra*, 18(1), 36–53. <https://doi.org/10.19105/ojbs.v18i1.12653>
- Maryanti, E., & Haryadi, H. (2022). Peningkatan Kemampuan Menulis Teks Eksplanasi Menggunakan Model Pedagogi Genre, Saintifik, Dan CLIL. *Journal of Elementary School (JOES)*, 5(2), 283–293. <https://doi.org/10.31539/joes.v5i2.4281>
- Muhsin, A., Setiawan, B., Asse, A., Sukri Syamsuri, A., Setiawan, S., Baharuddin, B., Aminullah, A., Ariani, N., & Mutmainnah, M. (2024). Critical Thinking Pattern in Argumentation: A Study on EFL Higher Education Students in Indonesia. *The International Journal of Learning in Higher Education*, 31(1), 177–194. <https://doi.org/10.18848/2327-7955/CGP/v31i01/177-194>
- Munaiseche, M., Worotikan, L., Rooroh, B., & Pangemanan, T. (2024). Analysis of Obstacles to English Writing Skills of Electrical Engineering Students' Blog Interactive. In *Journal of Applied Studies in Language* (Vol. 8, Issue 2). <http://ojs2.pnb.ac.id/index.php/JASLhttp://ojs2.pnb.ac.id/index.php/JASL>
- Niswaty, R., Darwis, Muh., & Rukmana, N. S. (2023). Membangun Budaya Akademik Di Sekolah Menengah: Intervensi Pelatihan Penulisan Ilmiah Di Kabupaten Majene. *DEVOTE: Jurnal Pengabdian Masyarakat Global*, 2(2), 125–129. <https://doi.org/10.55681/devote.v2i2.1798>
- Nurhaq, H. M., Anshori, D. S., Mulyati, Y., & Damaianti, V. S. (2025). Menggali profil dan kebutuhan guru dalam pembelajaran memirsa berbasis literasi visual Exploring profile and teachers' needs in teaching viewing skills based on visual literacy. *Diglosia: Jurnal Kajian Bahasa, Sastra, Dan Pengajarannya*, 8, 143–156. <https://doi.org/10.30872/diglosia.v8i1.1200>
- PISA 2022 Results (Volume I)*. (2023). OECD. <https://doi.org/10.1787/53f23881-en>
- Ramadhanti, D., Hayu Afdetis Mana, L., Permata Yanda, D., Firmansyah, Mb., Baubida, N., & Bayu Firmansyah, M. (2023). Flipped Classroom in Writing Learning: Effectiveness Measuring in Terms of Genre and Gender. *Jurnal Gramatika: Jurnal Penelitian Pendidikan Bahasa Dan Sastra Indonesia*, 9(2), 201–216. <https://doi.org/10.22202/jg.v9i2.6610>
- Rufaidah, D., Andayani, A., & Wardani, N. E. (2022). Problem-Based Learning in Learning Writing Skills in Vocational High School (SMK). *Proceedings of the 1st International Conference of Humanities and Social Science, ICHSS 2021, 8 December 2021, Surakarta, Central Java, Indonesia*. <https://doi.org/10.4108/eai.8-12-2021.2322560>

- Ryan, M., Weber, L., Barton, G., & Dutton, J. (2023). Exploring the Impact of a Reflexive, Co-designed Program of Professional Learning for the Teaching of Writing in Elementary School Classrooms. *Literacy Research and Instruction*, 62(4), 371–403. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19388071.2022.2130115>
- Sandhiya, V., & Bhuvaneswari, M. (2024). *Qualitative Research Analysis* (pp. 289–310). <https://doi.org/10.4018/979-8-3693-1135-6.ch014>
- Santi, A., Kurniawan, K., & Abidin, Y. (2023). Analisis kebutuhan desain model pembelajaran komunitas sosial untuk meningkatkan keterampilan menulis teks eksposisi di SMK. *Diglosia: Jurnal Kajian ....* <https://www.diglosiaunmul.com/index.php/diglosia/article/view/673>
- Saputra, N. (2023). The Effect of Language Skills on Science and Technology Literacy. *Journal of Namibian Studies : History Politics Culture*, 34. <https://doi.org/10.59670/jns.v34i.1280>
- Sari, I. S., Lestari, S. R., & Sari, M. S. (2020). Development of A Guided Inquiry-Based E-module on Respiratory System Content Based on Research Results of the Potential Single Garlic Extract (*Allium sativum*) to Improve Student Creative Thinking Skills and Cognitive Learning Outcome. *Jurnal Pendidikan Sains Indonesia*, 8(2), 228–240. <https://doi.org/10.24815/jpsi.v8i2.17065>
- Sartika, R. (2020). Problem-Based Module Validation For Complex Procedure Text (Validasi Modul Berbasis Masalah Untuk Teks Prosedur Kompleks). *Gramatika STKIP PGRI Sumatera Barat*, 6(2). <https://doi.org/10.22202/jg.2020.v6i2.3327>
- Shofiah, N., Putera, Z. F., & Widiastuti, S. (2024). Collaborative Writing Learning in Inquiry to Improve Critical Thinking Skills. *Journal of English for Academic and Specific Purposes (JEASP)*, 7(1). <https://doi.org/10.18860/jeasp.v7i1.26429>
- Sofia, R., & Anshori, D. S. (2024). Analisis Tantangan Dalam Pembelajaran Menulis Teks Ekplanasi Di Sekolah Menengah Kejuruan . *Seminar Internasional Riksa Bahasa*, 64–73.
- Sriwahyuni, E., & Eliza, D. (2024). Project-Based Learning E-Modules Improve Science Literacy Skills and Character on Minangkabau Cultural Themes. *JPI (Jurnal Pendidikan Indonesia)*, 13(2), 383–392. <https://doi.org/10.23887/jpiundiksha.v13i2.75873>
- Sugiyono. (2023). *Metode Penelitian Kuantitatif, Kualitatif, dan R&D*. Alfabeta.
- Sutama, I. W., Astuti, W., & Anisa, N. (2021). E-Modul Strategi Pembelajaran Anak Usia Dini Sebagai Sumber Belajar Digital. *Jurnal Pendidikan Anak Usia Dini Undiksha*, 9(3), 449. <https://doi.org/10.23887/paud.v9i3.41385>
- Yusnaeni, Imakulata, Mbing, M., Nikmah, Santrum, Mario, J., Jasman, Sudirman, Dama, Waldetrudis, V., Bangngu, Nolvani, C., Wiltin, Gabriela, F., & Tukan, E. S. T. (2024). Empowering scientific literacy skills through an integrated SSCS learning model with RQA strategies. *Biosfer*, 17(2), 540–549. <https://doi.org/10.21009/biosferjpb.47844>

## **Indirect speech acts and persuasive strategies of cultural narratives of *Go'et* in health promotion**

**Gabriel Fredi Daar<sup>1</sup>, Fithriyah Inda Nur Abida<sup>2</sup>, Lisetyo Ariyanti<sup>3</sup>, Rahayu Kuswardani<sup>4</sup>**

Universitas Katolik Indonesia Santu Paulus Ruteng<sup>1</sup>  
Universitas Negeri Surabaya<sup>2,3,4</sup>  
email: [freddydaar@gmail.com](mailto:freddydaar@gmail.com)<sup>1</sup>

**Abstract** - Studies of cultural narratives as indirect speech acts and persuasive strategies in health promotion remain limited. This study aims to discover how "Go'et," a cultural narrative of Manggarai Community Indonesia, is used as an indirect speech act and persuasive strategy in health promotion. It is a qualitative study with a phenomenological approach. The study was conducted in the Rego dialect community, Manggarai, Indonesia. The study participants were chosen purposively based on predetermined criteria. The participants included healthcare providers, customary leaders, and community figures. Data from the study were collected using in-depth interviews, observation, documentation and Focus Group Discussion. The study indicated that the cultural narratives of Go'et in the Manggarai community in Indonesia are relevant to the context of health promotion. The cultural narratives are constructed in imperative sentences with the illocutionary power of advising, recommending and hoping. Using indirect speech acts through "Go'et" has become a persuasive strategy for shaping people's perceptions, beliefs and behavior. Healthcare providers can adopt such expressions to positively influence patients' emotional states, enhancing their psychological readiness to recover or maintain good health. The study contributes to understanding how cultural narratives function as indirect speech acts in non-Western communities, particularly within the Manggarai context of Indonesia. By highlighting *Go'et* as a culturally embedded form of communication, the study expands the theoretical discourse on indirectness, politeness strategies, and persuasive communication in health promotion. Moreover, the study provides valuable insights into community-based health promotion strategies by emphasizing the compelling role of traditional discourse.

**Keywords:** Cultural Narratives, Go'et, Health Promotion, Indirect Speech Act, Persuasive Strategy

## 1. Introduction

Speech act theory provides a framework for understanding how language performs actions beyond merely conveying information (Searle, 1979). Utterances can be categorized into locutionary, illocutionary, and perlocutionary acts, each serving a distinct function in communication (Weigand, 2016). One of the significant developments within this theory is the notion of indirect speech acts, where the speaker's intended meaning differs from the literal expression (Nkirote, 2024). Indirect speech acts are commonly used to soften commands, express politeness, or negotiate meanings within cultural norms (Válková, 2013). In many traditional societies, such as Manggarai, Indonesia, these indirect forms of speech take on culturally embedded forms, such as *go'et*, which are used to indirectly convey advice, warnings, or social values.

Health promotion involves enabling individuals and communities to increase control over their health through communication, education, and behavioral interventions (Kreuter & McClure, 2004). Language is important in health promotion, especially in culturally diverse communities, where persuasive communication needs to be context-sensitive (Alahäivälä & Oinas-Kukkonen, 2016). In such contexts, indirect and culturally meaningful expressions often resonate more deeply with community members than direct instructions. Understanding how culturally embedded speech strategies such as *go'et* function in health discourse is essential for designing effective, persuasive health messages that align with local traditions (Cipta et al., 2024).

Persuasion in communication, particularly in health promotion, involves appeals to logic, emotion, and ethics (Higgins & Walker, 2012). However, the success of persuasive strategies is highly contingent on the socio-cultural context in which communication occurs. In traditional societies, indirectness and metaphorical language are often seen as more respectful and effective, particularly when addressing sensitive issues like health and well-being (Rochwulaningsih, 2015). In the Manggarai culture, the use of *go'et*, an indirect, metaphorical form of advice, embodies the community's values of harmony, politeness, and social cohesion, which are crucial in delivering health messages persuasively (Daar, 2023).

The Manggarai community in Flores Island, Indonesia, upholds a strong oral tradition where *go'et*, proverb-like expressions or indirect advice, play a vital role in interpersonal communication and conflict resolution (Jama, 2021). *Go'et* are used not only to express cultural wisdom but also to influence behavior subtly, making them a powerful tool for persuasion in both everyday interactions and formal settings, including health-related discussions. These expressions often encode health values, environmental concerns, or social behavior within metaphoric or symbolic language, requiring interpretation based on shared cultural knowledge (Sukirman et al., 2022; Daar et al., 2023). Thus, understanding *go'et* is key to tapping into indigenous frameworks of persuasion and communication.

Several studies have examined speech acts and their role in cross-cultural communication. (Allami & Naeimi, 2011; Gąsior, 2015; Xiao, 2023; Fitriani & Pujiati, 2018; Drid, 2018). Meanwhile, some scholars have conducted studies on health communication through cultural approaches. Nguyen et al. (2024) studied the influence of culture on the health beliefs and health behaviors of older Vietnam-born Australians living with chronic disease. Jayasinghe et al. (2025) studied the culture of healthy living. Donnelly et al. (2012) explored the impact of cultural and social factors on exercise, diet, and smoking of Arabic women living with cardiovascular diseases in the State of Qatar. The studies underscored the important role of culture in shaping people's perceptions, behavior, and attitudes toward their health. Moreover, the studies on the use of "Go'et" in Manggarai culture in communication have been investigated by some scholars. Daar (2023) investigated the use of Go'et in Wee mbaru cultural event, Moses (2013) explored the application of *Go'et* during ceremonies and cultural gatherings, and Jugan & Pandor (2023) found Go'et as poetic and figurative language (*reweng* or *jaong di'a*). The studies emphasize the role of "Go'et" as one of the cultural narratives used as indirect speech acts in cultural interaction.

Despite the richness of Manggarai's oral traditions and the growing interest in culturally sensitive health communication, research that integrates speech act theory with indigenous persuasive strategies like *go'et* remains limited. Existing studies focus broadly on cultural expressions or speech acts in general without investigating their application in health contexts. This study seeks to bridge that gap by analyzing *go'et* as an indirect speech act that functions persuasively in health promotion within the Manggarai community. The novelty of this research lies in its interdisciplinary approach, combining linguistics, cultural anthropology, and public health communication to explore a localized, culturally embedded strategy for influencing health behaviors.



The following research questions guide this study: How do cultural narratives function as indirect speech acts and persuasive strategies in health promotion in Manggarai, Indonesia? The primary objective is to analyze the structure, function, and persuasive power of *go'et* within the framework of indirect speech acts and to assess their potential role in improving culturally sensitive health communication strategies. Through a linguistic-pragmatic analysis, the study aims to map out how traditional discourse can serve modern communicative goals.

The findings of this study are expected to provide theoretical and practical contributions. Theoretically, it will expand the understanding of indirect speech acts in non-Western cultural settings, specifically through the lens of *go'et* in Manggarai. Practically, it will offer insights for public health practitioners and educators on incorporating local communication strategies into health promotion efforts. Ultimately, the study aims to support the development of culturally grounded health interventions that respect and utilize traditional modes of communication, enhancing their relevance and effectiveness in local communities.

### 1.1 Indirect Speech Acts

Indirect speech acts (ISAs) are utterances where the intended meaning differs from the literal expression, relying on contextual and pragmatic cues for interpretation (Searle, 1979; Yule, 1996). Indirect speech acts play a significant role in daily communication. They allow speakers to convey intentions such as requesting, warning, or advising without stating them explicitly. These acts are crucial in maintaining politeness and social harmony, especially in high-context cultures (Boroujeni & Mansouri, 2023).

Searle's foundational theory distinguishes between direct and indirect speech acts based on the alignment of illocutionary force and propositional content. In indirect speech acts, the speaker's intention must be inferred from the utterance and situational context (S. Brown & Matusitz, 2019). For example, the question "Can you open the window?" functions as a request rather than a query about ability. Indirectness is often motivated by considerations of politeness and social norms (Brown & Levinson, 1987; Anin & Novitasari, 2015). In many cultural contexts, indirect speech is preferred to mitigate face-threatening acts and to show deference, particularly when addressing sensitive topics. Such strategic use of language fosters positive interpersonal relations. In indigenous or traditional societies, indirectness can be deeply embedded in cultural communication practices. For instance, the Manggarai culture employs *go'et*, metaphorical, poetic expressions, as an indirect way to instruct or advise (Abels et al., 2021). This form of communication not only reflects linguistic artistry but also conveys values and social expectations.

Studies on indirect speech acts underscored the importance of the speaker's illocutionary power and the listener's understanding of the intention given. Listeners need to possess particular knowledge and experience to know the message conveyed by the speaker. Yazdanfar & Bonyadi (2016) studied Request Strategies in Everyday Interactions of Persian and English Speakers. The study found that indirect speech is a strategy in making requests as a daily interaction mitigation device. Deveci et al. (2023) through their research, they also highlighted the importance of considering the interlocutors' linguistic and cultural backgrounds and the possible hidden intentions behind a compliment. Moreover, Díaz Pérez (2004) suggested the importance of paying attention to pragmatic aspects in using particular speech acts in specific context.

Pragmatic competence is important to understand and use indirect speech acts for effective communication across different social contexts (Duan, 2011; Nkirote, 2024). It involves recognizing the speaker's intention, interpreting contextual clues, and selecting appropriate linguistic forms. Misinterpretation can lead to communicative breakdowns, especially in intercultural settings (Alemi & Khanlarzadeh, 2016). Moreover, studies suggest that the interpretation of indirect speech acts varies depending on factors such as power relations, social distance, and cultural norms (Alghazo et al., 2021). Thus, it's essential to examine indirect speech within specific cultural frameworks of *go'et* in Manggarai to better understand how language functions as a tool for persuasion and social regulation in health promotion.

### 1.2 Language in Health Promotion

Language is central to health promotion. It conveys information and shapes attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors related to health (Cipta et al., 2024). Effective health communication relies on the strategic use

of language to motivate, educate, and persuade individuals to adopt healthier lifestyles (Kreuter & McClure, 2004).

Incorporating local linguistic norms into health communication is vital. The choice of language in health messages can significantly affect their reception and impact (Akinloye et al., 2021). Studies have shown that culturally appropriate and linguistically tailored messages enhance comprehension and compliance, particularly in multilingual and multicultural populations (Rachmawati, 2020; Tuohy, 2019). In this regard, understanding linguistic form and cultural context is essential.

In many traditional communities, health-related knowledge is often embedded in oral traditions and conveyed through culturally meaningful discourse (Ross & Castle Bell, 2017). Utilizing traditional forms like *go'et* in health promotion allows messages to resonate more deeply with the target audience by aligning with their worldview and communication preferences (Nkirete, 2024). Research on community-based health promotion has emphasized the importance of participatory approaches that respect indigenous knowledge systems and communication styles (Percival et al., 2018; Hawley & Morris, 2017; Dutta et al., 2019). Integrating culturally specific language, metaphors, and symbols can empower communities to take ownership of health initiatives.

The language used in health education must balance accuracy, clarity, and cultural sensitivity (Almutairi, 2015). Overly technical or direct language may be ineffective or counterproductive, particularly when addressing taboo or sensitive topics (Hawley & Morris, 2017). It makes indirect speech and metaphor an effective alternative in such contexts. In this regard, language is a medium of communication and a means of social influence. Understanding how linguistic strategies such as indirectness function within specific cultural contexts can inform more effective and inclusive health communication practices.

### 1.3 Persuasive Strategy

Persuasive communication strategies aim to shape individuals' beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors (Fransen et al., 2015). Within health promotion, these strategies are applied to motivate healthy choices and minimize harmful behaviors. They typically utilize rhetorical elements, emotional engagement, and culturally meaningful storytelling (Roe, 2018).

A widely recognized approach involves using ethos, pathos, and logos, representing the speaker's credibility, emotional resonance, and logical reasoning (Higgins & Walker, 2012). In traditional settings, persuasive authority is often derived from the speaker's societal position, accumulated wisdom, and life experience, which are reflected in practices.

In indigenous communication practices, persuasion is often conveyed indirectly, relying on shared cultural values, storytelling, and metaphor rather than explicit directives (Nwagbara & Belal, 2019). This method promotes a respectful and contemplative environment, enabling audiences to process and adopt messages in their own time. In the Manggarai context, *go'et* illustrates this culturally embedded mode of persuasion. Narrative persuasion, which employs storytelling to influence beliefs and attitudes, has proven effective in health communication (Ross & Castle Bell, 2017). Traditional oral expressions such as *go'et* function as narrative structures that gently steer audiences toward healthier behaviors through implicit messaging rather than confrontation (Dutta et al., 2019).

Social influence theory emphasizes the impact of peer norms and the authority of community figures in shaping individual attitudes (Higgins & Walker, 2012). Health promotion efforts integrated into culturally respected forms, such as ritual speech or ancestral teachings, tend to carry greater legitimacy and are more readily embraced by the community. Persuasive approaches that resonate with a community's epistemological and axiological foundations, its ways of understanding knowledge and values, are typically more enduring and effective (Lee & Aaker, 2004).

## 2. Method

### 2.1 Research Design

This study employed a qualitative descriptive research design to explore the use of *go'et* as a form of indirect speech act and persuasive strategy in the context of health promotion within the Manggarai cultural community, Indonesia. Qualitative descriptive design was chosen because it allows an in-depth understanding of how language is pragmatically and culturally constructed and used to influence health behavior. The study is grounded in speech act theory, persuasive communication theory, and

ethnographic linguistics, emphasizing the interplay between language, culture, and context. This study aims to uncover the underlying meanings, pragmatic intentions, and cultural relevance of *go'et* in shaping community perceptions and actions related to health.

## 2.2 Participants and Research Instruments

This study's participants consisted of 15 key informants, selected through purposive sampling. Some criteria were determined for choosing the participants: 1) They are traditional elders, possessing knowledge on Manggarai Culture, having the experience of becoming spokesperson in Manggarai cultural rite; 2) The participants are local health workers, having the experience of at least five years working as health promoter in Rego-dialect community; 3) The participants are community leaders, having the knowledge of Manggarai culture; 4) Geographically, the participants are community members from several villages in the Rego Dialect, West Manggarai Regency, East Nusa Tenggara, Indonesia.

The main instruments used for data collection were: 1) Semi-structured interview guides designed to elicit insights on the function, form, and interpretation of *go'et* in health-related contexts. 2) Audio recording devices capture natural discourse involving *go'et* during traditional events or informal conversations. 3) Field notes and observation sheets documented contextual information and non-verbal communication elements. 4) Document analysis sheets were used to examine written or transcribed versions of *go'et* from cultural texts and ceremonial speeches. All instruments were developed based on relevant literature in pragmatics and ethnolinguistics to ensure relevance and clarity.

## 2.3 Techniques of Data Collection

Data were collected through in-depth interviews, participant observations, Focus Group Discussion and documentation. In-depth interviews were conducted with each participant to explore their understanding and usage of *go'et*, particularly concerning advising or persuading others in health-related situations, such as sanitation, nutrition, maternal health, and child care. Participant observations occurred during cultural gatherings, rituals, or health discussions where traditional forms of communication were naturally used. This method allowed the researcher to observe the spontaneous use of *go'et* and its reception by listeners. Document analysis sheets were used to examine the transcribed *go'et* texts collected from ceremonies, traditional speeches, and community archives. These texts were analyzed to identify linguistic features characteristic of indirect speech acts and persuasive language. The interviews were conducted in the local Manggarai language and/or Bahasa Indonesia, depending on the participants' knowledge and preferences. It lasted for 30-45 minutes. Meanwhile, the Focused Group Discussion was conducted once and lasted for 90 minutes. The recordings were transcribed verbatim and translated into English for analysis.

## 2.4 Techniques of Data Analysis

The data analysis followed Miles and Huberman's (1994) interactive model. Data reduction: reviewing transcribed interviews, field notes, and documents to extract segments related to indirect speech acts and persuasive strategies. Codes were developed based on themes such as illocutionary acts, metaphoric expressions, politeness strategies, and health-related topics. Data display: The coded data were organized into thematic matrices and charts to visualize patterns using *go'et* across different contexts and participant groups. Conclusion drawing and verification: Interpretative summaries were developed to understand how *go'et* functions as an indirect yet persuasive linguistic device. Findings were verified through triangulation—comparing interview data, observations, and document analysis—and member checking with selected participants to ensure the validity of interpretations.

In addition, pragmatic analysis was applied to examine the types of speech acts (illocutionary force), the indirectness level, the perlocutionary effects, and the social factors (e.g., power, distance, and cultural norms) involved in each *go'et*. The analysis also considered how these utterances align with health promotion messages and the broader socio-cultural context of the Manggarai community.

### 3. Results and Discussion

#### 3.1 Results

The study focuses on how cultural narratives of Go'et are used as indirect speech acts and persuasive strategies in health promotion in Manggarai society, Indonesia. The following presents the dynamic of "Go'et" as one of the cultural narratives in Manggarai society in persuading listeners in a health promotion context. The data is presented based on the types of indirect speech acts found and how they are applied as persuasive strategies in promoting health in Manggarai society.

Data Go'et 1:

*Neka ba rumbang ngo duat, rantang depet le meneh, cegong le seoh.*

Don't be careless go work, not caught by cold, touched by cold

Don't work in the heavy rain and under the sun directly, so you don't get sick

Data Go'et 1 above literally gives the listeners prohibition. The listeners (people in society) are prohibited from working directly under heavy rain and sun since it has a certain impact on them, e.g., getting sick. However, the Go'et indirectly advises the listeners to take care of themselves. It's undertaken through carefully doing their work as farmers. Before going to work, they should anticipate the instruments they should have to protect themselves from working in the sun or heavy rain.

The Go'et was created based on the primary job done by the Manggarai society as farmers. As farmers, they work regardless of heavy rain and sun. This context sometimes naturally causes people to work without caring for their health and safety. Thus, Go'et *Neka ba rumbang ngo duat* indirectly advises and persuades people to take care of themselves for a continuous and better life. If this advice is ignored, it may result in a negative consequence such as getting sick "*depet le menu agu gong le seoh*."

Understanding the illocutionary power of this Go'et determines the perlocutionary acts taken by the listeners. Those who realize the importance of health implement it. However, those who recognize its importance but the facilities don't support it take it for granted. The participants stated that people in the community sometimes work under the heavy rain without any protection. It causes them to get sick. In this regard, the *Go'et* is required to persuade listeners to be aware of their health.

Data Go'et 2:

*Imbi le ri'ing, jaga sumang dumpa agu pala ranga*

Believe in prohibition, not to come face directly

Follow the advice so you stay away from any problem

Data in Go'et 2 above carries out an insight into the importance of listening, believing and implementing the advice given by the elders. Structurally, the Go'et is in the form of an imperative sentence. Lexicon *imbi* is a verb and put at the beginning of a sentence. It forms an imperative sentence. However, the go'et carries out the intention of giving advice. It doesn't carry out the intention of command the listener to listen or undertake the prohibition *ri'ing*, instead it brings advice that the listeners should do for a better life.

The go'et also highlights the consequences of not doing it, *sumang dumpa agu pala ranga*, bad effects; it can be sickness or other kinds of bad situations in the listener's life. The advice has meaningful value for both the listeners and speakers. A healthy, happy and good life can be achieved through undertaking every prohibition spoken by elders. They are considered to possess more experience and knowledge to be copied and integrated into the listener's life, particularly the young generation.

The use of indirect speech acts in this Go'et has a persuasive intention. Speakers persuade the listeners to follow the prohibition spoken by the elders. Indeed, the persuasion strategy is applied due to the importance of the Go'et in influencing the listener's perception and attitude. However, it depends on how the listeners respond to the Go'et given. In some cases, people in the community who tend to ignore the Go'et obtain inevitable consequences. For instance, the elders in Manggarai always advise their children not to sleep late at night, "*neka wela wie*." The advice is given using imperative sentences. The children who ignore it get sick as a consequence. Likewise, those who follow the advice get good health.

The Go'et *Imbi le ri'ing, jaga sumang dumpa agu pala ranga*, has a broad meaning and use. It depends on the context in which it is used. It has become a valuable narration and advice. It's a strategy of persuading people in Manggarai community to behave well. Moreover, the phrase *sumang dumpa agu*

*pala ranga* could be interpreted as any kind of obstacles that hinder the aspiration of better life that is realized through good health and other good life conditions.

Data Go'et 3:

*Neka ngonde mai posyandu rantang mipih linsing dango ranga*  
Don't lazy come posyandu not pale face  
Be diligent to come to health center for your better health

The data in Go'et 3 above represents the vital goal of being involved in health activities provided by the Government. Indonesia's Government takes good care of its people by providing health infrastructure facilities and human resources in every village, called the "Puskesmas" Community Public Health Center. Those who take care of their health come to this place with awareness. However, some people tend to be careless, though the information and announcements have been delivered. To this extent, the Go'et *Neka ngonde mai posyandu rantang mipih linsing dango ranga*, is made specifically by the health providers. Grammatically, the Go'et *Neka ngonde mai posyandu* is a negative imperative sentence, which means "Don't be lazy to get health services." However, the illocutionary act of the Go'et is a request and advice to the community always to come to the health center regularly to align with the schedule provided.

In the Go'et above, the healthcare provider uses the humanity approach to improve the community's health awareness. The use of imperative sentences in the Go'et doesn't mean to force the listeners to come to the health center. Instead, they inform particular effects of not coming to the place that is "*mipih linsing dango ranga*" illness without any solution. Thus, using this Go'et is expected to improve the community's self-awareness of their health. Understanding the intention through the Go'et relies on the listener's cultural and lingual knowledge. Thus, using this Go'et to communicate health services information becomes a medium to make the Go'et familiar, known and acceptable in society.

The continuous use of Go'et through verbal and non-verbal communication increases awareness. In the interview, the health provider stated that they sometimes use Go'et when interacting with people during health service. In this context, the intention of using the Go'et is beyond advising and requesting. It's also a strategy for persuading them to come to the health center. This strategy is undertaken for particular reasons, e.g., the decreasing number of people who come to health centers and more people who come to the place when they are in an emergency.

Data Go'et 4:

*"Emo suan wua tuka kudut ripok kaeng kilo"*  
Enough two children to happy family  
Better to have two children for a happy family

Data in Go'et 4 above, grammatically constructed using the declarative sentence "*Emo suan wua tuka*", Possessing two children is better. Commonly, a declarative sentence carries out the meaning and intention of stating, describing or informing something. In this Go'et, the declarative sentence of "*Emo suan wua tuka*", doesn't mean to explain or inform the community to have two children, instead it indirectly brings the intention of advising to possess two children in family. The sentence in the Go'et is followed by phrase "*kudut ripok kaeng kilo*" to explain the advantages of having two children: being a happy family. The Go'et indirectly intends to advise or recommend the community to have two children to build a happy and prosperous family.

The use of this Go'et represents the dynamic process of advice speech acts created in the Manggarai community to adapt to the policy and national program made by the Indonesian Government. The family planning program has been declared, and strong collaboration and commitment among stakeholders have been acquired to implement the program. In the context of health promotion, healthcare providers need to be creative and innovative to encourage the community to apply the program voluntarily and freely. Thus, using the above Go'et has become one of the strategies to persuade the community's perception and behavior to apply it in their family. However, the participants asserted the program's success lies in the community's awareness. Moreover, it depends on the community's educational background.

The above Go'et reasonably impacts changing people's perception and behavior. Many families have reduced their birth rate. It means that applying this Go'et as an indirect speech act of advising or recommending a persuasive strategy is successful when dealing with the community with high



awareness. However, the participants also asserted that the Manggarai community has other Go'et possessing opposite intention and meaning to the above Go'et, that is, Go'et "*Porong anak banar agu wing do*" hope to have many children. Although the Go'et is commonly used in different contexts of interaction, e.g., in cultural event context, it has the illocutionary power of expecting the listener to possess a specific perception and attitude on having children in the family. A family is built to have children and descendants. It's tied with the life philosophy of the Manggarai community. However, the illocutionary power of the Go'et can also be interpreted as the hope of elders to their young generation to have children and descendants when building a family. Therefore, the use of these two Go'et should be anticipated by considering the context of their use. In addition to replicating the impact of Go'et "*Emo suan wua tuka kudut ripok kaeng kilo*", the health providers must continuously use it through verbal and nonverbal communication.

Data Go'et 5:

*Neka danga ragok lobo jangkong*  
Don't stay on bed  
Don't lie in bed all the time

Based on the data in Go'et 5 above, it can be known that the Go'et is constructed in negative imperative sentence "*Neka danga ragok lobo jangkong*" Don't lye in bed all the time. Structurally, the sentence means to prohibit the listener from staying in bed. However, the sentence in Go'et has the illocutionary power of recommending and advising the listener to find physical activities to help him stay healthy. Based on the Manggarai elder's experience, physical activities have proven to improve their muscle strength and keep them safe and healthy. Most of these activities deal with farming. Therefore, in a different context, the go'et encourages listeners to work hard. Keeping one's body in bed results in the emergence of various kinds of diseases and the loss of a lot of fortune. Manggarai community believes and perceives staying in bed always as a signal of laziness; it's the source of various kinds of bad fortune, including illness.

Using the above Go'et in the context of health promotion has been considered beneficial in changing people's behavior. Specifically, the Go'et is applied when communicating with patients with muscle problems. Moreover, the Go'et strategy persuades patients to come to the health center. Choosing to stay in bed is a bad behavior that can lead them to worse condition. Applying this persuasive strategy requires sensitivity of both the speaker and listeners. Some might interpret it as insulting to a particular behavior, but some might consider it a good recommendation. Thus, social distances need to be considered when choosing this Go'et. Health providers promote health using certain Go'et that has been tied to the community's life while maintaining good relationships with the listeners.

Data Go'et 6:

*Uwa gula bok loho, boleak loke basa tara*  
Grow morning, rise sun, glow skin wet looking  
Grow healthy and happy

Based on the data in Go'et 6 above, it's known that the Go'et is grammatically imperative: "*Uwa gula, bok loho*", Grow healthy and happy. Grammatically, the Go'et commands listeners to grow healthy and happy. However, the context of using this Go'et causes it to bring different intentions. It has the illocutionary power of hope for the listeners to grow healthy. The participants stated that this Go'et is closely related to Manggarai culture. Parents hope their children have a better life. It's spoken directly or indirectly through their prayer. In specific cultural events, e.g., "*Wee mbaru cultural rite*," the cultural rite of entering a new house, this Go'et is spoken by the spokesperson or family representative. It brings hope for the house owner to have a prosperous life while occupying the home. The meaning and intention of this Go'et are relevant to the context of health promotion. Patients are expected to have good health after being treated or serviced at Community Health Center.

The use of this Go'et in health promotion can be a persuasive strategy undertaken by healthcare providers to influence the listeners' psychological state through feelings and emotions. In this context, speakers use speech acts of expression that connect with the listener's hope to recover. The persuasive strategy helps make the listeners obtain their hope. Thus, the participants asserted that this Go'et should always be spoken in every health promotion activity. The considerable impact comes if it is used repeatedly.

### 3.2 Discussion

Based on the results of data analysis, it's found that cultural narratives of "Go'et" function as indirect speech acts and persuasive strategies in promoting health in the context of Manggarai, Indonesia society. Two types of indirect speech acts are commonly applied in this context: indirect speech acts of advising and recommending and indirect speech acts of hope. This data indicated that cultural narratives in the context of Manggarai society, which is embedded in the "Go'et," have the potential for integrating in promoting health from cultural perspectives. Braçaj (2014) asserted that culture plays a vital role in maintaining and improving self-awareness to engage people with self and community-based health. Moreover, Dutta et al. (2019) highlighted the importance of integrating culture in anticipating the issue of health. Many people in society tend to follow their culture to determine which health issue to choose. Thus, the finding of this study underscores the primary role of healthcare providers to advocate health promotion by implementing strategies that possibly help achieve the goal of promoting health. The persuasive strategy embodied in the cultural narrative of Go'et becomes one of the strategies to be considered (Fransen et al., 2015).

The main objective of promoting health is to improve people's knowledge and awareness of health. Moreover, it's expected to change people's behavior (Ekiyor & Altan, 2020). Language plays a vital role in this context. However, the use of appropriate language determines whether the message conveyed is accepted or not. In this study, the use of cultural narratives of Go'et functions as indirect speech acts. Searle (1979) stated that indirect speech acts have illocutionary power, different from its structure. It's also found in the use of metaphors in language. This language use is more acceptable for those tied to the culture (Alghazo et al., 2021). Communication conducted through language culture is appropriate for them. It's close to their daily life. It also anticipates the face-threatening act of using direct messages (Yaqin et al., 2022). Thus, this study highlights the uniqueness of the cultural narrative of "Go'et" in promoting health. It conveys intention or message indirectly, along with the consequences of doing or not doing it. It doesn't directly threaten the listener's face. It helps the listeners psychologically accept and implement the message in their daily lives. For instance, the use of imperative sentence in Go'et "*Neka ngonde mai posyandu*" doesn't mean to force the listeners to come to the health center, instead particular effects of not coming to the place is informed, that is "*mipih linsing dango ranga*" illness without any solution. Using this Go'et is expected to improve the community's self-awareness of their health. Therefore, this study underscores the significant role of indirect speech acts in conveying messages in promoting health to listeners who are tied to culture and identity.

One of the indirect speech acts found in the study is advice speech acts. It's part of the directive speech act to influence the listeners and change their perception and behavior (Babaie & Shahrokhi, 2015). In the study, the indirect speech act of advice is vital in health promotion. It's not delivered using direct language, aiming to influence people's perceptions and behavior, particularly regarding self and community-based health. For instance, Go'et *Neke ba rumbang ngo duat* indirectly advises and persuades people to take care of themselves for a continuous and better life. However, a persuasive strategy is applied simultaneously by informing the bad effect of not doing the advice: "*depet le meneh agu cegong le seoh*" getting sick. Weigand (2016) stated that even though advice speech acts are not obligatory, listeners understand that advice is given for the listener's better life. In this regard, listener's basic knowledge and experience determines whether the perlocutionary act is taken or not (Al-Khatib & Al-Khanji, 2022). Thus, as the speaker, the healthcare provider needs to clarify and explain the importance of the advice in more detail by considering the listener's background knowledge.

The speech act of advice is indicated by the words 'should, advise, recommend, suggest', and is stated directly in a declarative sentence, and Hosni (2020) mentioned it as a face-threatening act (FTA) since it threatens the recipient's autonomy by implying the advisor knows better, placing them in a higher position. Moreover, it's uncommon to find the advice speech acts in imperative sentences. However, by investigating the cultural narrative of "Go'et," this study found other distinctions in using advice speech acts. It can also be found in imperative sentence e.g. *Neka ngonde mai posyandu*, *Neke ba rumbang ngo duat*, *Emo suan wua tuka*. These sentences form imperative but function as advice. The distinction between these speech acts indicates the dynamic of indirect speech acts aligns with cultural and lingual diversity (Al-Khatib & Al-Khanji, 2022). Understanding the intention of the speech relies on the knowledge and experience of the listeners (Daar, 2023). Strengthening this cultural identity replicates the effectiveness of using Go'et as a medium of health promotion.

The study also found the indirect speech acts of hope, e.g., Go'et "*Uwa gula, bok loho*" "Grow healthy and happy" is grammatically categorized as an imperative sentence, which typically functions to

issue commands. However, in the Manggarai cultural context, the utterance conveys more than a directive. It expresses a sincere wish or hopes for someone's well-being. This shift in function reflects the illocutionary force of expressive speech acts, wherein the speaker's intent is not to command but to convey emotion or personal attitude (Searle, 1979; Yule, 1996). This cultural significance reveals how *Go'et* functions as a linguistic unit and a social interaction and emotional connection tool. In Manggarai society, the utterance is often part of a broader communicative practice that aligns with communal values, spiritual beliefs, and traditions of care and respect. Such speech acts illustrate how language embodies shared cultural meanings and contributes to the construction of social reality (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2013).

Despite the uniqueness and distinction of using indirect speech acts of *Go'et*, this study also underscores the importance of anticipating the use of two *Go'et* which potentially carry out contra productive intention e.g. *Go'et* "*Emo suan wua tuka*" better to have two children and *Go'et* "*porong anak banar agu wing do*" hope to have many children. The use of these two *Go'et* should be carefully considered in terms of the context in which they are spoken. These expressions carry significant cultural meanings beyond their literal, grammatical forms (Pongsibanne et al., 2018; Ziyatbay, 2024). While they may appear to be direct imperatives, their illocutionary force often conveys expressive intentions such as hope, blessing, and encouragement. Understanding the situational and cultural background is essential for ensuring these utterances are interpreted correctly and respectfully. As Austin (1962) argued, speech acts are not merely about what is said but also about the intended meaning and the social context in which they occur. Thus, health practitioners and community leaders must be contextually aware to preserve these expressions' cultural integrity and communicative power. In replicating the positive impact of the *Go'et* "*Emo suan wua tuka kudut ripok kaeng kilo*," which conveys a hopeful and poetic message for continued sustenance and prosperity, healthcare providers are encouraged to employ both verbal and nonverbal forms of communication. Verbal repetition, tone of voice, facial expressions, and body language all reinforce the utterance's emotional and symbolic power (Aguert et al., 2010; Witek, 2021).

In health promotion, these cultural narratives of *Go'et* serve as a persuasive and culturally sensitive communication strategy. Healthcare providers can adopt such expressions to influence patients' emotional states positively, enhancing their psychological readiness to recover or maintain good health (Percival et al., 2018). The indirect speech acts in this context build a connection between the speaker and listener through empathy and encouragement (Almutairi, 2015). *Go'et* should be incorporated into health promotion activities because it resonates with cultural values and invokes emotional strength. When used consistently, the utterance can reinforce optimism and healing, serving as both a linguistic and therapeutic resource in community health contexts.

#### 4. Conclusion

Based on the findings and discussion, cultural narratives of *Go'et* in Manggarai Indonesia, have the potential to be applied as indirect speech acts and persuasive strategies to shape people's perceptions, beliefs and behavior in the health promotion context. The cultural narratives of *Go'et* are constructed in imperative sentences possessing the illocutionary power of advising, recommending and hope. They are not used to command the listeners to do what is stated in the spoken words. Understanding this indirect speech acts relies on the listener's experience and knowledge of local language and culture. Thus, healthcare providers play a vital role in making these cultural narratives familiar, understandable, and integrated into the listeners' way of life. It's undertaken through using them repeatedly in any context of health promotion.

The study contributes to understanding how cultural narratives function as indirect speech acts in non-Western communities, particularly within the Manggarai context of Indonesia. By highlighting *Go'et* as a culturally embedded form of communication, the study expands the theoretical discourse on indirectness, politeness strategies, and persuasive communication in health promotion. It also provides valuable insights into community-based health promotion strategies by emphasizing the persuasive role of traditional discourse. The use of *Go'et*, with its indirect yet consequential illocutionary force, often framed in imperative forms to advise, recommend, or express hope, demonstrates how culturally resonant narratives can be more effective than direct communication in influencing health-related attitudes and behaviors. Moreover, the study supports the development of culturally sensitive communication models that incorporate local wisdom and traditions, offering a foundation for policymakers, healthcare practitioners, and educators to design more effective and respectful health promotion programs in indigenous and rural communities.

Despite answering the research question, the study has some limitations that could be addressed for future studies. The study used a qualitative method that might not capture generalizable data. Combining qualitative and quantitative methods could offer more comprehensive data. Moreover, future studies could explore the intersection of Go'et's cultural narrative with politeness theory and language function in health promotion.

## References

- Abels, M., Kilale, A., & Vogt, P. (2021). Speech acts addressed to Hadza infants in Tanzania: Cross-cultural comparison, speaker age, and camp livelihood. *First Language*, 41(3), 294–313. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0142723720972000>
- Aguert, M., Laval, V., Le Bigot, L., & Bernicot, J. (2010). Understanding expressive speech acts: The role of prosody and situational context in french-speaking 5- to 9-year-olds. *Journal of Speech, Language, and Hearing Research*, 53(6), 1629–1641. [https://doi.org/10.1044/1092-4388\(2010/08-0078\)](https://doi.org/10.1044/1092-4388(2010/08-0078))
- Akinloye, A. O., Manoko, O. B., Serote, M., & Taft, T. (2021). Mental health impacts of information and communication technology usage in South Africa. *International Journal of Mental Health Promotion*, 23(2), 255–276. <https://doi.org/10.32604/IJMHP.2021.011111>
- Al-Khatib, A. R., & Al-Khanji, R. R. (2022). A Socio-Pragmatic Analysis of the Speech Act of Advice in Selected Qur'anic Verses. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 12(6), 1157–1165. <https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.1206.15>
- Alahäivälä, T., & Oinas-Kukkonen, H. (2016). Understanding persuasion contexts in health gamification: A systematic analysis of gamified health behavior change support systems literature. *International Journal of Medical Informatics*, 96, 62–70. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijmedinf.2016.02.006>
- Alemi, M., & Khanlarzadeh, N. (2016). Pragmatic assessment of request speech act of Iranian EFL learners by non-native English speaking teachers. *Iranian Journal of Language Teaching Research*, 4(2), 19–34.
- Alghazo, S., Zemmour, S., Al Salem, M. N., & Alrashdan, I. (2021). A cross-cultural analysis of the speech act of congratulating in Kabyle and Jordanian Arabic. *Ampersand*, 8, 100075. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.amper.2021.100075>
- Allami, H., & Naeimi, A. (2011). A cross-linguistic study of refusals: An analysis of pragmatic competence development in Iranian EFL learners. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 43(1), 385–406. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2010.07.010>
- Almutairi, K. M. (2015). Culture and language differences as a barrier to provision of quality care by the health workforce in Saudi Arabia. *Saudi Medical Journal*, 36(4), 425–431. <https://doi.org/10.15537/smj.2015.4.10133>
- Anin, L. K., & Novitasari, F. N. (2015). the Analysis of Illocutionary Acts. *Journal of Illocutionary Acts*, 6(1st), 117–129. [https://jurnal.unars.ac.id/artikel/2017-04-44-70-Jurnal Nine Pioneer 6.pdf](https://jurnal.unars.ac.id/artikel/2017-04-44-70-Jurnal%20Nine%20Pioneer%206.pdf)
- Austin, J. L. (1962). How to Do Things with Words. In *Oxford University Press* (Vol. 23, p. 58). <https://doi.org/10.2307/3326622>
- Babaie, S., & Shahrokhi, M. (2015). A cross-cultural study of offering advice speech acts by Iranian EFL learners and English native speakers: Pragmatic transfer in focus. *English Language Teaching*, 8(6), 133–140. <https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v8n6p133>
- Boroujeni, S. S., & Mansouri, S. (2023). Speech Act Theory: An Inter/Intra-cultural Study of Apology in Communication between Spouses. *Language, Discourse and Society*, 11(1), 103–119.
- Braçaj, M. (2014). Reflection on Language, Culture and Translation and Culture as a Challenge for Translation Process. *Journal of Educational and Social Research*, August. <https://doi.org/10.5901/jesr.2014.v4n4p332>
- Brown, P., & Levinson, S. C. (1987). Politeness: Some Universals in Language Usage. In *Cambridge University Press* (Vol. 22, Issue 4). <https://doi.org/10.2307/3587263>
- Brown, S., & Matusitz, J. (2019). U.S. Church Leaders' Responses to the Charleston Church Shooting: An Examination Based on Speech Act Theory. *Journal of Media and Religion*, 18(1), 27–37. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15348423.2019.1642008>
- Cipta, D. A., Andoko, D., Theja, A., Utama, A. V. E., Hendrik, H., William, D. G., Reina, N., Handoko, M. T., & Lumbuun, N. (2024). Culturally sensitive patient-centered healthcare: a focus on health behavior modification in low and middle-income nations—insights from Indonesia. *Frontiers in Medicine*, 11(April), 1–7. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmed.2024.1353037>
- Daar, G. F. (2023). The sociopragmatic study of speech acts in Go'et Ira in the We'e Mbaru cultural rite. *Studies in English Language and Education*, 10(2), 1084–1102. <https://doi.org/10.24815/siele.v10i2.26545>
- Daar, G. F., Beratha, N. L. S., Suastra, I. M., & Sukarini, N. W. (2023). The off-record politeness strategy and cultural values of the Belis negotiation speech event: A Sociopragmatic study. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 12(3), 612–622. <https://doi.org/10.17509/ijal.v12i3.48746>
- Deveci, T., Midraj, J., & El-Sokkary, W. S. (2023). The speech act of compliment in student–teacher interaction: A case study of Emirati university students' attitudes. *Russian Journal of Linguistics*, 27(1), 111–133. <https://doi.org/10.22363/2687-0088-30051>



- Díaz Pérez, F. J. (2004). The Speech Act of Thanking in English. Differences Between Native and Non-Native Speakers' Behaviour. *Es*, 25, 91–102.
- Donnelly, T. T., Suwaidi, J. Al, Bulushi, A. Al, Enazi, N. Al, Yassin, K., Rehman, A. M., Hassan, A. A., Idris, Z., T.T., D., J.A., S., A., A., N.A., E., K., Y., A., R., & Z., I. (2012). The influence of cultural and social factors on exercise, diet, and smoking of Arabic women living with cardiovascular diseases in the State of Qatar. *Circulation*, 125(19), e730. <http://ovidsp.ovid.com/ovidweb.cgi?T=JS&PAGE=reference&D=emed10&NEWS=N&AN=71051324>
- Drid, T. (2018). Language as Action : Fundamentals of the Speech Act Theory Language as Action : Fundamentals of the Speech Act Theory. *Praxis International Journal of Social Science and Literature*, 1(10), 2–14.
- Duan, Y. (2011). A pragmatic research report on compliment speech act. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 1(4), 356–360. <https://doi.org/10.4304/tpls.1.4.356-360>
- Dutta, M. J., Collins, W., Sastry, S., Dillard, S., Anaele, A., Kumar, R., Roberson, C., Robinson, T., & Bonu, T. (2019). A Culture-Centered Community-Grounded Approach to Disseminating Health Information among African Americans. *Health Communication*, 34(10), 1075–1084. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10410236.2018.1455626>
- Ekiyor, A., & Altan, F. (2020). Marketing Communication and Promotion in Health Services. *Promotion and Marketing Communications*, 1–21. <https://doi.org/10.5772/intechopen.91656>
- Fitriani, N., & Pujiati, T. (2018). A Pragmatics Study of Indirect Speech Acts in President Joko Widodo's State Address. *Journal of English Language Studies*, 3(2), 155. <https://doi.org/10.30870/jels.v3i2.3256>
- Fransen, M. L., Smit, E. G., & Verlegh, P. W. J. (2015). Strategies and motives for resistance to persuasion: an integrative framework. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 6(August), 1–12. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2015.01201>
- Gąsior, W. (2015). Cultural scripts and the speech act of opinions in irish english: A study amongst irish and polish university students. *ELOPE: English Language Overseas Perspectives and Enquiries*, 12(1), 11–28. <https://doi.org/10.4312/elope.12.1.11-28>
- Halliday, M. A. K., & Matthiessen, C. M. I. M. (2013). Halliday's introduction to functional grammar: Fourth edition. In *Halliday's Introduction to Functional Grammar: Fourth Edition*. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203431269>
- Hawley, S. T., & Morris, A. M. (2017). Cultural challenges to engaging patients in shared decision making. *Patient Education and Counseling*, 100(1), 18–24. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pec.2016.07.008>
- Higgins, C., & Walker, R. (2012). Ethos, logos, pathos: Strategies of persuasion in social/environmental reports. *Accounting Forum*, 36(3), 194–208. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.accfor.2012.02.003>
- Hosni, H. R. (2020). Advice giving in Egyptian Arabic and American English: A cross-linguistic, cross-cultural study. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 155, 193–212. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2019.11.001>
- Jama, K. B. (2021). Kajian Ekofeminisme Dalam Estetika Sastra Goet Paki Ata Karya Yoseph Ngadut. *Jurnal Lazuardi*, 4(1), 34–42. <https://doi.org/10.53441/jl.vol4.iss1.52>
- Jayasinghe, S., Byrne, N. M., & Hills, A. P. (2025). The culture of healthy living – The international perspective. *Progress in Cardiovascular Diseases*, February. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pcad.2025.02.001>
- Jugan, W., & Pandor, P. (2023). Memahami Peribahasa “Nai Ngalis Tuka Ngengga” dalam Budaya Hambor Manggarai melalui Konsep Otentisitas Martin Heidegger: Kontribusi terhadap Kesadaran Perdamaian. *Journal of Education, Humaniora and Social Sciences (JEHSS)*, 6(2), 978–994. <https://doi.org/10.34007/jehss.v6i2.1967>
- Kreuter, M. W., & McClure, S. M. (2004). The role of culture in health communication. *Annual Review of Public Health*, 25, 439–455. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.publhealth.25.101802.123000>
- Lee, A. Y., & Aaker, J. L. (2004). Bringing the Frame into Focus: The Influence of Regulatory Fit on Processing Fluency and Persuasion. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 86(2), 205–218. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.86.2.205>
- Moses, F. (2013). Retrika Puisi Sastra Go'et Masyarakat Manggarai: Sebuah Kajian Retorika Dan Puitika Lisan Rhetorical. *Persepsi Masyarakat Terhadap Perawatan Ortodontik Yang Dilakukan Oleh Pihak Non Profesional*, 53(9), 1689–1699.
- Nguyen, T. N. M., Saunders, R., Dermody, G., & Whitehead, L. (2024). The influence of culture on the health beliefs and health behaviours of older Vietnam-born Australians living with chronic disease. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 80(9), 3781–3796. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jan.16283>
- Nkirete, A. (2024). The Pragmatics of Politeness in Cross-Cultural Communication. *European Journal of Linguistics*, 3(3), 27–39. <https://doi.org/10.47941/ejl.2052>
- Nwagbara, U., & Belal, A. (2019). Persuasive language of responsible organisation? A critical discourse analysis of corporate social responsibility (CSR) reports of Nigerian oil companies. *Accounting, Auditing and Accountability Journal*, 32(8), 2395–2420. <https://doi.org/10.1108/AAAJ-03-2016-2485>
- Percival, N. A., McCalman, J., Armit, C., O'Donoghue, L., Bainbridge, R., Rowley, K., Doyle, J., & Tsey, K. (2018). Implementing health promotion tools in Australian Indigenous primary health care. *Health Promotion International*, 33(1), 92–106. <https://doi.org/10.1093/heapro/daw049>
- Pongsibanne, L., Naping, H., Hamdat, S., & Arifin, A. (2018). Social Cultural Transformation in Attitude and Behavior of. *International Journal of Sociology and Anthropology Research*, 4(5), 1–19.
- Rachmawati, I. (2020). Language and Culture in Multicultural Society of English Language Course. *NOBEL: Journal of Literature and Language Teaching*, 11(1), 55–68. <https://doi.org/10.15642/nobel.2020.11.1.55-68>



- Rochwulaningsih, Y. (2015). The Role of Social and Cultural Values in Public Education in Remote Island: a Case Study in Karimunjawa Islands, Indonesia. *KOMUNITAS: International Journal of Indonesian Society and Culture*, 7(1), 1–16. <https://doi.org/10.15294/komunitas.v7i1.3336>
- Roe, K. M. (2018). Health Promotion for These Times. *Health Promotion Practice*, 19(2), 165–166. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1524839918758699>
- Ross, K. A., & Castle Bell, G. (2017). A Culture-Centered Approach to Improving Healthy Trans-Patient–Practitioner Communication: Recommendations for Practitioners Communicating with Trans Individuals. *Health Communication*, 32(6), 730–740. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10410236.2016.1172286>
- Searle, J. R. (1979). Studies in the theory of speech acts. In *Cambridge University Press*. <http://books.google.com/books?hl=en&lr=&id=dhf27-nv7pkC&oi=fnd&pg=PR6&dq=EXPRESSION+AND+MEANING+Studies+in+the+Theory+of+Speech+Acts&ots=ywgN2W3dyC&sig=1Xq8EaJkLA3eobqEjCxouyzVrk>
- Sukirman, S., Firman, F., Aswar, N., Mirnawati, M., & Rusdiansyah, R. (2022). The Use of Metaphors through Speech Acts in Learning: A Case from Indonesia. *International Journal of Society, Culture and Language*, 10(3), 137–150. <https://doi.org/10.22034/ijsc.2022.551893.2613>
- Tuohy, D. (2019). Effective intercultural communication in nursing. *Nursing Standard (Royal College of Nursing (Great Britain) : 1987)*, 34(2), 45–50. <https://doi.org/10.7748/ns.2019.e11244>
- Válková, S. (2013). Speech acts or speech act sets: Apologies and compliments. *Linguistica Pragensia*, 23(2), 44–57.
- Weigand, E. (2016). The Dialogic Principle Revisited: Speech Acts and Mental States. In *Culture and Society* (Issue september, pp. 209–232). <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-12616-6>
- Witek, M. (2021). Self-expression in speech acts. *Organon F*, 28(2), 326–359. <https://doi.org/10.31577/orgf.2021.28204>
- Xiao, F. (2023). Analysis of Speech Act Between SA and AH Chinese L2 Speakers of English—With Regard to Request Refusal, and Apology Strategies. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 14(3), 541–551. <https://doi.org/10.17507/jltr.1403.01>
- Yaqin, L. N., Shanmuganathan, T., Fauzanna, W., Jaya, A., Rinjani, U. G., Andalas, U., Education, L., & Hamzanwadi, U. (2022). Sociopragmatic Parameters of Politeness Strategies among the Sasak in the Post Elopement Rituals. *Studies in English Language and Education*, 9(2), 797–811.
- Yazdanfar, S., & Bonyadi, A. (2016). Request Strategies in Everyday Interactions of Persian and English Speakers. *SAGE Open*, 6(4). <https://doi.org/10.1177/2158244016679473>
- Yule, G. (1996). Pragmatics. In *Oxford University Press* (pp. 437–456). <https://doi.org/10.1017/9781316779194.021>
- Ziyatbay, A. (2024). Culture as a Factor of Continuity in the Development of Society. *Pubmedia Social Sciences and Humanities*, 2, 1–10.

## **The interplay of segmental and suprasegmental features in ESL/EFL reading aloud performance**

**Lalu Ari Irawan<sup>1</sup>, Ramli Ahmad<sup>2</sup>**

Universitas Pendidikan Mandalika<sup>1</sup>  
GENIUS Institute, Indonesia<sup>2</sup>  
email: [laluariirawan@undikma.ac.id](mailto:laluariirawan@undikma.ac.id)<sup>1</sup>

**Abstract** - Effective spoken communication is influenced by intelligibility and comprehensibility, both of which are shaped by segmental and suprasegmental features of pronunciation. This study aims to examine how segmental and suprasegmental pronunciation features influence the intelligibility of Indonesian EFL learners during reading-aloud tasks. The study used a descriptive qualitative research method and involved 5 senior members of the Global English Community (GEC) at Mandalika University of Education (UNDIKMA) as participants. The data consisted of recorded speech produced during reading-aloud sessions and were collected through direct observation and expert rating by a native-speaker. The analysis focused on segmental features (vowel and consonant production, including monophthongs, diphthongs, and silent-letter words) and suprasegmental features (word stress and voice quality). The findings indicated that segmental inaccuracies particularly in English sounds not found in Indonesian caused the greatest reduction in intelligibility because they frequently altered word meaning. In contrast, suprasegmental issues such as misplaced stress and limited voice quality reduced naturalness and listener processing but did not affect meaning. These results indicated that pronunciation instruction for Indonesian EFL learners should prioritize segmental accuracy while still integrating suprasegmental training to support overall speech clarity.

**Keywords:** Intelligibility, Segmental Features, Suprasegmental Features

## 1. Introduction

The clarity of a person's speech when speaking in English is highly influenced by the quality of their pronunciation. It is because Pronunciation is the initial and key aspect in the development of speaking skills (Poposka, 2017). However, good pronunciation does not mean that one must speak like a native speaker. Rather, it refers to the clarity of a person's voice when articulating words in English, ensuring that their speech is easily understood by listeners. This clarity, often referred to as intelligibility, is a crucial aspect of effective communication in English. According to Lochland (2020) English has established itself as the world's lingua franca, and intelligibility is considered by many to be the first level in understanding spoken text.

When discussing intelligibility, it is essential to consider two key aspects of pronunciation: segmental and suprasegmental features. Segmental features focus on individual sound units, or phonemes, which include vowels and consonants (Das, 2023). Vowels, such as /i/, /e/, /a/, and /u/, and consonants, like /p/, /t/, /k/, and /s/, are essential components of speech. Additionally, diphthongs, which combine two vowel sounds within a single syllable (e.g., /aɪ/ in *time* and /eɪ/ in *face*), as well as contractions and sound reductions, such as "gonna" instead of "going to," contribute to natural speech patterns. On the other hand, suprasegmental features cover more than one sound in an utterance and include volume, pitch, juncture, and duration, all of which play a crucial role in distinguishing meaning, mood, and intention in speech (Tolibovna, 2023). These features influence how utterances are perceived and understood, going beyond individual phonemes. For instance, intonation affects the rise and fall of pitch, stress determines the emphasis on syllables or words, and rhythm shapes the pattern of long and short sounds in speech. Additionally, tempo, connected speech, and voice quality further contribute to intelligibility, making communication more natural and effective. This highlights the interconnected nature of suprasegmental elements in shaping pronunciation and comprehension.

To achieve clear pronunciation and intelligibility in English, learners must have a solid understanding of both segmental and suprasegmental features. It is not enough to simply master individual phonemes without considering other factors that affect clarity and meaning. Segmental and suprasegmental elements are interrelated and cannot be separated. However, English pronunciation poses significant challenges for English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and English as Second Language (ESL) learners, primarily due to differences between English and their native language. This difficulty arises because second language learners need to change the conceptual patterns they have internalized since childhood, which are shaped by their first language (Gilakjani & Ahmadi, 2011). Syam et al., (2024), cite several findings from previous research regarding differences between Indonesian and English. First, certain English consonants, such as /v/, /θ/, /ð/, /ʒ/, /dʒ/, and /tʃ/, do not exist in Indonesian, posing pronunciation challenges for Indonesian learners of English (Tiono & Yostanto, 2008). Additionally, Indonesian speakers tend to simplify consonant clusters, particularly in the final position, by either deleting sounds (e.g., saying 'san' instead of 'sand') or inserting an epenthetic vowel (e.g., 'sekerip' for 'script') (Yuliati, 2014). Second, vowel distinctions in Indonesian differ from those in English. While English differentiates between tense and lax vowels as separate phonemes, in Indonesian, lax vowels function as allophones of tense vowels, occurring only in specific syllabic environments (Andi-Pallawa & Alam, 2013; Wijana, 2003). Third, Indonesian has a simpler syllabic structure, with a predominance of CV syllables (Suyanto et al., 2016), whereas English allows for more complex consonant clusters, including both initial and final clusters that often pose difficulties for Indonesian learners. These linguistic differences contribute to intelligibility issues and highlight key areas where Indonesian learners of English may encounter pronunciation difficulties.

In the empirical context of this study, these pronunciation issues are evident among members of the Global English Community (GEC) at UNDIKMA. Based on the observations, pronunciation and intelligibility issues appear due to linguistic differences. For example, several pronunciation challenges commonly encountered by members of GEC include mispronunciations of vowel sounds, such as "riding" pronounced as "reading", "fan" pronounced as "pen", and "quiet" pronounced as "kuit", as well as mispronunciations of consonant sounds, such as "island" pronounced as "islan", "night" pronounced as "naeg", and "laugh" pronounced as "laug". English pronunciation is markedly different from Indonesian language (Bahasa Indonesia), making it difficult for learners to produce accurate sounds and maintain intelligibility.

Despite growing attention to pronunciation in English education, there remains a gap in understanding how both segmental and suprasegmental features influence intelligibility in the context of Indonesian EFL learners. Most studies tend to focus on one feature at a time, causing limited

exploration of how these two dimensions jointly affect speech clarity. Therefore, this study aims to analyze how segmental and suprasegmental features influence the intelligibility of Indonesian EFL learners during reading-aloud sessions. Particularly, it seeks to answer the following research questions: (1) Which features, segmental or suprasegmental have a greater impact on the clarity and fluency of reading aloud? (2) What challenges do Indonesian EFL learners face in applying segmental and suprasegmental features during reading-aloud activities?

## 2. Method

This study was conducted under a descriptive qualitative approach. As noted by Creswell (2018), qualitative research is an approach for exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem. Within the context of this study, researcher aimed to find out how EFL learners are facing challenge in English pronunciation due to insufficient knowledge about segmental and suprasegmental features. The subjects of this study subjects were 5 members of GEC selected according to the following criteria: They are active members who regularly attended English class sessions provided by GEC. They are senior members of GEC for at least one year and attend class sessions 2–3 times a week. They have experience in English competitions.

The study included five participants. Subject 1 (female) had been a member of GEC for approximately three years, attending class sessions 2–3 times a week and participating in public speaking and speech contests. Subject 2 (female) was a dedicated member for four years, regularly attending classes and also enrolling in an external English course to further enhance her skills. Subject 3 (male) had been with GEC for four years, actively engaging in class sessions and competing in English competitions, particularly in public speaking and speech contests. Subject 4 (female) had been a member for three years, consistently attending English sessions and taking part in public speaking and speech contests. Finally, Subject 5 (male) was the most senior participant, having been involved with GEC for five years. He regularly attended English class sessions and actively competed in public speaking and speech contests.

Direct observation was conducted to gather data on the subject's pronunciation and intelligibility. An external rater, a native English speaker, was involved to ensure accuracy in the assessment. The rater, a 29-year-old hotel manager from the USA with a master's degree in hospitality management, evaluated the subjects as they read passages aloud. The evaluation was based on a structured assessment sheet designed to measure pronunciation and intelligibility. Furthermore, the analysis focused on segmental features (vowel and consonant production, including monophthongs, diphthongs, and silent-letter words) and suprasegmental features (word stress and voice quality).

The study procedure involved having the subjects read a passage titled *The Boy Who Cried Wolf*, which consisted of two paragraphs. The rater assessed their pronunciation using two main variables: suprasegmental features, which included stress and voice quality, and segmental features, which covered monophthongs, diphthongs, and silent letters. A total of 15 words from the passage were selected for analysis to determine the student's pronunciation and intelligibility levels. These words were categorized into three phonetic groups: monophthongs (sheep, saw, muttering, about, rushed, chase, wolf, laughed), diphthongs (graze, decided, cried, entire), and silent letters (could, fright, thought). In addition to evaluating the segmental features, the rater also assessed how the subjects applied stress to these words and their overall voice quality while reading. Below is the text being read by the subjects.

### The Boy Who Cried Wolf

In a village, lived a carefree boy with his father. The boy's father told him that he was old enough to watch over the sheep while they graze in the fields. Every day, he had to take the sheep to the grassy fields and watch them as they graze. However, the boy was unhappy and didn't want to take the sheep to the fields. He wanted to run and play, not watch the boring sheep graze in the field. So, he decided to have some fun. He cried, "Wolf! Wolf!" until the entire village came running with stones to chase away the wolf before it could eat any of the sheep. When the villagers saw that there was no wolf, they left muttering under their breath about how the boy had wasted their time. The next day, the boy cried once more, "Wolf! Wolf!" and, again, the villagers rushed there to chase the wolf away. The boy laughed at the fright he had caused. This time, the villagers left angrily. The third day, as the boy went up the small hill, he suddenly saw a wolf attacking his sheep. He cried as hard as he could, "Wolf! Wolf! Wolf!", but not a single villager came to help him. The villagers thought that he was

trying to fool them again and did not come to rescue him or his sheep. The little boy lost many sheep that day, all because of his foolishness.

### 3. Results and Discussion

#### Result

This section begins by assessing student's pronunciation levels by observing their performance in reading and analysing suprasegmental features such as stress and voice quality, as well as segmental features such as monophthongs, diphthongs, and silent letters. It then continues to evaluate student's intelligibility, focusing on two aspects: word recognition and neighbourhood density.

#### Student's pronunciation

Table.1 Student's pronunciation

Research Subject	Suprasegmental		Segmental			Total Score (%)
	Stress (1-15)	Voice Quality (1-15)	Monophthong (1-8)	Diphthong (1-4)	Silent Letter (1-3)	
Subject 1 (female)	10	4	6	4	0	53,3%
Subject 2 (female)	12	3	6	4	1	57,7%
Subject 3 (male)	8	4	3	4	2	46,6%
Subject 4 (female)	13	8	6	4	2	73,3%
Subject 5 (male)	12	9	6	4	3	75,5%
Total	45	20	27	20	8	
Average Score	60%	26,6%	70%	100%	60%	

Subject 1 demonstrated varying accuracy in pronunciation across suprasegmental and segmental aspects. In the suprasegmental category, she correctly stressed 9 out of 15 words but struggled with words like *SAW*, *ABOUT*, *CHASE*, *WOLF*, *LAUGHED*, *ENTIRE*, *COULD*, *FRIGHT*, and *THOUGHT*, which were not only stressed incorrectly but also mispronounced, affecting voice quality. For instance, *SAW* was pronounced as /'səʊ/ [sao] instead of /'sɔ:/, while *ABOUT* was mispronounced as /ə'bʌv/ [ebov] instead of /ə'baut/. Similarly, *CHASE* was altered to /keɪs/ [keis] instead of /tʃeɪs/, and *WOLF* was unidentifiable. *LAUGHED* was pronounced as /lʌvd/ [lavd] instead of /læft/, while *ENTIRE* was mispronounced as /ʌn'taɪ/ [antai] instead of /ɪn'taɪə/. In addition, *COULD* was articulated as /'kold/ [culd] instead of /'kɒd/, *FRIGHT* as /'frai:k/ [fraik] instead of /'frai:t/, and *THOUGHT* as "tough," making it unrecognizable.

In terms of segmental accuracy, Subject 1 pronounced 9 out of 15 words correctly. Among the monophthongs, *SAW* was mispronounced as /'soʊ/ [sau] instead of /'sɔ:/, and *LAUGHED* was incorrectly produced as /lʌvd/ [lavd] instead of /læft/. However, she performed well in diphthong pronunciation, articulating all target words correctly. On the other hand, silent-letter words posed challenges, with *COULD* being mispronounced as /kold/ [kuld] instead of /kɒd/, *FRIGHT* as /'frai:g/ [fraeg] instead of /'frai:t/, and *THOUGHT* as /tʌf/ [taf] instead of /'θɔ:t/. Overall, BLJ exhibited difficulties in maintaining correct pronunciation in words where suprasegmental and segmental aspects overlapped, particularly affecting stress, voice quality, and phonetic accuracy.

Subject 2 exhibited strong performance in stress placement, correctly stressing 12 out of 15 words. She successfully stressed *Sheep*, *Saw*, *Muttering*, *Rushed*, *Wolf*, *Laughed*, *Graze*, *Decided*, *Cried*, *Entire*, *Could*, and *Fright*. However, she struggled with *About*, *Chase*, and *Thought*. In *About*, she did not apply stress to any syllable, making it sound unnatural. *Chase* was pronounced with insufficient stress as [chase] instead of ['chase]. *Thought* was mispronounced to the extent that it became unrecognizable.

In the vocal quality aspect of suprasegmental features, Subject 2 correctly pronounced only 3 out of 15 words: *Muttering*, *Wolf*, and *Cried*. She mispronounced *Sheep* as /'ʃip/ [shep] instead of



/ʃi:p/, and *Saw* as /'səʊ/ [sou] instead of /'sɔ:/ . *About* was not only unstressed but also mispronounced as /ə'bɒt/ [abot] instead of /ə'baʊt/. *Rushed* was altered to “rust,” rendering it unrecognizable. *Chase* lacked stress despite having correct segmental pronunciation. *Laughed* was pronounced as “love” and became unintelligible. *Graze* was articulated as /'greɪs/ [greɪs] instead of /'greɪz/, while *Decided* was truncated to “decide.” *Entire* was pronounced as /en'taɪə/ [entaer] instead of /ɪn'taɪə/, deviating from American English pronunciation. *Could* was mispronounced as /'kʊt/ [kut] instead of /'kʊd/, *Fright* as /'fraɪ:k/ [fraek] instead of /'fraɪ:t/, and *Thought* as /tɔ:k/ [tok] instead of /'θɔ:t/. In the segmental category, EYS demonstrated good pronunciation accuracy, correctly articulating 11 out of 15 words. Among monophthongs, she pronounced the /i:/ sound in *Sheep*, the /ʌ/ sound in *Muttering* and *Rushed*, the /ə/ sound in *About*, the /eɪ/ sound in *Chase*, the /ʊ/ sound in *Wolf*, and the /æ/ sound in *Laughed* correctly. However, she mispronounced the /ɔ:/ sound in *Saw* as /'səʊ/ [sou] instead of /'sɔ:/.

For diphthongs, she correctly pronounced the /eɪ/ sound in *Graze* and *Decided* and the /aɪ/ sound in *Cried* and *Entire*. However, she struggled with silent-letter words. While she correctly pronounced the /d/ sound in *Could*, she mispronounced *Fright* as /'fraɪ:k/ [fraek] instead of /'fraɪ:t/ and *Thought* as /tɔ:k/ [tok] instead of /'θɔ:t/. Overall, while she showed proficiency in stress placement and diphthong pronunciation, her challenges with suprasegmental features, especially vocal quality and silent letters, affected the clarity of her speech.

Subject 3 exhibited varying accuracy in stress, vocal quality, and segmental pronunciation. In the suprasegmental aspect of stress, he correctly stressed 8 out of 15 words. Words like *sheep*, *saw*, *rushed*, *wolf*, *decided*, *cried*, and *could* were stressed correctly. However, he mispronounced *muttering*, *chase*, *laughed*, *fright*, and *thought* to the extent that their stress patterns could not be identified. Additionally, *about*, *graze*, and *entire* were stressed incorrectly, with *graze* and *entire* lacking the expected emphasis.

In the vocal quality aspect of suprasegmentals, he pronounced only 4 out of 15 words correctly. While *sheep*, *about*, *wolf*, and *cried* were pronounced correctly, errors were noted in other words. For instance, *saw* was pronounced as [sou] instead of /'sɔ:/, *muttering* had an incorrect thick “r” sound, *rushed* was pronounced as [rast] instead of /rʌʃt/, and *chase* was mispronounced as [chɪz] instead of /tʃeɪs/. Similarly, *laughed* sounded like [lavd] instead of /læft/, and *entire* was pronounced with a non-American English influence. Other errors included *decided* being shortened to “decide,” *fright* mispronounced as [freɪt] instead of /fraɪt/, and *thought* pronounced as [dhouk] instead of /θɔ:t/. For segmental features, Subject 3 pronounced 8 out of 15 words correctly. In monophthongs, he accurately pronounced the /i:/ sound in *sheep*, the /ə/ sound in *about*, the /eɪ/ sound in *chase*, and the /ʊ/ sound in *wolf*. However, errors included mispronouncing *saw* as [sou] instead of /'sɔ:/, *muttering* as [meterɪŋ] instead of /mʌtərɪŋ/, *rushed* as [rast] instead of /rʌʃt/, and *laughed* as [lavd] instead of /læft/. In diphthongs, he correctly pronounced the /eɪ/ sound in *graze* and *decided*, as well as the /aɪ/ sound in *cried* and *entire*. Regarding silent letters, he correctly pronounced *could* and *fright* but mispronounced *thought*, pronouncing it as [dhouk] instead of /θɔ:t/.

Subject 4 demonstrated varying accuracy in pronunciation across suprasegmental and segmental aspects. In the suprasegmental category, she correctly stressed 13 out of 15 words (86.6%), although some words were mispronounced, affecting both stress and voice quality. Notably, “Saw,” “Laughed,” and “Could” were pronounced incorrectly, making them unidentifiable. In terms of voice quality, she correctly pronounced 8 out of 15 words (53.3%). While her accent followed American English patterns, she struggled particularly with monophthongs, such as pronouncing “Saw” as /'səʊ/ instead of /'sɔ:/ and “Laughed” as /lavd/ instead of /læft/. In the segmental aspect, she performed well, correctly pronouncing 12 out of 15 words (80%). Specifically, she achieved 80% accuracy in monophthongs, 100% in diphthongs, and 66.6% in silent-letter words. Despite her challenges in voice quality, her overall pronunciation was understandable.

Subject 5 demonstrated strong pronunciation accuracy across suprasegmental and segmental aspects. In the suprasegmental category, he correctly stressed 12 out of 15 words (80%), although some words were mispronounced, affecting both stress and voice quality. Notably, “Saw” and “Rushed” were pronounced incorrectly, making them unidentifiable, while “Thought” had incorrect stress placement. In terms of voice quality, he pronounced 9 out of 15 words correctly (60%), showing a generally accurate American English accent but struggling particularly with monophthongs. For example, he pronounced “Saw” as /'aʊ/ instead of /'sɔ:/ and “Muttering” as /'meɪdʒərɪŋ/ instead of /'mætərɪŋ/. In the segmental aspect, he performed well, correctly pronouncing 13 out of 15 words (86.6%). Specifically, he achieved 80% accuracy in monophthongs, 100% in diphthongs, and 100% in



silent-letter words. Despite minor errors in monophthong pronunciation, his overall pronunciation was clear and understandable.

### Student's Intelligibility

Research Subject	Table.2 Student's Intelligibility		
	Word	Neighbourhood	Total Score
	Recognition (1-15)	Density (1-15)	
Subject 1 (female)	8	4	40%
Subject 2 (female)	8	5	43,3%
Subject 3 (male)	8	5	43,3%
Subject 4 (female)	10	10	66,6%
Subject 5 (male)	10	10	66,6%
Total Score	44	34	
Average Score	58,6%	45,3%	

Subject 1 demonstrated varying accuracy in pronunciation across both suprasegmental and segmental aspects, which impacted her performance in word recognition and neighborhood density. In the word recognition section, she correctly pronounced 8 out of 15 words (53.3%), indicating moderate intelligibility. Words like *sheep*, *muttering*, *wolf*, and *graze* were pronounced clearly, while *saw*, *laughed*, *decided*, and *cried* were pronounced with slight distortions but remained recognizable to the rater. However, words such as *about*, *rushed*, *chase*, *entire*, *could*, *fright*, and *thought* were mispronounced to the extent that they were perceived as different words. For example, *about* was pronounced as /ə'baʌv/ [ebov] instead of /ə'baʊt/, leading to a misunderstanding as *above*, while *chase* was pronounced as /keɪs/ [keis] instead of /tʃeɪs/, making it sound like *case*.

In the neighborhood density section, where words with many phonetic neighbors are more susceptible to confusion, Subject 1 significantly dropped with her intelligibility. She pronounced only 4 out of 15 words (26.6%) correctly. While *sheep*, *muttering*, *wolf*, and *graze* remained intelligible, words like *saw*, *laughed*, *decided*, and *cried* became ambiguous due to segmental errors. For instance, *saw* was pronounced as /'saʊ/ [sao] instead of /'sɔ:/, making it possible for listeners to misinterpret the word. Similarly, *decided* was pronounced as /dɪ'zaidɪd/ [dizaidid] instead of /dɪ'saɪdɪd/, which could be mistaken for another word with a similar structure. Meanwhile, words such as *about*, *rushed*, *chase*, *entire*, *could*, *fright*, and *thought* were completely misunderstood due to mispronunciations that altered their meanings.

Overall, Subject 1 performed better in word recognition (53.3%) than in neighborhood density (26.6%), with an average intelligibility score of 40%. Her pronunciation challenges were most apparent in words with silent letters and those requiring accurate vowel articulation. These difficulties stemmed from errors in both suprasegmental (stress and rhythm) and segmental (phonetic accuracy) features, affecting her intelligibility.

Subject 2 demonstrated moderate intelligibility in the word recognition section, correctly pronouncing 8 out of 15 words (53.3%). While some words were clear, several contained segmental errors that altered their pronunciation and affected comprehension. Words like *muttering*, *chase*, and *cried* were pronounced correctly, whereas *sheep* was mispronounced as [shep], making it sound like *ship*, and *laughed* was pronounced as [lav], resembling *love*. In the neighborhood density section, her performance declined, with only 5 out of 15 words (33.3%) correctly pronounced. Many mispronunciations led to semantic shifts, changing the meaning of words. For example, *graze* was mispronounced as [greɪs], making it sound like *grace*, and *thought* was altered to [tok], which significantly impacted comprehension. Some words, like *about* and *could*, were ambiguous but still recognizable. Overall, Subject 2 had an average intelligibility score of 43.3%, indicating that while some of her words were understandable, many mispronunciations affected clarity. Her word recognition skills were stronger than her neighborhood density performance, suggesting that her

pronunciation errors did not always make words unrecognizable, but they frequently led to changes in meaning. Her accent and phonetic distortions contributed to intelligibility challenges.

Subject 3 demonstrated moderate intelligibility in the word recognition section, correctly pronouncing 8 out of 15 words (53.3%). Some words, such as *sheep*, *about*, *wolf*, *graze*, and *could*, were pronounced clearly. However, several words contained segmental errors that altered their pronunciation, making them difficult to recognize. For instance, *saw* was pronounced as [sou] instead of /'sɔ:/, *muttering* was pronounced as [metering] instead of /mʌtərɪŋ/, and *rushed* was pronounced as [rast] instead of /rʌʃt/. Other mispronunciations led to semantic shifts, changing the meaning of words. *Chase* was pronounced as [chiz], resembling *cheese*, and *laughed* was pronounced as [lavd], making it sound like *loved*. Words like *cried*, *entire*, and *fright* were pronounced with errors but remained somewhat recognizable. In the neighborhood density section, his performance declined, with only 5 out of 15 words (33.3%) correctly pronounced. Mispronounced words in this section often changed their meaning entirely, making comprehension more challenging. Despite some words being understandable, many errors affected clarity, and the subject's heavy accent and phonetic distortions further influenced intelligibility. His average intelligibility score was 43.3%, with stronger performance in word recognition than in neighborhood density.

Subject 4 demonstrated moderate intelligibility in both the word recognition and neighborhood density sections, with an intelligibility score of 66.6% in each. In the word recognition section, she pronounced 10 out of 15 words clearly and rather clearly. Words such as "sheep," "muttering," "about," "chase," "wolf," "graze," "decided," "cried," and "entire" were pronounced accurately, while mispronunciations occurred with words like "saw," "rushed," "laughed," "could," and "thought," where NN produced segmental errors that made the words difficult to recognize, such as pronouncing "saw" as [sou] instead of /'sɔ:/ or "rushed" as [rast] instead of /rʌʃt/. Similarly, in the neighborhood density section, she pronounced 10 out of 15 words clearly and rather clearly. While many words were intelligible, mispronunciations such as "saw" [sou] for /'sɔ:/ and "thought" [toud] for /'θɔ:t/ led to confusion, with the rater recognizing these words as others with different meanings. Despite the occasional mispronunciations, her overall performance indicates that most of her words were understandable, placing her at a level 3 of intelligibility. The analysis highlights that Subject 4 primarily faced pronunciation issues related to segmental aspects, especially vowel sounds and the articulation of words with similar phonetic neighbors. Nonetheless, the majority of her pronunciation was still comprehensible, demonstrating moderate overall intelligibility.

Subject 5 demonstrated moderate intelligibility, with a score of 66.6% in both the word recognition and neighborhood density sections. In the word recognition section, he correctly pronounced 10 out of 15 words clearly and rather clearly. Words like "sheep," "chase," "wolf," "laughed," "graze," "decided," "entire," and "could" were pronounced clearly, while some mispronunciations occurred with words like "saw," "muttering," "rushed," "cried," and "fright." For instance, he pronounced "saw" as [sau] instead of /'sɔ:/, and "muttering" as [mejoring] instead of /'mætərɪŋ/, which caused confusion and led the rater to recognize these words as different ones. Similarly, in the neighborhood density section, he mispronounced several words, but they still produced clear versions of "sheep," "chase," "wolf," "laughed," "graze," "decided," "entire," and "could." However, words like "saw," "muttering," "rushed," "cried," and "fright" were mispronounced to the point where they became unrecognizable, with "saw" being pronounced as [sau] instead of /'sɔ:/ and "fright" as [fraek] instead of /frʌɪt/. Despite these mispronunciations, his intelligibility was still reasonable, with most words understandable to the listener, placing him at level 3 of intelligibility. The average intelligibility score across both sections was 66.6%, indicating that the majority of his pronunciations were comprehensible, with the main issues stemming from segmental errors affecting vowel sounds and the articulation of certain consonants.

## 3.2 Discussion

### Student's Pronunciation

Based on the research findings, students demonstrated strong pronunciation skills in diphthongs, successfully pronouncing them. While previous studies have found that many EFL and ESL learners struggle with diphthong pronunciation, the subjects in this study found them relatively easy. Pratiwi & Indrayani, (2021) investigated pronunciation errors in nine diphthongs: [eɪ], [aɪ], [aʊ], [oʊ], [ɔɪ], [ɪə], [eə], [ʊə], and [ɔə]. Their findings showed that all four subjects mispronounced [eɪ], and three out of four mispronounced [aɪ]. In contrast, all subjects in this study correctly pronounced [eɪ] and [aɪ].

Several factors may explain this difference. First, diphthongs may be easier to recognize due to fewer variations in sound compared to monophthongs, making them less confusing. Second, students in this study were in higher semesters and actively participated in an English club, potentially giving them more exposure to English pronunciation. Additionally, while Pratiwi and Indrayani analyzed multiple diphthongs, this study focused only on [eɪ] and [aɪ], which may have influenced the results.

On the other hand, monophthong seems to be more challenging for the students to pronounce. Scoring 6 out of 8 is considered a fairly good level of pronunciation, however, there is one student pronounced only three words consisting monophthong. This indicates that monophthong has significant challenge for the students. According to Demirezen, (2020), diphthongs involve gliding from one vowel to another, where the second component is weaker and less distinct. This process makes diphthongs sound like a single, elongated vowel, reducing pronunciation complexity. In contrast, monophthongs require consistent articulation without gliding, making them more challenging for learners to master. In addition, many words containing monophthongs are pronounced similarly, making it particularly challenging to differentiate between long and short vowels. A study by Tahang et al., (2024) found that many students struggle with this distinction. For example, the word *sit* was often pronounced with a long vowel when it should have a short vowel, while the word *sea* was mistakenly pronounced with a short /ɪ/ sound instead of the correct long /i:/ sound.

Finally, in the segmental aspect, silent letters posed the greatest challenge for most students in this study. Two students scored 2 out of 3, one student scored 1 out of 3, one student failed, and one student achieved a perfect score. Despite the limited number of test words, students still exhibited frequent errors in word stress and pronunciation. This suggests that if a larger set of words were tested, the error rate would likely be even higher, highlighting the need for targeted instruction in silent letter pronunciation. Numerous studies have investigated pronunciation errors related to silent letters, consistently demonstrating that students face difficulties in pronouncing them correctly. One primary cause of these difficulties is the phonetic difference between English and Indonesian. Unlike English, the Indonesian language does not include silent letters (Pusfarani et al., 2021), for instance, in English, words ending with the letter clusters [lp] and [ps], such as *scalp*, *pulp*, and *help*, are pronounced differently from their Indonesian equivalents. In Indonesian, similar clusters are separated into distinct syllables, such as *al-pa*, *pul-pen*, and *tel-pon*, which leads Indonesian speakers to pronounce them incorrectly by inserting a schwa sound [ə] between [l] and [p]. Similarly, the English *ps*- cluster, as found in *psychology*, is pronounced with a silent *p*, whereas in Indonesian *psikologi*, both *p* and *s* are fully articulated. These phonological differences contribute to pronunciation errors among Indonesian learners of English. In their study, Pusfarani et al. (2021) identified 897 pronunciation errors out of 1,560 data points, highlighting the persistent challenge of silent letter pronunciation. This finding suggests that the mastery of silent letters remains far from perfect. Additionally, they also attribute errors in silent letter pronunciation to various factors, including diverse language accents, limited vocabulary comprehension, and inconsistencies in English pronunciation rules. Although certain patterns serve as useful guidelines for pronouncing silent letters in English, they often do not follow consistent phonetic rules. As a result, learners must rely on memorization and repeated exposure to improve their pronunciation accuracy. According to Strausser and Panizza (2007), as cited in Rosemarie & Veniranda (2022), there are no universal rules for silent letters; instead, learners must become familiar with common spelling patterns through frequent usage. This highlights the importance of explicit instruction and regular practice in mastering silent letter pronunciation. This emphasizes the importance of direct instruction and regular practice in mastering silent letter pronunciation. In a pedagogical perspective, it is potentially beneficial for teachers to incorporate exercises that specifically target silent letter patterns and exceptions, such as minimal pair drills and focusing on words with silent letters. This method would help learners to develop a stronger phonetic awareness.

In the aspect of suprasegmental features, such as voice quality and word stress, voice quality appears to be the biggest challenge. Scoring a maximum of 9 out of 15 is considered low and far from perfect, with some students scoring as low as 3 or 4. Several possible reasons for this include a lack of awareness of English intonation and rhythm, making their speech sound monotonous or unnatural, low confidence in speaking, which leads to unclear or weak pronunciation, and insufficient articulation practice, affecting the clarity and naturalness of their speech. Interestingly, in terms of word stress, most students demonstrate a fairly good understanding of syllable stress. This finding aligns with previous research by Lasi (2020) which concluded that students were categorized at an 'average' level in mastering Basic English Pronunciation (BEP). The study found that students still faced difficulties in speaking performance, particularly in the suprasegmental aspect of voice quality. The data analysis

revealed that 61.5% of students performed at an “enough” level in stress, 65.3% in intonation, 50.0% in voice quality, and 61.5% in gestures (as part of the segmental element). Among these, voice quality had the lowest score, indicating that students struggled the most in this area. One possible reason for this difficulty is that students were not paying enough attention to their voice when pronouncing basic words. Their slow, deep, and low voices suggested hesitation and a lack of confidence in uttering certain words. To address this, focusing on developing voice quality through imitation and mimicry exercises seems to be the right classroom activities. Teachers may use audio and video resources to expose students to natural, authentic speech and motivate them to practice varying their pitch, tone, and projection.

### **Student's Intelligibility**

Student's intelligibility was assessed based on two categories, such as word recognition, referring to their ability to produce words accurately as recognized by the rater, and neighbourhood density, which measured how mispronunciations led to other meaningful words. A consistent pattern of pronunciation errors emerged across the subjects, primarily due to segmental deviations, where incorrect vowel or consonant sounds altered word meanings. Common errors included vowel substitution such as, /ʌ/ to /u/, as in word could mispronounced as “kut”. Consonant misarticulation such as, /ʃ/ to /s/, as in word rushed pronounced as “rust”, and final consonant deviations /d/ to /t/, as in word cried pronounced as “kraet”. These mispronunciations often resulted in word substitutions, making certain words difficult to understand and affecting overall intelligibility. The findings suggest that phonemic awareness and segmental phonology play a crucial role in pronunciation clarity among English learners.

The subject's performance in pronunciation accuracy showed slight variations, but similar trends emerged across participants. On average, they correctly pronounced 66.6% of words in both word recognition and neighborhood density tasks. However, mispronounced words often resulted in different words with new meanings, leading to phonological confusion. The most frequent errors involved vowel and consonant misarticulating, which significantly affected speech clarity. While some subjects excelled in certain words, others struggled with the same sounds, emphasizing the role of individual phonetic perception and articulation ability in pronunciation learning. Furthermore, the study highlights a critical issue in second-language pronunciation: when mispronunciations produce real words with different meanings, communication breakdowns can occur. For example, substitutions such as “rushed” becoming “rust” ([rʌʃt] → [rʌst]), “laughed” becoming “loved” ([læft] → [lʌvd]), and “saw” becoming “so” ([sɔ:] → [sou]) can lead to misunderstandings in real-life conversations. These findings underscore the importance of phonological awareness in effective communication.

Based on the findings, intelligibility particularly in word production is closely linked to a speaker's awareness of segmental features, such as vowels and consonants. Many previous studies have shown that intelligibility has a narrower scope in communication, primarily focusing on word meaning. In this context, enhancing segmental accuracy alone can improve intelligibility. For example, a study by Yenkimaleki & Heuven (2021), found that teaching segmental contrasts, combined with production-focused practice, significantly improved the intelligibility of EFL learner's speech. On the other hand, suprasegmental features play a crucial role in overall comprehensibility. A lack of awareness of elements such as intonation, word stress, and rhythm can affect not only word intelligibility but also how the entire message is perceived. For instance, in English, differences in word stress can change meaning, as in record (noun) versus record (verb). Likewise, incorrect intonation can lead to ambiguity, such as distinguishing between a statement and a question. Furthermore, research by Gordon and Darcy, (2022) found that explicit instruction in suprasegmentals was more effective in improving learner's comprehensibility than instruction focusing solely on segmental.

### **4. Conclusion**

The findings of this study indicate that intelligibility is more likely influenced by segmental features rather than suprasegmental features. Errors in vowel and consonant articulation frequently lead to mispronunciations that change word meaning, directly affecting intelligibility. In contrast, suprasegmental features, such as stress, rhythm, and intonation, play a more significant role in overall comprehensibility, as they cover broader aspects of communication. While both segmental and suprasegmental features contribute to spoken communication, the results suggest that accurate

pronunciation at the phonemic level is crucial for ensuring intelligibility, whereas suprasegmental accuracy enhances the listener's ability to process speech more fluently. These findings highlight the need for pronunciation instruction that prioritizes segmental precision to improve intelligibility while also incorporating suprasegmental training to refine comprehensibility in broader communicative contexts. However, this study is limited by the relatively small sample size and its dependence on a single qualitative assessment method. Future research could broaden the data set by involving larger and more diverse learner groups with varied proficiency levels and employing a mixed-methods or quantitative approach to offer a more comprehensive understanding of pronunciation and intelligibility among EFL learners.

## References

- Andi-Pallawa, B., & Alam, A. F. A. (2013). A comparative analysis between English and Indonesian phonological systems. *International Journal of English Language Education*, 1(3), 103-129. <https://doi.org/10.5296/ijele.v1i3.3892>.
- Creswell, J. W., & Creswell, J. D. (2018). Mixed Methods Procedures. In H. Salmon (Ed.), *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches* (5th Edition). SAGE Publications. file:///C:/Users/Dragon/Downloads/creswell.pdf.
- Das, R. K. (2023). *Teaching Segmental Features , Suprasegmental Features and Discourse Markers for Developing Listening Skills*. International Journal of Novel Research and Development (IJNRD) 8(3), 646–665. <https://www.ijnrd.org/>
- Demirezen, M. (2020). Long Vowels Versus Diphthongs in North American English: Which One Is Easy To Recognize And Hear? *International Journal of Curriculum and Instruction* 12 (1), 289–309.
- Gilakjani, A. P., & Ahmadi, M. R. (2011). Why Is Pronunciation So Difficult to Learn ? *English Language Teaching*, 4(3), 74–83. <https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v4n3p74>
- Gordon, J., & Darcy, I. (2022). Teaching Segmentals and Suprasegmentals Effects of Explicit Pronunciation Instruction on Comprehensibility. *Proceedings of the 10th Pronunciation in Second Language Learning and Teaching Conference*, 8(2), 168–159. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1075/jslp.21042.gor>
- Lasi, F. (2020). A Study on the Ability of Supra Segmental and Segmental Aspects in English Pronunciation. *Ethical Lingua*. 7(2), 426–437. <https://doi.org/10.30605/25409190.222>
- Lochland, P. (2020). Intelligibility of L2 Speech in ELF. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*. 3(3), 196–212. <https://doi.org/10.29140/ajal.v3n3.281>
- Poposka, V. P. (2017). A Study of Proper Pronunciation as A Factor of Successful Communication. *CBU International Conference on Innovations in Science and Education*, 5. 778–783. <https://doi.org/10.12955/cbup.v5.1024>
- Pratiwi, D. R., & Indrayani, L. M. (2021). Pronunciation Error on English Diphthongs Made by EFL Students. *TEKNOSASTIK* 19(1), 24–30.
- Pusfarani, W., Mukhrizal, & Puspita, H. (2021). Students' Pronunciation Errors in English Silent Letters. *Journal of English Education and Teaching (JEET)*. 5(3), 453–467. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.33369/jeet.5.3.453-467>
- Rosemarie, B., & Veniranda, Y. (2022). An Analysis of Silent Consonants in The 2nd Semester Students' Pronunciation. *LLT Journal: A Journal on Language and Language Learning*, 25(1), 350–358. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.24071/llt.v25i1.4249>
- Suyanto, S., Hartati, S., Harjoko, A., & Compernelle, D. V. (2017). Erratum to 'Indonesian syllabification using a pseudo nearest neighbour rule and phonotactic knowledge. *Speech Communication*, 90 (2) 47. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.specom.2017.02.006>.
- Syam, A. R., Gardner, S., & Cribb, M. (2024). Pronunciation Features of Indonesian-Accented English. *MDPI Journals*. 9(6), 2-23. <https://doi.org/10.3390/languages9060222>
- Tahang, H., Hardianti, R., Winarti, E., Salsabilla, N. A., Said, D. R., & Bone, U. M. (2024). The English A Foreign Language Students' English Long and Short Vowel Pronunciation. *JULIET: Journal of English Language and Literature*. 1(1), 46–52.
- Tiono, N. I., & Yostanto, A. M. 2008. A study of English phonological errors produced by English Department students. *K@Ta: A Biannual Publication on The Study of Language and Literature*, 10 (1), 79–112. <https://doi.org/10.9744/kata.10.1.79-112>.



- Tolibovna, Y. Z. (2023). Importance of Teaching the Pronunciation of Suprasegmental Features of English. *IJSSIR*, 12,(05), 32–35.
- Wijana, I. D. P. (2003). Indonesian vowels and their allophones. *Humaniora* 15(1), 39-42. <https://doi.org/10.22146/jh.772>.
- Yenkimaleki, M., & Heuven, V. J. Van. (2021). Effects of Attention to Segmental Vs . Suprasegmental Features on The Speech Intelligibility and Comprehensibility of The EFL Learners Targeting The Perception or Production-Focused Practice. *SYSTEM*, 100, 102557. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2021.102557>
- Yuliati. (2014). Final consonant clusters simplification by Indonesian learners of English and Its intelligibility in international context. *International Journal of Social Science and Humanity*, 4(6). <https://doi.org/10.7763/IJSSH.2014.V4.409>.



## **Metacognitive strategies in teaching essay writing: Repeated measures in the creative writing classroom**

**Dina Ramadhanti<sup>1</sup>, Diyan Permata Yanda<sup>2</sup>**

Universitas PGRI Sumatera Barat<sup>1</sup>

Universitas Islam Negeri Sjech M. Djamil Djambek Bukittinggi<sup>2</sup>

email: [dinaramadhanti32@gmail.com](mailto:dinaramadhanti32@gmail.com)<sup>1</sup>

**Abstract** - Metacognitive strategies are language learning strategies used to improve self-monitoring and self-regulation skills. Using a purposive sampling technique, 79 students in a creative writing class were selected to participate. Data collection was carried out repeatedly, and the data were analyzed using repeated measurement tests. During essay writing learning, students were guided to develop metacognitive skills, starting from planning, monitoring, and evaluating writing. The results of the study showed that metacognitive strategies influenced the development of metacognitive skills. Students were accustomed to writing in the stages of planning writing, monitoring the strategies used, and evaluating the writing results. When completing their writing, they were guided to use a reflection journal as a self-reflection tool. Measurements were carried out five times. In the first week, students began to be introduced to metacognitive strategies with a focus on awareness of the thinking process, especially in planning the content of the writing; in the second week, students showed significant improvement when they were able to organize ideas more coherently and relevantly to the topic; In week 3, students demonstrated maturity in developing arguments, enriching descriptions, and improving paragraph cohesion and coherence, resulting in a significant increase in their creative essay writing scores. However, in weeks 4 and 5, students' abilities slowed down, with no statistically significant differences. This stagnation was caused by the learning plateau and ceiling effect, the short duration of treatment, inaccurate assessment instruments, and student motivation and boredom. Nevertheless, metacognitive strategies are recommended for use in essay writing learning.

**Keywords:** Creative Writing, Essay Writing, Metacognitive Strategies

## 1. Introduction

Creative writing has become part of learning programs from elementary school to university level. Students are taught to write in various types of genres and writing styles, starting from fiction and non-fiction. Creative writing is important because it functions as a tool for expressing emotions, developing creativity and imagination, and a means of perfecting writing skills (Mardiningrum et al., 2024). Creative writing is also a valuable experience for students in developing language skills (Harshini, 2020). Additionally, creative writing has even become a tool in science learning. Students are asked to observe an object and report it in the form of creative writing (Osborn et al., 2023). Considering the benefits of creative writing, students need to improve their writing skills from time to time. To enhance creative writing skills, students need to read a variety of literature, write consistently, dare to experiment with various writing styles, pay attention to correct writing instructions, and accept constructive criticism from others (Fitria, 2024).

In learning creative writing, various ways and methods have been used and proven successful in fostering students' creativity in writing. These various methods, namely: carrying out learning through giving multitasks to students so that they are able to develop creative writing competencies (Mohammed, 2019); implementing short story-based learning so as to improve creative writing skills (El-Mahdy et al., 2019); using Creative Writing Instruction Program based on Speaking Activities (CWIPSA) model in learning and proven to foster creative writing attitudes and achievements (Bayat, 2016); using Wattpad as a means of developing creative writing (Zubaidi et al., 2023); using poetry to be transformed into other creative writing (Aryusmar & Putria, 2014); and using nature as a means of learning creative writing (Vedia & Emzir, 2017). Even though there have been many ways to develop creative writing skills, novice writers still experience difficulties in writing, for example, difficulties in developing stories (Marlina & Narius, 2020). In implementing writing learning, teachers need to pay attention to the assignments and media used and students need to pay attention to how to analyze and produce writing by paying attention to writing rules.

In creative writing, students need to have independence and freedom in developing their ideas and imagination. One learning strategy that can shape student's independence in learning is metacognitive strategies. Metacognitive strategies are used so that students have metacognitive skills (Ramadhanti & Yanda, 2021). Teaching students to have metacognitive knowledge and skills is the same as teaching them to have self-agency. This sense of agency needs to be possessed by students so that they can continue to develop greater agency, improve metacognition, and ultimately be able to transfer the knowledge they have across contexts (Taczak & Roberston, 2020). Ultimately, students will have self-regulation, namely the ability to assess the extent to which a learners are aware of their strengths and weaknesses as well as the strategies they use to learn (Quigley et al., 2018).

Metacognitive strategies have been widely chosen as a means to facilitate learning. For example, in listening lessons, teachers can find out the level of student's understanding because each learning step is carried out systematically and encourages student's critical thinking skills (Salasiah et al., 2018). By implementing metacognitive strategies in the classroom, teachers have changed the way they frame learning intentions and criteria for learning success. By asking students questions and guiding learning with a metacognitive strategies, teachers have helped students monitor their learning (Smith & Ferguson, 2020a). In its application, metacognitive strategies can also be integrated with the use of reflective e-portfolios to help develop student's reflection skills (Turky, 2018). Metacognitive strategies are used by students if they understand and have metacognitive knowledge and skills. Metacognitive knowledge includes knowledge about self, tasks, and strategies (Flavell, 1979; Pintrich, 2017).

Based on these things, this research needs to be carried out to determine the effect of applying metacognitive strategies in learning to write creative essays. Metacognitive strategies are important in creative writing because they help students recognize, plan, monitor, and evaluate their writing process, allowing them to express their creative ideas in a more focused and coherent manner. With these strategies, students are not only able to overcome obstacles such as writer's block but also reflect on their word choice, flow, and writing style to improve the quality of their work. Furthermore, metacognitive strategies encourage independent learning, creativity, and self-evaluation, resulting in more original, engaging, and meaningful writing.

Essay writing is assessed by how capable students are of presenting their ideas and ideas by paying attention to the structure and linguistic rules of the essay namely introduction, content, and conclusion. In essay writing, metacognitive strategies play a crucial role because they help writers plan the content and structure of their essay, monitor the logical flow of their arguments, and evaluate the clarity and accuracy of their language. With metacognitive awareness, writers can ensure that their essay's thesis is

consistent, arguments are supported by relevant evidence, and paragraphs are structured coherently and sequentially. Furthermore, these strategies enable writers to be more reflective about their writing's weaknesses, critically revise their writing, and ultimately produce a more systematic, convincing, and high-quality essay.

However, research on the extent to which students are aware of plan, monitor, and evaluate their writing process, allowing them to express creative ideas in a more focused and coherent manner, has never been conducted. Repeated measurements are used to demonstrate the development of student's essay writing skills over time. Therefore, this study aims to describe the influence of metacognitive strategies on student's essay writing skills in a creative writing class. This study is to prove the research hypothesis, namely: H0: There is no significant average difference in student's essay writing ability using metacognitive strategies during the measurement time interval; and H1: There is a significant average difference in student's essay writing ability using metacognitive strategies during the measurement time interval.

## 2. Method

This research was quantitative research using quasi-experimental methods. This research aims to determine the influence of metacognitive strategies in learning to write creative essays after repeated measurements. The experimental design used is the equivalent time sample design. The equivalent time sample design is a research design that is carried out repeatedly on one group by paying attention to the distance between treatments and test administration (Yusuf, 2007). In this study, the distance given was a week. The sample in this research was 79 students who took the Creative Writing class. The research sample was treated by applying metacognitive strategies in learning to write creative essays.

The instruments used in this research consisted of three, namely: a Lecture Unit for learning to write creative essays; a creative essay writing performance test instrument; and a reflective journal to monitor writing progress. The questions asked in the reflective journal are: (1) Describe your process of finding writing ideas from the environment around you! (2) Explain how familiar you are with the themes and topics you write about. (3) Explain why you chose that topic for your writing? (4) Explain how you got the idea for your writing? (5) What strategies did you use to gather information about the idea before writing it down? (6) How long will it take you and how much information will you need to complete your writing? (7) How familiar are you with the topic you are writing about? (8) What difficulties did you encounter while completing your writing? (9) What efforts did you make to overcome your difficulties and weaknesses while writing on this topic? (10) What interesting things did you feel while collecting information and writing about the topic? (11) How can you determine that your writing is worthy of being called creative writing? (12) Give a summary of your creative process in writing starting from planning your writing, developing ideas into creative writing, and evaluating your writing! ((Mana et al., 2023; Ramadhanti, 2024). Reflective journals were used to collect qualitative data about student's essay writing progress notes.

The data collection procedure was carried out by providing treatment to the sample group by carrying out creative essay writing lessons using metacognitive strategies. Implementation of metacognitive strategies is carried out in the following steps, namely: planning what is learned (planning), monitoring what is learned (monitoring), and assessing what is learned (evaluation) (Oxford, 1990; Quigley et al., 2018). More specifically, learning activities are carried out using the steps in Table 1 below.

Table 1. Implementation of Creative Essay Writing Learning  
Using Metacognitive Strategies

No	Stage	Learning Activities
1	Planning	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>At this stage, the teacher asks students to find out previous knowledge about writing and things to pay attention to when writing.</li> <li>The teacher asks students to make a writing outline</li> <li>The teacher asks students to prepare writing materials to be developed into writing.</li> <li>The teacher provides models to students so that students can pay attention to the models given by the teacher.</li> </ol>

2 Monitoring	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Students develop ideas according to the model provided by the teacher by monitoring writing progress by answering questions in a reflective journal.</li> <li>2. Students monitor that the writing they produce is by the framework of ideas and assessment criteria provided by the teacher.</li> <li>3. Students monitor the correctness of the writing they produce using the assessment rubric provided by the teacher together with their peers.</li> </ol>
3 Evaluation	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Students re-examine the writing they have produced according to the results of peer and teacher assessments.</li> <li>2. Students complete the writing independently.</li> <li>3. Students reflect to find out what they have learned, how to complete the assignment, and how effective the strategies used were when completing the assignment.</li> </ol>

Furthermore, data analysis was carried out using a repeated measures test to determine the significance of learning using metacognitive strategies in learning creative writing which is carried out repeatedly. Student essays are written using the following rubric.

Table 2. Essay Writing Assessment Rubric

Score	Criteria Description
4	The essay demonstrates a deep and relevant understanding of the topic, logical and convincing arguments, a clear structure (introduction, body, conclusion), coherent paragraphs, standard language with effective sentences, and almost error-free spelling and grammar.
3	The essay is quite clear and relevant to the topic, the argument is logical although not completely strong, the structure is quite coherent, there is cohesion between paragraphs, the language is generally standard with some minor errors, and the spelling and grammar are still acceptable.
2	The essay lacks focus, limited relevance to the topic, weak arguments, and lack of evidence, unbalanced structure, less cohesive paragraphs, many distracting language and spelling errors, but still understandable.
1	The essay has an unclear direction of discussion, is not relevant to the topic, arguments are absent or illogical, the structure is chaotic without cohesion, the language is not standard, and there are many spelling and grammar errors so it is difficult to understand.

The test stages carried out were: inputting research data into the SPSS program, carrying out a data normality test, and carrying out a repeated measures ANOVA test. This research hypothesizes that there is a difference in the average writing ability of students in the interval group measuring creative writing learning outcomes.

### 3. Results and Discussion

Metacognitive strategies are assumed to be variables that influence creative writing learning outcomes. Measurements were carried out five times taking into account the distance between treatment and test administration. The significance of the difference in the average results of measuring student's writing learning outcomes can be seen based on the test results in Table 3 below.

Table 3. Tests of Within-Subjects Effects

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
--------	-------------------------	----	-------------	---	------

Time_Week	Sphericity Assumed	2,699.281	4	674.820	15.947	0.000
	Greenhouse-Geisser	2,699.281	3.524	765.945	15.947	0.000
	Huynh-Feldt	2,699.281	3.711	727.306	15.947	0.000
	Lower-bound	2,699.281	1.000	2,699.281	15.947	0.000
Error (Time_Week)	Sphericity Assumed	13,202.719	312	42.316		
	Greenhouse-Geisser	13,202.719	274.881	48.031		
	Huynh-Feldt	13,202.719	289.485	45.608		
	Lower-bound	13,202.719	78.000	169.266		

The average difference in student's writing ability can be seen by paying attention to the Greenhouse-Geisser value in the Test of Within-Subject Effect Table. In this table, the Greenhouse-Geisser significance value is 0.000. This value is less than 0.05. If the Greenhouse-Geisser significance value is greater than 0.05 then there is no difference in the average ability of students over the five intervals for measuring learning outcomes. On the other hand, if the Greenhouse-Geisser significance value is less than 0.05 then there is a difference in the average ability of students during the five intervals for measuring learning outcomes. Thus, it can be concluded that during creative writing learning using metacognitive strategies, there are differences in the average student's writing abilities. This difference is influenced by the learning strategy used. By using metacognitive strategies, students are able to plan the content and structure of their essays, monitor the logical flow of their arguments, and evaluate the clarity and accuracy of their language. Furthermore, the average increase in student writing learning outcomes is stated in Table 4 below.

Table 4. Pairwise Comparisons

(I) Time_Week	(J) Time_Week	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. <sup>b</sup>	95% Confidence Interval for Difference <sup>b</sup>	
					Lower Bound	Lower Bound
1	2	-2.810*	.913	.029	-5.448	-.172
	3	-5.215*	1.084	.000	-8.348	-2.083
	4	-5.722*	.976	.000	-8.540	-2.903
	5	-7.557*	.974	.000	-10.370	-4.744
2	1	2.810*	.913	.029	.172	5.448
	3	-2.405	1.191	.469	-5.846	1.036
	4	-2.911	1.052	.070	-5.950	.127
	5	-4.747*	1.131	.001	-8.015	-1.479
3	1	5.215*	1.084	.000	2.083	8.348
	2	2.405	1.191	.469	-1.036	5.846
	4	-.506	1.150	1.000	-3.828	2.816
	5	-2.342	.995	.211	-5.216	.533
4	1	5.722*	.976	.000	2.903	8.540
	2	2.911	1.052	.070	-.127	5.950
	3	.506	1.150	1.000	-2.816	3.828
	5	-1.835	.829	.298	-4.231	.560
5	1	7.557*	.974	.000	4.744	10.370
	2	4.747*	1.131	.001	1.479	8.015
	3	2.342	.995	.211	-.533	5.216
	4	1.835	.829	.298	-.560	4.231

Based on estimated marginal means

\*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

The output table above provides information about the average increase in essay writing ability for five measurements. Number 1 shows the measurement time of student's initial essay writing ability;

Number 2 shows the measurement time of student's essay writing ability in Week 1; Number 3 shows the measurement time of student's essay writing ability in Week 2; Number 4 shows the measurement time of student's essay writing ability in Week 3; and Number 5 shows the measurement time of student's essay writing ability in Week 4 after using metacognitive strategies.

The explanation of the output table is as follows. *First*, Number 1 (student's initial essay writing skills) compared to Number 2 (essay writing skills in Week 1) showed a significant difference in student's writing skills after using metacognitive strategies with a sign value of  $0.029 < 0.05$ ; *Second*, Number 1 (student's initial essay writing skills) compared to Number 3 (essay writing skills in Week 2) showed a significant difference in student's writing skills after using metacognitive strategies with a sign value of  $0.000 < 0.05$ ; *Third*, Number 2 (essay writing ability Week 1) compared to Number 3 (essay writing ability Week 2) there is no significant difference in student's writing ability after using metacognitive strategies with a sign value of  $0.469 < 0.05$ ; *Fourth*, Number 3 (essay writing ability Week 2) compared to Number 4 (essay writing ability Week 3) there is no significant difference in student's writing ability after using metacognitive strategies with a sign value of  $1.000 < 0.05$ ; and *Fifth*, Number 4 (essay writing ability Week 3) compared to Number 5 (essay writing ability Week 4) there is no significant difference in student's writing ability after using metacognitive strategies with a sign value of  $0.298 < 0.05$ .

These results indicate that the improvement in essay writing ability using metacognitive strategies was only significant in the first three weeks, while there was no significant difference in the fourth and fifth weeks. This condition can be explained by the phenomenon of a learning plateau, a situation where the development of learning abilities slows down or stagnates after reaching a certain point. According to DeKeyser (2007), In the early stages of learning complex skills like writing, progress is typically rapid as students become familiar with effective strategies. However, progress slows afterward as students take longer to internalize the skill. Furthermore, stagnation is also related to the ceiling effect, a condition where students reach the maximum achievement limit according to the learning instrument or context provided (Bond & Fox, 2015). In this case, after three sessions of practice, most students understood how to plan, monitor, and evaluate their writing using metacognitive strategies, so subsequent improvements were relatively small and not statistically significant. This suggests that essay writing skills require further development with a variety of interventions or long-term practice.

The relatively short duration of treatment was also another factor influencing the results. Five weeks of learning were insufficient to develop essay writing skills sustainably, as writing is a productive skill that requires intensive and repeated practice over an extended period (Hyland, 2019). Therefore, although metacognitive strategies are effective for improving writing skills, sustainable improvement requires a longer learning program with a variety of activities, feedback, and more complex writing challenges. In addition to technical factors, student's motivational and psychological aspects also need to be considered. In the first few weeks, student motivation is usually high due to the new experience and the challenge of writing with different strategies. However, over time, boredom can set in, reducing the quality of the learning process (Zimmerman, 2002). Thus, the stagnation of results in the fourth and fifth weeks does not mean that metacognitive strategies are ineffective, but rather indicates that further innovation, extension of time, and verification of instruments are needed so that the development of student's essay writing abilities remains significant. The stagnation in student's essay writing learning outcomes in weeks 4 and 5 is visualized in the following flowchart.



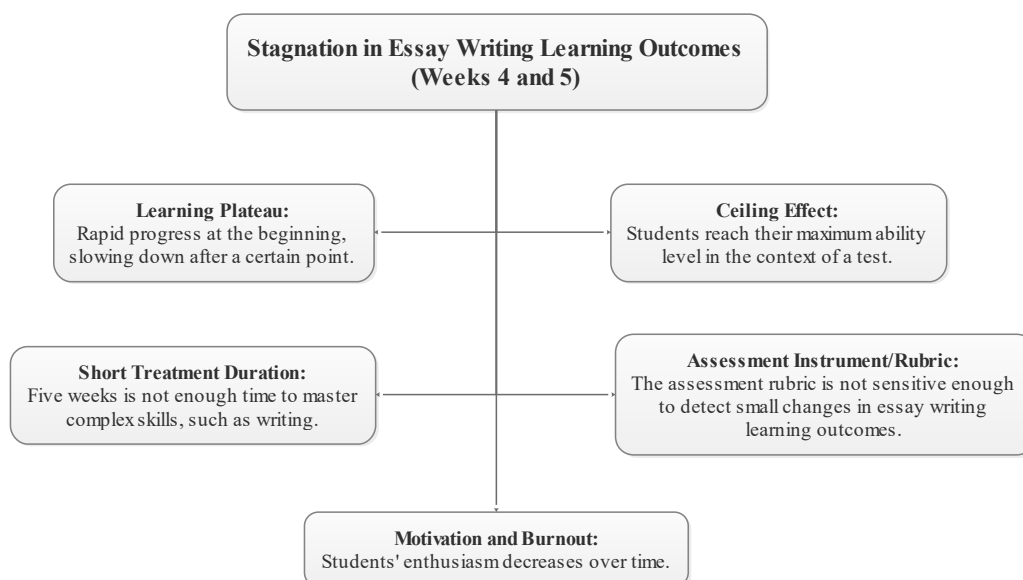


Figure 1. Flowchart of Causes of Stagnation in Essay Writing Learning Outcomes Using Metacognitive Strategies

Overall, learning objectives are achieved and students also have independence in learning. Metacognitive strategies according to the concept aim to ensure that students have metacognitive skills and become independent learners. One aspect of independent learning is reflection skills (Belenkova, 2021). Students can also reflect on their writing skills through reflective journals. With reflection skills, students can realize their own learning goals, set tasks, select and use certain strategies, and choose the most appropriate strategy. Apart from having reflection skills, students have metacognitive skills that enable them to overcome various problems in learning. These metacognitive and self-reflection skills are the basis of self-education and guarantee successful learning (Wang, n.d.).

The development of metacognitive and reflective skills needs to be carried out continuously to shape students into independent learners. To develop reflection skills, teachers need to integrate learning with an environment that supports students in reflective practice (Antonio, 2020). Students become better and wiser in determining tasks and choosing the right strategy for completing tasks. They also need to be trained to continually plan, monitor, and evaluate their learning activities to support problem-solving efforts (Clark et al., 2022). Students also have control over their learning (Millis, 2016) because metacognitive strategies help students to determine learning goals and monitor their progress in achieving these goals (Smith & Ferguson, 2020b). In this case, metacognitive reflection increases the power of learning (Miller et al., 2021). Metacognitive reflection also brings about a change in perspective and can support valuable reconceptualization for lifelong learning (Merkebu et al., 2024). Students generally tend to use learning approaches that can be applied throughout their lives. Factors that limit the success of a metacognitive approach are the individual's capacity and motivation to reflect (Phelps et al., 2001).

Reflection skills can be measured using self-reports and reflective journals (Ramadhanti & Yanda, 2023). Students who are used to writing reflective journals can develop their writing skills and become independent learners (Ramadhanti et al., 2020). This is what is done during learning to write creative essays. Students monitor the writing process using a reflective journal. Writing a reflective journal is one approach to record self-evaluation and improve independent learning. Things that can be recorded in a reflective journal, namely: reflection on initial learning objectives, monitoring of involvement in learning, monitoring of conceptual understanding, monitoring of progress in achieving learning objectives, self-evaluation of what has been learned, what is still not understood, and what needs to be improved, and feelings after participating in learning including emotional attitudes and self-motivation (Beach et al., 2020).

Learning to write creative essays uses metacognitive strategies designed so that students have reflection skills. Students are given questions in the form of a reflective journal during assignment completion so that they can continually reflect on themselves from planning to completing assignments. Self-reflection in this case aims to investigate student's learning strategies and to increase their control over learning. Things that students reflect on include their understanding of concepts, the quality of

progress in completing assignments, learning problems faced, and further self-development (Simarmata & Sulistyaningrum, n.d.). The use of a reflection model in the form of reflective journal writing during learning has been proven to improve learning (McAlpine et al., 1999). Writing a reflective journal also helps improve student's thinking abilities. Students can improve their learning by becoming aware of their thinking as they read, write, and solve problems in learning. Teachers can increase this awareness by informing students about effective problem-solving strategies (Fathima & Saravanakumar, 2012). During the application of metacognitive strategies, students improve the strategies used because they evaluate through reflective journals. Self-evaluation is the most important indicator of independent learning (Shamdas, 2023). Students also show real involvement in learning so that learning creative writing feels beneficial for student development. Student involvement in learning influences academic achievement (Jaya & Sucipto, 2023). Apart from that, learning is also carried out systematically and based on discovery when thinking about things to write about. In this case, discovery-based learning improves student's critical thinking skills (Sabur et al., 2023).

Metacognitive strategies influence learning. Students need to develop their metacognitive skills continuously. Metacognitive knowledge and skills develop with age. However, to build metacognitive knowledge and skills, students need support and explicit instructions from teachers and parents (Beach et al., 2020). Efforts that teachers can make to encourage student's metacognition, namely: using explicit language to describe metacognition and self-regulation, asking investigative and discovery questions, providing specific examples, modeling metacognitive behavior and highlighting exemplary behavior, and encouraging students to transfer and relate their learning to other topics and experiences. Parenting efforts that can be implemented by parents to encourage student's metacognition, namely: encouraging the use of metacognitive language to describe learning experiences, creating a challenging and independent learning environment, generating student's self-confidence, people taking responsibility for learning, providing responses and certain emotional reactions to learning, and approaching learning failures with more support and less control. Apart from that, to help student's thinking processes, things that teachers can do are: providing academic-oriented feedback, giving praise for their thoughts and ideas in making decisions, and providing direct guidance, especially about things that students need to do. students in certain situations, applying problem-solving and inquiry, teaching students to ask themselves questions about the problem or task they are working on, and emphasizing higher-order thinking skills in the classroom (Fathima & Saravanakumar, 2012).

#### **4. Conclusion**

The application of metacognitive strategies in essay writing learning shows clear stages of progress. In the first stage (Week 1), students begin to recognize metacognitive strategies with a focus on awareness of thought processes, especially in planning the content of writing. In the second stage (Week 2), students show significant improvement when they are able to organize ideas more coherently and relevantly to the topic. In the third stage (Week 3), students demonstrate maturity in developing arguments, enriching descriptions, and improving paragraph cohesion and coherence, resulting in a significant increase in essay writing ability scores. However, in the fourth stage (Week 4), students show slowing development of abilities, and in the fifth stage (Week 5), stagnation occurs as indicated by the absence of statistically significant differences. This stagnation occurs due to the phenomena of the learning plateau and the ceiling effect. This condition causes students to achieve skill stability according to the treatment given. In addition, the relatively short duration of treatment, assessment instruments/rubrics that are less sensitive to small changes, and decreased motivation also contribute to the stagnation. Thus, this study concludes that metacognitive strategies are effective in improving essay writing skills at the early to intermediate stages, but to achieve sustainable development, long-term treatment, variations in learning strategies, and more adaptive evaluation instruments are needed so that students can overcome the plateau point in creative essay writing skills. Furthermore, the implementation of learning and writing assessments need to be designed in such a way that students can gain more meaningful experiences while studying. Students who use metacognitive strategies indirectly are also taught to write systematically, starting from planning ideas, realizing ideas in their minds into meaningful writing, and evaluating and revising the results of their writing. During the writing assessment, students are also guided by an assessment rubric so that they can assess their own writing. In fact, his colleagues can also provide input on his writing. Metacognitive strategies are recommended in learning creative writing because apart from forming independence in learning, students will also get used to thinking

about whatever they are going to do and can reflect on every action they take. Students can think about the most effective strategies to use in learning according to their learning needs.

## References

- Antonio, R. P. (2020). Developing student's reflective thinking skills in a metacognitive and argument-driven learning environment. *International Journal of Research in Education and Science*, 6(3), 467–483. <https://doi.org/10.46328/ijres.v1i1.1096>.
- Aryusmar, A., & Putria, W. (2014). The effectiveness of teaching creative writing using cinquain poetry. *Humaniora*, 5(2), 1037. <https://doi.org/10.21512/humaniora.v5i2.3218>.
- Bayat, S. (2016). The effectiveness of The Creative Writing Instruction Program based on Speaking Activities (CWIPSA). *International Electronic Journal of Elementary Education*, 8(4), 617–628.
- Beach, P. T., Anderson, R. C., Jacovidis, J. N., & Chadwick, K. L. (2020). Making the abstract explicit: The role of metacognition in teaching and learning. *Inflexion Policy Paper: Metacognition in Education*, August, 1–57. <https://ibo.org/globalassets/new-structure/research/pdfs/metacognition-policy-paper.pdf>.
- Belenkova, Y. S. (2021). Metacognitive skills and reflection as essential components of self-education. *MIER Journal of Educational Studies Trends & Practices*, 10(1), 30–46. <https://doi.org/10.52634/mier/2020/v10/i1/1360>.
- Bond, T. G., & Fox, C. M. (2015). *Applying the Rasch Model: Fundamental measurement in the human sciences* (3rd ed.). New York: Routledge.
- Clark, R., Kaw, A., & Guldiken, R. (2022). Do metacognitive instruction and repeated reflection improve outcomes? *ASCE Annual Conference and Exposition, Conference Proceedings*. <https://doi.org/10.18260/1-2--41900>.
- DeKeyser, R. M. (2007). *Practice in a second language: Perspectives from applied linguistics and cognitive psychology*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- El-Mahdy, M., Qoura, A. A., & El Hadidy, M. (2019). Developing creative writing skills through a short story-based program. *Journal of Research in Curriculum Instruction and Educational Technology*, 4(4), 153–166. <https://doi.org/10.21608/jrciet.2019.31962>.
- Fathima, M. P., & Saravanakumar, A. (2012). Reflection on metacognitive strategies – teaching learning perspective. *International Journal of Scientific Research*, 1(5), 35–37. <https://doi.org/10.15373/22778179/oct2012/13>.
- Fitria, T. N. (2024). Creative writing skills in English: Developing student's potential and creativity. *EBONY: Journal of English Language Teaching, Linguistics, and Literature*, 4(1), 1–17. <https://doi.org/10.37304/ebony.v4i1.10908>.
- Flavell, J. H. (1979). Metacognition and cognitive monitoring a new area of cognitive — Developmental inquiry. *American Psychologist*, 34(10), 906–911. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066x.34.10.906>.
- Harshini, P. (2020). Creative writing and its influence in the generation of language skills - A creative approach. *Journal of Critical Reviews*, 7(4), 186–188. <https://doi.org/10.31838/jcr.07.04.32>.
- Hyland, K. (2019). *Second language writing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Jaya, F., & Sucipto. (2023). Digital literacy, academic self-efficacy, and student engagement: Its impact on student academic performance in hybrid learning. *Journal of Innovation in Educational and Cultural Research*, 4(3), 458–470. <https://doi.org/10.46843/jiecr.v4i3.719>.
- Mana, L. H. A., Fitriwati, M., Rahmi, W., Putri, I., Armet., Irianto, P. O., Indriyani, V., Ningsih, A. G., Rachman, A., Natsir, M., Feriyadi., Ismarika, R., Ramadhanti, D., Kher, D. F., Efendi, N., Asri, D., Bandaro, T. D., Zubaidah, Rezi, M., & Zaitun. (2023). *Mewujudkan transformasi ruang belajar literasi melalui pendidikan* (M. Zaim & V. Indriyani (eds.)). Jakarta: Raja Grafindo Persada.
- Mardiningrum, A., Nisa, Y., Sistyawan, I., & Wirantaka, A. (2024). Creative writing for EFL classroom: Student's perception on its benefits. *JOLLT Journal of Languages and Language Teaching*, 12(1), 546. <https://e-journal.undikma.ac.id/index.php/joltt>.
- Marlina, L., & Narius, D. (2020). Student's need on creative writing based – Children literature course for EFL college learners. *SALEE: Study of Applied Linguistics and English Education*, 1(02), 45–61. <https://doi.org/10.35961/salee.v1i02.130>.
- McAlpine, L., Weston, C., Beauchamp, J., Wiseman, C., & Beachamp, C. (1999). Building a metacognitive model of reflection. *Higher Education*, 37, 105–131. <https://doi.org/10.1023/A>.
- Merkebu, J., Veen, M., Hosseini, S., & Varpio, L. (2024). The case for metacognitive reflection: A theory integrative review with implications for medical education. *Advances in Health Sciences Education*, 0123456789. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10459-023-10310-2>.
- Miller, T., Tice, J., & Brabson, T. (2021). Metacognitive reflection the framework for facilitating reflective practice during the coast guard midgrade officer and civilian transition course. *Journal of Military Learning*, October 2021, 61–77.
- Millis, B. J. (2016). Using metacognition to promote learning. *Idea*, 63, 20. [https://www.ideaedu.org/Portals/0/Uploads/Documents/IDEA Papers/IDEA Papers/PaperIDEA\\_63.pdf](https://www.ideaedu.org/Portals/0/Uploads/Documents/IDEA Papers/IDEA Papers/PaperIDEA_63.pdf).
- Mohammed, F. A. E. (2019). Creative writing from theory to practice: Multi-tasks for developing Majmaah University student's creative writing competence. *Arab World English Journal*, 10(3), 233–249. <https://doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol10no3.16>.
- Osborn, L., Hoback, W., Parkison, A., & Golick, D. (2023). Science education through creative writing: A case study using entomology. *NACTA Journal*, 67, 33.

- Oxford, R. L. (1990). *Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know*. Boston: Heinle.
- Phelps, R., Ellis, A., & Hase, S. (2001). The role of metacognitive and reflective learning processes in developing capable computer users. *Meeting at the Crossroads: Proceedings of the 18th Annual Conference of the Australasian Society for Computers in Learning in Tertiary Education (ESCILITE)*, December, 481–490.
- Pintrich, P. R. (2017). The role of metacognitive knowledge in learning , teaching , and assessing. *Theory Into Practice*, 41(906706830), 219–225.
- Quigley, A., Mujs, D., & Stringer, E. (2018). *Metacognition and self-regulated learning: Guidance report*. Education Endowment Foundation.
- Ramadhanti, D. (2024). The role of reflective journaling in creative writing learning. *JOSSE: Journal of Social and Scientific Education*, 1(1), 16–22. <https://doi.org/10.58230/josse.v1i1.26>.
- Ramadhanti, D., Ghazali, A. S., Hasanah, M., Harsiati, T., & Yanda, D. P. (2020). The use of reflective journal as a tool for monitoring of metacognition growth in writing. *International Journal of Emerging Technologies in Learning (IJET)*, 15(11), 162–187. <https://doi.org/10.3991/ijet.v15i11.11939>.
- Ramadhanti, D., & Yanda, D. P. (2021). Student's metacognitive awareness and its impact on writing skill. *International Journal of Language Education*, 5(3), 193–206. <https://doi.org/10.26858/ijole.v5i3.18978>.
- Ramadhanti, D., & Yanda, D. P. (2023). Self-report to investigate metacognition growth in writing. *Journal of Applied Studies in Language*, 7(1), 75–85. <https://doi.org/10.31940/jasl.v7i1.75-85>.
- Sabur, F., Kona, M., & Suprpto, Y. (2023). Inquiry-based learning on student's critical thinking skills at Aviation Vocational College. *Journal of Innovation in Educational and Cultural Research*, 4(4), 580–586. <https://doi.org/10.46843/jiecr.v4i4.791>.
- Salasiah, S., Yunus, M., & Khairil, K. (2018). Teacher's voice on metacognitive strategy based instruction using audio visual aids for listening. *Journal of Education and Learning (EduLearn)*, 12(1), 69–73. <https://doi.org/10.11591/edulearn.v12i1.6712>.
- Shamdas, G. (2023). Self-regulated learning for high school students in biology lessons through the problem-based learning model. *Journal Of Innovation In Educational And Cultural Research*, 4(2), 346–353. <https://doi.org/10.46843/jiecr.v4i2.652>.
- Simarmata, H. A., & Sulistyaningrum, S. D. (n.d.). Exploring student's metacognitive strategies through self-reflection in writing assessments. *English Language & Literature International Conference*, 6(1), 530–541.
- Smith, J., & Ferguson. (2020). *Metacognition—a key to unlocking learning key insights and implications for teaching practice*. State of NSW. [www.education.nsw.gov.au/teaching-and-learning/](http://www.education.nsw.gov.au/teaching-and-learning/)
- Taczak, K., & Roberston, L. (2020). Metacognition and the reflective writing practitioner: An integrated knowledge approach. *Contemporary Perspectives on Cognition and Writing*, 211–229. <https://doi.org/10.37514/per-b.2017.0032.2.11>.
- Turky, M. A. (2018). Enhancing metacognition skills by using reflective e-portfolio. *SSRN Electronic Journal*. <https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.3058030>.
- Vedia, & Emzir. (2017). Creative writing learning in nature school 2017. *International Journal of Language Education and Culture Review*, 3(2).
- Wang, J. (n.d.). Reflective metacognitive teaching, productive learning: The right amount of confusion, discomfort, and success. *Journal of Transformative Learning*.
- Yusuf, A. M. (2007). *Metodologi penelitian: Dasar-dasar penyelidikan ilmiah*. Padang: UNP Press.
- Zimmerman, B. (2002). Becoming a self-regulated learner: An overview. *Theory into Practice*. 41(2), 64–70. [https://doi.org/10.1207/s15430421tip4102\\_2](https://doi.org/10.1207/s15430421tip4102_2).
- Zubaidi, Z., Suharto, R. P., & Maulidiyah, F. (2023). Improving student's creative writing skill through project based learning using Wattpad as learning media technology. *Briliant: Jurnal Riset dan Konseptual*, 8(1), 94. <https://doi.org/10.28926/briliant.v8i1.1169>.





**POLITEKNIK NEGERI BALI**

**JASL Editorial Team**

**The Center of Research and  
Community Service, P3M Building  
Politeknik Negeri Bali**

**Bukit Jimbaran, PO BOX 1064 Tuban, Badung Bali**

**Phone: +62361 701981**

**<https://ojs2.pnb.ac.id/index.php/JASL>**

**Online ISSN: 2615-4706; Print ISSN: 2598-4101**