



saga

JOURNAL OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING
AND APPLIED LINGUISTICS

Developing English Module for Turtle Conservation Guides
Dika Pranadwipa Koeswiryono, I Made Krisna Adi Chandra

Suprasegmental Feature of Indonesian Students' English Pronunciation and the Pedagogical Implication
Suciati, B Yuniar Diyanti

Investigating Preposition Usage Problems of English Language Education Study Program Students
Albertus Agung Sanjaya, Barli Bram

Teacher Talk in Scientific Approach in EFL Classroom: A Speech Acts Perspective
Rihza Galih Faturrochman, Achmad Anang Darmawan, Faizol Hadi

Designing Meaningful and Relevant Activities to Enhance Students' Motivation During COVID-19 Pandemic
Andreas Winardi

A Critical Discourse Analysis of Personal Pronouns in Greta Thunberg's Speech
Yuni Suryaningsih

The Proposed Elements of Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC) for Indonesian EFL English Teachers
Mas Muhammad Idris

Published by:
ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT
FACULTY OF EDUCATION AND HUMANITIES
UNIVERSITAS KRISTEN DUTA WACANA
YOGYAKARTA



SAGA	Vol. 2	No. 1	Pages 1-72	Yogyakarta, February 2021	P-ISSN 2715-7512	E-ISSN 2716-0246
------	--------	-------	---------------	------------------------------	---------------------	---------------------



saga

JOURNAL OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING
AND APPLIED LINGUISTICS

Vol. 2 No. 1 February 2021

saga, VOL 2 NO 1, 2021

saga (P-ISSN: 2715-7512; E-ISSN: 2716-0246)

SAGA: Journal of English Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics (P-ISSN: 2715-7512, E-ISSN: 2716-0246) is a scientific journal published by the English Language Education Department of Universitas Kristen Duta Wacana (UKDW), Yogyakarta, Indonesia.

It publishes articles twice a year, in February and August.

©All Right Reserved

No parts of this publication may be reproduced in any form without prior written permission from **saga**, to whom all requests to reproduce copyright materials should be redirected. **saga** grants authorisation for individuals to photocopy copyright materials for private use. This authorisation does not extend to any other kind of copying, in any form, and for any purpose other than private research use.

Open Access Information

saga provides immediate open access to its content on the principle that making research freely available to the public supports a greater global exchange of knowledge. The journal provides full contents at: <http://saga.ukdw.ac.id/index.php/SAGA>

Mailing Address

saga

Journal of English Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics

English Language Education Department

Faculty of Education and Humanities

Universitas Kristen Duta Wacana (UKDW)

Jl. dr. Wahidin 5-25, Yogyakarta 55224

e-mail: saga@staff.ukdw.ac.id

website: <http://saga.ukdw.ac.id/index.php/SAGA>



saga, VOL 2 NO 1, 2021

EDITOR IN CHIEF

Adaninggar Septi Subekti, M.Sc.

EDITORS

Made Hery Santosa, Ph.D. (Universitas Pendidikan Ganesha, Indonesia)

Fransisca Maria Ivone, Ph.D. (Universitas Negeri Malang, Indonesia)

Dr. Fransisca Endang Lestariningsih (UKDW, Indonesia)

Ignatius Tri Endarto, M.A. (UKDW, Indonesia)

Paulus Widiatmoko, M.A. (UKDW, Indonesia)

Andreas Winardi, M.A. (UKDW, Indonesia)

Lemmuela Alvita Kurniawati, M.Hum. (UKDW, Indonesia)

Arida Susyetina, S.S., M.A. (UKDW, Indonesia)

EXTERNAL REVIEWERS

Prof. Suwarsih Madya, Ph.D. (Universitas Negeri Yogyakarta, Indonesia)

Prof. Dr. Joko Nurkamto (Universitas Sebelas Maret, Indonesia)

Dr. Willy A. Renandya (Nanyang Technological University, Singapore)

Lusia Marliana Nurani, Ph.D. (Bandung Institute of Technology, Indonesia)

Joseph Ernest Mambu, Ph.D. (Satya Wacana Christian University, Indonesia)

Peter Suwarno, Ph.D. (Arizona State University, USA)

Dr. Umar Fauzan (IAIN Samarinda, Indonesia)

Usep Syaripudin, Ph.D. (Universitas Swadaya Gunung Jati, Indonesia)

Narin Loa, M.TESOL (Arizona State University, USA)

Ali Garib, M.A. (Lebanese American University, Lebanon)

COVER DESIGN and LAYOUT

Sumantyo Kartika Nugroho

SECRETARY and DISTRIBUTION

Dini Susanti Tri Yanuartin

TECHNICAL SUPPORT

Antonius Rachmat C., S.Kom., M.Cs.



CONTENTS

Developing English Module for Turtle Conservation Guides Dika Pranadwipa Koeswiryono, I Made Krisna Adi Chandra	1-8
Suprasegmental Feature of Indonesian Students' English Pronunciation and the Pedagogical Implication Suciati, B Yuniar Diyanti	9-18
Investigating Preposition Usages Problems of English Language Education Study Program Students Albertus Agung Sanjaya, Barli Bram	19-34
Teacher Talk in Scientific Approach in EFL Classroom: A Speech Acts Perspective Rihza Galih Faturrochman, Achmad Anang Darmawan, Faishol Hadi	35-46
Designing Meaningful and Relevant Activities to Enhance Students' Motivation During COVID-19 Pandemic Andreas Winardi	47-54
A Critical Discourse Analysis of Personal Pronouns in Greta Thunberg's Speech Yuli Suryaningsih	55-64
The Proposed Elements of Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC) for Indonesia EFL English Teachers Mas Muhammad Idris	65-72



DEVELOPING ENGLISH MODULE FOR TURTLE CONSERVATION GUIDES

Dika Pranadwipa Koeswiryo^{1*}, I Made Krisna Adi Chandra²

^{1,2}*Institut Pariwisata dan Bisnis Internasional, Bali, Indonesia*

¹dika.pranadwipa@stpbi.ac.id*

Received: 7 October 2020

Accepted: 10 December 2020

Abstract

Most of the six species of sea turtles in Indonesian waters have seen a decline, mainly due to human exploitation. One of the efforts to prevent the extinction of this pre-historic reptiles is the establishment of conservation centers. In Bali, one of the conservation centers actively involved in the efforts to conserve turtles is the Turtle Conservation and Education Center (TCEC). As more foreign tourists who are aware of turtle conservation come to this place, guides at TCEC are expected to able to provide sufficient explanation about turtles and their environment in English. They should provide a thorough insight of the turtle's anatomy, behavior, and reproductive cycle. This study aimed at developing English module for turtle conservation guides at TCEC. In developing the module, a framework of material development model was adopted. The framework consists of some stages namely, needs analysis, formulation of goals and objectives, development of English learning materials, and evaluation. The results of this study provide some implication and contributions for English language teaching.

Keywords: English module, guides, TCEC, turtle conservation

INTRODUCTION

Sea turtle conservation center

Marine ecosystems are among the most productive on the planet, yet at the same time they are the most threatened (Hunt & Vargas, 2018). In Indonesian waters, there are six species of sea turtles, most of which are experiencing a decline, mainly due to human. Massive commercial exploitation and domestic market occurred in the last few decades seem to significantly pose threat to this reptile. A great decrease of the number of the population at various main nesting sites is one of the indicators. The other causes of population decline include damage of the turtles' habitats and feeding areas, turtle mortality due to fishing activities, poor management of conservation techniques, as well as climate change and disease. The eggs and meat are consumed as meals, whereas the shell is believed to possess medicinal properties, in addition to being crafted into house decoration. Furthermore, some religious rituals requiring turtle meat contribute to this decline. This conditions cause all turtle species in Indonesia to be threatened

with extinction that they are protected by Indonesian government (Adnyana, 2016; Firliansyah et al., 2017).

One of the efforts to prevent the extinction of this prehistoric reptiles is the establishment of conservation centers. The centres serve as an option to promote a unique and authentic environment, as well as to provide an alternative tourist attraction. The centres offer environmental development concept, based on maintenance and conservation (Rismang et al., 2018). Besides protecting the turtles, a conservation centre develops the surrounding community. Turtle Conservation and Education Center (TCEC) on Serangan Island, Denpasar Bali, one of the conservation centers, is actively involved in conserving the endangered reptiles, and incorporating the local community.

TCEC is a preservation site for various types of protected sea turtles. This centre cooperates with WWF, Natural Resources Conservation Agency, Hindu Dharma Council of Indonesia, and Udayana University (Firliansyah et al., 2017). Sea turtle eggs are buried and hatched in this preservation site. The hatchlings, or what are often referred to as tukik, are nurtured to a certain phase until they are considered ready to be released into the open sea. Tourists come to TCEC to see eggs, baby turtles, and adult turtles. Further, they gain knowledge about the threats faced by various types of turtles due to the severely damaged ecosystems. Visitors can also contribute to the releasing of baby turtles into the sea by giving donation.

English for guides at sea turtle conservation

Foreign visitors, who are mostly westerners, visit the centre with curiosity about the conservation effort and ask a wide range of questions. Guides at the turtle conservation should be able to offer satisfying explanation about various species of the sea turtles and their environment. They should provide an overview about the turtle's anatomy, behavior, and reproductive cycle. They should also be able to explain the obstacles that impede the conservation of these turtles and steps necessary to overcome those problems. These skills would have the maximum impact if the guides are capable of fluently communicating in English.

English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is one of the most important branches of teaching English today. Teaching General English sometimes does not adequately address the needs of students of English language skills in special situations, both academically and professionally. This special need requires certain steps or procedures in the development of teaching materials that suitable teaching materials can be properly designed. The role and task of teachers in the development of ESP materials are in some ways different from those in the development of general English materials. Teachers are required to do needs analysis to determine the language needs of the students. Moreover, they have to establish a syllabus aimed at optimizing learning. In addition, ESP teachers need to design specific vocabulary and phrases needed by students in their workplace. ESP teachers are also expected to have an overview of the fields they teach (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Vicic, 2011)

While General English covers aspects of the target language in general, ESP is a more specific category of the English Language Teaching (ELT) branch. Compared to teaching general English, which is aimed to pass an exam, ESP prepares English learners to perform certain roles, both academically and professionally (Richards, 2001). However, according to Hutchinson and Waters (1987) ESP is not teaching various English fields, instead ESP focuses on language components that are specific to certain fields of English. ESP is also not a separate type of English language instruction from general English instruction. They argue that ESP is different from teaching general English in terms of students' need for a more specific English material.

Tomlinson (1998) suggests a material development model which is presented in Figure 1.

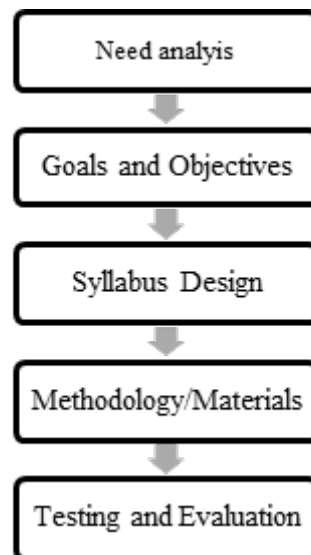


Figure 1. Material Development Model (Tomlinson (1998))

Figure 1 shows the construction of teaching material development consisting of learner needs analysis, goals and objectives of the course, syllabus, material development, and evaluation.

1. Need analysis

Nunan (in Gözüyeşil, 2014) criticized the development of a curriculum that generalizes learning needs without paying attention to the differences in student learning needs. In relation to this, ESP caters the specific needs of certain learners, both academically and professionally. Instead of developing English lessons based on language analysis, ESP is therefore initiated through an analysis of the learner needs (Richards, 2001). According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), it is first necessary to examine the necessity that refers to what the learners need to know in order to be able to work well in the target situation. The second thing is to discover learner lacks. This is necessary to determine what skills are being achieved that the learner does not currently have. Sometimes the learner's needs and lacks do not go in line with what they expect the learning to be. In the needs assessment phase, the researcher should assess learner wants, this phase assesses what the learners want to learn and how they expect the teaching instruction is designed. Dudley-Evan and John (1998) proposed eight points in the needs assessment.

- a. Information about the learners in relation to their profession
- b. Personal information about the learners
- c. English proficiency level of the learners
- d. The lack of the learners in mastering English
- e. Information about their learning needs
- f. An understanding of how English will be used in their target situation
- g. What learners want from this class
- h. Information about the environment in which the course takes place

2. Goals and objectives

Richards (2001) states that goals, which are also referred to aims, are general development that resembles learners' progress during their learning process. Goals are a more specific and concrete description of the learning process.

3. Syllabus design

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) states that a curriculum is a document that specifies what the learners will, or at least should learn at the end of the class. The definition of the curriculum is based on the fact that what is to be studied will go through several different phases before

reaching its goal. A curriculum describes the main elements of language teaching and forms the basis for the content and focus of the teaching (Richards, 2001).

4. Material

The next step is to construct the learning design into learning material. The material will assist learners and teachers in carrying out learning activities so that they can achieve the expected end result (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987). Further, what teachers feel and think about the learning process should also be reflected in the material. A teaching material should have an impact, appeal to learners, boost self-confidence, accommodate different abilities of the learner and enable feedback from learners (Tomlinson, 1998).

5. Evaluation

According to Dudley-Evan and John (2009) the purpose of the evaluation phase is to obtain constructive feedback on learning and to measure competence achievement. According to Richards (2001), evaluation on the material design, learning process, teaching skills and the motivation of the learners are needed to assess the success of the program.

Issues of turtle protection and conservation have been investigated in a number of studies. Ario et al., (2016) examined conservation techniques and the percentage of successful hatching of turtles at TCEC Bali. The results show that the breeding grounds for turtles are situated in strategic location, making the temperature and humidity unstable. However, the researcher also found out the increasing awareness of the local community about the importance of turtle conservation. A study conducted by Firliansyah et al. (2017) found out that some turtle sanctuaries are more focused to tourism than to conservation. He advised the Natural Resources Conservation Agency to have a better turtle management process. In a study, Hunt & Vargas (2018) raised a question on how turtle conservation management can coordinate with local community to extend the “extinction horizon for endangered sea turtle species”. The research ended up with suggestion about correlation between tourism and conservation.

In regard to the development and teaching ESP, several studies have been carried out. Irmayanti (2012) conducted a study on the development of English teaching for small industries in Kebumen. Her study investigated the challenges faced by the craftsmen in communicating with foreign prospective buyers and designed a module to help them. Fatmasari (2013) developed English material for travel agencies that went through steps of doing need analysis, writing the course grid, as well as developing and revising the material. Saputri (2014) investigated the need for tour guides on the Merapi Lava Tour to use English to serve tourists. She designed English module for tour guides. Further, the development of English teaching materials in the tourism sector was researched by Prachanant (2012). This study highlighted the importance of needs analysis in the development of English module.

Previously mentioned studies focused on the development of English material in various fields. However, only a few studies discussed the development of English module for sea turtle conservation guides. Therefore, this study aims at developing English module for turtle conservation guides to improve the guides' English skills.

The turtle conservation is expected to contribute for both the endangered sea reptiles and to the local community. In the other words, the turtle conservation can continue to survive if income from tourists visit is economically promising. One of the efforts to maintain the number of tourists at TCEC is to increase the English skills of the guides.

METHODS

This study employed research and development method to create models and principles that guide the design, development, and evaluation process of learning (Jonassen, 2004). This re-

search was carried out at the TCEC, a conservation center located in Serangan Island, Denpasar, Bali. TCEC has a main mission to combat the illegal turtle trade and attempts to offer a fair alternative. TCEC, which is supported by WWF, the Governor of Bali, Denpasar Government, Provincial Natural Resources Conservation Agency, and local communities, helps injured turtles, collects turtle eggs from the beach, hatches the eggs, and releases the young into the sea. The data were collected through observation and interviews. During the observation, the researchers captured the activities of the tourists and the guidance procedures carried out by the turtle conservation guides. The researchers also interviewed guides to gather the data. The data obtained from interviews, observations, and questionnaires were then qualitatively analyzed by drawing various processes such as data review, data reduction, data presentation and conclusion. The design and development of an English training model for turtle protection guides are described descriptively. The results of the design and development of an English training model were discussed in a focus group discussion (FGD) where experts were asked to give suggestion on the content of the modul.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Needs analysis

Derived from triangulation of the questionnaires, observations, and interviews, this analysis provides insight about the language needs of the turtle conservation guides. Based on Hutchinson and Waters (1991), needs analysis involves three aspects, namely necessities, lacks and wants. These three aspects are going to be explained further in the following discussion.

Necessities

Interviews and observation have revealed that guides in turtle conservation need to master turtle anatomy-related English vocabulary. They need this vocabulary to explain the life cycle of turtles and the threats they face from humans. The data gathered from observations revealed that guides should also be able to explain the types of turtles found in Indonesian waters. Moreover, the guides should be able to explain the process starting from the process of laying the eggs until the newborns hatch. Lastly, they should know how to persuade tourists to participate in conserving the turtles.

Lacks

This refers to the gap between the needs of the students and their current proficiency. The results of the interviews revealed that students had difficulty constructing sentences with proper English grammar. This prevents them from explaining specific topics, such as body anatomy and sea turtles handling, to foreign visitors.

Wants

This aspect refers to learner's perception of what is needed in the learning. Interview results indicated that the guides expected to have conversation practice with various topics related to sea turtle conservation to help them explain a wide range of information to the guests verbally.

Developing English module for guides at turtle conservation

Based on the results of needs analysis, the researchers developed the materials accommodate the guides' needs, lacks and wants. The materials are compiled into a module called "English Module for Turtle Conservation Guides" which is intended for guides at the Turtle Conservation and Education Center, on Serangan Island, Denpasar. In addition to helping the guides explain how turtle conservation works, this module also includes English material on turtle anatomy, its life cycle, and threats to its population. This module aims not only to improve En-

glish language skills, but also to raise awareness of the importance of marine conservation as one of tourist attraction.

As the title suggests, this module provides lessons with simple but applicable material to help guides provide guide services to English speaking tourists. This module is designed for learners at beginner level, although more advanced users can also learn from its content. The expressions and vocabulary required for basic conversation in guiding procedures are also covered in this module. Although all four aspects of the language are covered in each unit, speaking is the aspect mostly emphasized, as guiding work requires them to use English orally.

The guiding process is expected to last for 2 hours, starting from the visitor arrival gate and ending at the exit. Visitors were initially directed to a large panel of map that displays the six protected turtle species: green turtle, loggerhead turtle, hawksbill turtle, flatback turtle, leather back turtle, and olive ridley turtle. This step is important, as most visitors often has little knowledge when it comes to distinguishing one turtle species from another. They are then guided to the hatchery to see a 3x3 meters box with sand in which turtle eggs, taken from various beach location are buried. At this site they get an explanation about the period from the incubation until the hatchlings that takes around 60 days. The next is the steps where the tourist are shown the baby turtles tank, to observe how the turtles are taken care of. Next stop is a pool for adult turtles, also known as the exhibition pool, where tourists are given explanation about the threat of extinction of the turtle, as well as the measures to prevent it. Visitors can see some turtles with damaged fins as a result of sea irresponsible fishing activities. Below is the overview of the English Module for Turtle Conservation Guides, which is designed for six meetings, each lasting 90 minutes.

Unit I

“Welcome to the Turtle Conservation and Education Center” is the title of the first unit. It contains a telephone conversation as a simulation of a reservation. The unit also presents the lesson of how the guides can introduce himself, as well as the lesson of some greeting expressions. The grammar section focuses on prepositions, to help the guides explain what site of the centre located in which position. In addition, since the visitors come from different countries, the guides should be able to pronounce and spell their names. The spelling of names is therefore the material presented in the next section

Unit II

The title of this unit is “Your Marine Friends”. It introduces the six endangered turtle species, as for most tourist, difference between turtles species is often hard to tell. The anatomy of the turtle body is also discussed, to help the guides identify and explain the kinds of turtles based on their body morphology. The grammar included in this unit is comparison, as a reference for the guides to compare one turtle to the other. In addition, this unit also describes the life cycle of turtles that elaborate each stage of a turtle life, from hatchling to, juvenile, to adult, and to the nesting stage. The next section teaches how to ask questions using what, where, why, who, when and how.

Unit III

The last unit, “Save Our Souls”, focuses on conservation efforts to prevent turtles from extinction. The first part introduces the threats facing the turtles, such as sea debris, fishing activities, and light pollution. This comes in the form of a reading titled “Endangered Turtles”. This unit also includes knowledge of quantifier, such as much, many, few and little. Some guides still need help with number. The module therefore presents a part about ordinal and cardinal number. The last section displays a reading exercise that describes the steps to save turtles.

In addition to the interview with the guides and observation on the conservation centre, construction of the module was also based on several literatures referencing. One valuable reference was the handbook of turtle conservation management authored by Dermawan et al., (2009). The other were books of Gerosa & Aureggi, (2001) and U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service (2008). Those books contributed to the materials in the module, such as the six kinds of turtle, the turtle's life cycle, the threat to their population and the measure to prevent extinction.

From what those three units have displayed, we can see how the module attempted to accommodate the professional needs of the guides at turtle conservation. English modules created for other workfields have also shown similar effort. For example, "English for Travel Agent", a module constructed by Munir (2014), covers greeting and leave taking, offering helps and giving suggestion. The module of English for guides of turtle conservation also to some extent shows similarity to the work of Fatmasari (2013), whose module focus on helping guides of temple tour. Reader can obviously see the differences in content, as one module brings up issues of sea reptile conservation, whereas the other one discuss cultural ancient heritage. English module aimed for workers at health sector, as created by Wahyudi (2016), does also accommodate the learners' professional needs, such as language related to hospital, nursing care and medical treatment.

CONCLUSION

This is a research and development that aims to build a module for guides of turtle conservation. The needs analysis explored the necessities, lacks and wants of the guides in learning English. It was found that what the guides explain to the guests was the knowledge of the turtle species, the life cycle, threats to life, and efforts to maintain the population. The needs analysis also reveals that turtle conservation guides wanted a lot of conversational practice, as the job requires them to speak directly to guests. In terms of the lacks, the research conveyed that the guides found difficulties when they need to arrange sentence with proper structure and vocabularies.

Based on interviews data, combined with data obtained from observations in the field, the English module was compiled. To meet the needs of the guides, the module covers the explanation of different turtle species, their life cycle, extinction threats and the conservation efforts. The next step was to consult an expert about the content of the modul. This last phase was aimed at determining the feasibility and effectiveness of the teaching material, and as a base for module revision. Guides can use this module to increase their professionalism in providing screening services. Students or teachers, especially those focusing on language teaching, can refer to this module to help them learn or teach English. Future researchers can refer to this study to develop material in English for other specific purposes. It is hoped that the module can give contribution in preserving the sea turtle, while at the same time giving help in improving the language skill of local people.

REFERENCES

- Adnyana, W. (2016). Bio-ekologi penyu laut di Indonesia. *Proceeding Seminar Nasional Dan Workshop Sea Turtle Conservation*, 1–21.
- Ario, R., Wibowo, E., Pratikto, I., & Fajar, S. (2016). Pelestarian habitat penyu dari Ancaman kepunahan di Turtle Conservation And Education Center (TCEC), Bali. *Jurnal Kelautan Tropis*, 19(1), 60. <https://doi.org/10.14710/jkt.v19i1.602>
- Dermawan, A., Nuitja, N. S., Soedharma, D., Halim, M. H., Kusri, M. D., Lubis, S. B., Alhanif, R., Khazali, Murdiah, M., Wahjuhardini, P. L., Setiabudiningsih, & Mashar, A. (2009). Pedoman teknis: Pengelolaan konservasi penyu. *Direktorat Konservasi dan Taman Nasional Laut*, 53(9), 1689–1699. <https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781107415324.004>

- Dudley-Evans, T., & St John, M. J. (2009). *Developments in ESP: A multi-disciplinary approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Fatmasari, Reni. (2013). *Designing English learning modules for the hidden temples tour guides in Viavia travel agents*. (Bachelor's thesis). Universitas Negeri Yogyakarta, Yogyakarta, Indonesia.
- Firliansyah, E., Kusriani, M. D., & Sunkar, A. (2017). Pemanfaatan dan efektivitas kegiatan penangkaran penyu di Bali bagi konservasi penyu. *Journal of Tropical Biodiversity and Biotechnology*, 2(1), 21. <https://doi.org/10.22146/jtbb.25690>
- Gerosa, G., & Aureggi, M. (2001). *Sea turtle handling guidebook for fishermen—teaching book*. UNEP/MAP RAC/SPA, Tunis, Tunisia.
- Gözüyeşil, E. (2014). An analysis of engineering students' English language needs. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 116, 4182–4186. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.01.913>
- Hunt, C. A., & Vargas, E. (2018). Turtles, ticos, and tourists: Protected areas and marine turtle conservation in Costa Rica. *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration*, 36(3), 101–114. <https://doi.org/10.18666/jpra-2018-v36-i3-8820>
- Hutchinson, T and Waters, A. (1987). *English for Specific Purposes: A learner-centered approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- Irmayanti, Dian. (2012). *Developing English speaking learning materials for the personnel of small-scale craft industries and department of industry, trade, and cooperatives in Kebumen district*. (Bachelor's Thesis). Universitas Negeri Yogyakarta, Yogyakarta, Indonesia
- Jonasenn, David H (ed). 2004. *Handbook of research on educational communication*. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates
- Munir, S. (2014). Pengembangan materi ajar bahasa Inggris untuk agen travel (sebuah kajian English for occupational purposes). *Ragam*, 14(3), 260–274.
- Prachanant, N. (2012). Needs analysis on English language use in tourism industry. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 66, 117–125. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2012.11.253>
- Richards, J., C. (2001). *Curriculum development in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Rismang, R., Rauf, A., & Rustam, R. (2018). Kajian pengembangan kawasan konservasi penyu sebagai kawasan ekowisata di dusun Tulang Desa Barugaiya kabupaten kepulauan Selayar. *Jurnal Pendidikan Teknologi Pertanian*, 1(29). <https://doi.org/10.26858/jptp.v1i0.6230>
- Saputri, Tiara Sandi Winar. (2014). *Developing learning English module for mount Merapi lava tour guides in desa wisata Kembang Arum Donokerto Turi Sleman*. (Bachelor's thesis). Universitas Negeri Yogyakarta, Yogyakarta, Indonesia.
- Tomlinson, Brian (ed). (2009). *Materials development and language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- U.S. fish and wildlife service. (2008). *Alabama sea turtle conservation manual*. Alabama: Department of the Interior.
- Vicic, P. (2011). Preparing materials for ESP teaching. *Inter Alia*, 2, 107–120.
- Wahyudi. (2016). *Developing English learning materials based on content-based approach for nursing students of STIKES Payung Negeri Pekanbaru*. Proceedings of ISELT FBS Universitas Negeri Padang. Retrieved from <http://ejournal.unp.ac.id/index.php/selt/article/view/7004/0>

SUPRASEGMENTAL FEATURES OF INDONESIAN STUDENTS' ENGLISH PRONUNCIATION AND THE PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATION

Suciati¹, B Yuniar Diyanti^{2*}

^{1,2}*Universitas Negeri Yogyakarta*

²*yuniar_diyanti@uny.ac.id**

Received: 13 August 2020

Accepted: 20 November 2020

Abstract

This study aims at describing learners' features of pronunciation in terms of the suprasegmental aspects found in their speech. Students were asked to read aloud a text entitled *The Gorilla Joke* (British Council, 2006). Students' oral narrations were then analysed in terms of their intonation pattern and stress assignment at the sentence level. A metrical analysis was also used to show how students produced their speech rhythm. The result of the analysis shows that given the same text to read, students may produce various combinations of intonation patterns. Students also misplaced stress within the syllables or assigned no stress at all. Based on the metrical phonology analysis, learners did not assign foot timely based on the timing units in connected speeches. The speech production was more like a broken speech. Students also neglected the morphophonemics rules in which they did not produce the appropriate allomorphs [t], [d], and [id] in the past participle words. These features bring about some pedagogical implication.

Keywords: students' pronunciation features, suprasegmental aspects

INTRODUCTION

An effective spoken discourse, in a sense that the speaker is understood by the listener, is characterized by at least two aspects; fluency (naturally flowing language) and accuracy (clear grammar and intelligible pronunciation including appropriate stress placement, rhythm, and intonation employment) (Brown, 2001; Luoma, 2004; Nunan, 2015). Further, Nunan (2015) points out that it's insufficient for a learner to be able to articulate sounds, to have ample vocabularies, and to master grammar to communicate well in a language. Learners need the so-called communicative competence to communicate effectively in the target language. Bohlke in Nunan (2019) includes phonological skills as one of the categories of communicative competence besides the speech function, interactional skills, and extended discourse skills. As the focus of this article is to discuss students' pronunciation features, only phonological skills are being discussed further. Having phonological skills means that learners are able to employ the phonemes of the language they learn in a spoken utterance with appropriate stress and intonation (Goh in Nunan, 2015).

Like grammar and vocabulary, pronunciation in the context of teaching English as a foreign language (EFL) is taught explicitly. In the context of Indonesian English language teaching (ELT) pronunciation is taught explicitly to students, particularly in the tertiary level in which learners learn English as their major. Bahasa Indonesia, being a phonetic language, may have a simpler pronunciation as what is spelled exactly corresponds to how it is pronounced. In English however, the 26 alphabets are represented in 44 sounds (Kelly, 2000). There is no one-to-one relationship between spelling and pronunciation. An Indonesian learner may make several pronunciation mistakes at the segmental level for pronouncing /u/ as it will remain [u] in initial, middle, or final position in Bahasa Indonesia. In English the alphabet *u* is an [u] in *put* [put], an [a] in *cut* [kat] or a [ju] in *cute* [kjut]. Some phonemes are also absent in Bahasa Indonesia which may make further confusion among students. The phonemes /ð/, /θ/, and /ʒ/ are naturally non-existent in Bahasa Indonesia, thus pronouncing words such as *them* /ðem/, *think* /θɪŋk/, and *vision* /vɪʒn/ may be challenging to Indonesian learners.

In the suprasegmental aspects of English pronunciation, such as stress, rhythm, intonation, and linking, Indonesians may have difficulties applying stress in pronouncing the words. All words are given equal emphasis; no syllable is more prominent than other syllables in Indonesian words. Students tend to ‘ignore’ the stress or misplace it (Abdullah & Lulita, 2016). Some studies have suggested that suprasegmental features are given more prominent position in teaching, discussing, and researching pronunciation. Studies found that suprasegmental features, not individual phonemes, carry the whole information in the utterance (Hussain & Sajid, 2015). Thus, stress and stress-timed quality of English are two of the suprasegmental features that need consideration. This article focuses on discussing the suprasegmental features of English learners’ pronunciation and what implication these descriptions may bring to ELT.

Stress, Connected Speech, and Rhythm

Stress applies to both word and sentence levels. As stated by Collins and Mees (2003), a stressed syllable has four indicators: intensity (breath effort and muscular energy used when producing stressed syllables compared to unstressed ones), pitch variation (in which higher pitch is usually associated to stronger stress), vowel quality (syllables containing peripheral vowels e.g. /I/ and /ʊ/ are generally stressed, as well as the syllables with central vowels especially the schwa /ə/), and vowel duration (vowels are pronounced longer in stressed than in unstressed syllables). When pronounced in isolation, all English words, to some extent, carry potential stress assignment, monosyllabic or polysyllabic. Monosyllabic words carry one stress assignment while the polysyllabic words may carry primary stress (the most prominent stressed syllable) and the other one is the secondary stress.

At the sentence level, some potential stresses are lost in connected speech, more emphasis is given to content words (nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs) than to function words (articles, auxiliary verbs, linking verbs, preposition, pronouns, conjunctions) (Collins & Mees, 2003). The function words are not normally assigned any stresses in connected speech, while the content words are. The function words are present in their weak forms in a connected speech. Consider the following examples:

- (1) [ai bo:t ə buk]
- (2) [ai wont tə gəu]

The articles *a* and the preposition *to* are not given stress that they take the form of their weak forms; [ə] for *a* and [tə / tu] for *to*.

Connected speech is characterized by the existing of strong and weak forms of words. The content words usually come in the strong forms while the function words are usually given their weak forms in utterances. Function words like pronouns *his* /hɪz/ and *her* /hə(r)/ may become /ɪz/ in utterance *it's his book* [ɪtsɪz bʊk] and /ə(r)/ in utterance *give her time* [gɪvə(r) taim]. An-

other example is the linking verb *can* /kæn/ that becomes [kən] in the utterance *George can dance well* [dʒɔːdʒ kən dɑːns wɛl] (Indriani, 2005). The function words may be given their strong forms when the information in the utterance requires it. Consider the excerpt from the famous animation movie by DreamWorks, *Kungfu Panda* (2008) below. This excerpt is taken from the scene of the appointment of the Dragon master in Jade Palace. Shifu is announcing each warrior ability.

- (3) Shifu : And finally.... Master Tigress! And believe me citizens, you **have** [hæv] **not** seen anything!
 Po : I know!
 (Kungfu Panda, 2008)

Normally have, as an auxiliary verb and not as a full verb, is given one of its weak forms, either [əv] like in *the boys have gone home* [ðə boiz əv gɒn həʊm] or [v] as in *I've read it* [aɪ v red ɪt]. In sample (3) above, however, instead of merely saying *haven't* which would be too flat for an announcement, Shifu is trying to attract audience's attention on Master Tigress' Kungfu skills by putting emphasis on the word have. The main message is that this ability is unlike anything the audience have ever seen before.

It is currently a debatable subject in the trend of English as Lingua Franca when discussing whether or not students need to be taught connected speech as connected speech is found in native speakers' talk and it marks fluency in English. The pros suggest that students are given the experience to practice the strong and weak forms in pronunciation practices, not only to become natural speakers but also to be able to distinguish the phonemes in speeches they listen to (Kelly, 2000; Steele, nd).

Sentence stress forms the rhythm in English therefore English is sometimes referred to as a stress-timed language (Kelly, 2000; Ladefoged & Johnson, 2011). Being a stress-timed language, English stresses occur at regular intervals in connected speech and the duration of utterances is dependent more on the number of stresses than the number of syllables, (Kelly, 2000: 70). This stress-timing is the dominant factor for the creation of rhythm in English, due to the combination of stressed and unstressed syllables and is a key factor in fluency. When all words in the utterance are given equal stress, the talk will sound unnatural and listeners will have difficulty in discriminating the focus of the message and meaning conveyed in the talk (Darn, nd).

Intonation

Ching (2006) defines intonation as the variation in volume and pitch in a whole sentence. She also adds that intonation is important for questioning, agreeing, disagreeing, confirming sentences as well as expressing emotions and feelings. The normal pattern of intonation is the rise/fall intonation. This is when the pitch would slowly go up and then go right down, indicating the speaker has finished his/her statement. The second intonation is the fall/rise intonation. The fall/rise intonation indicates surprise, disagreement, or request of a response/confirmation from listener. The third is the *flat* intonation. This intonation, in Ching's opinion, indicates that the speaker probably does not want to speak.

METHODS

This study was a descriptive qualitative study aiming at describing students' suprasegmental features of English pronunciation. The participants were twenty students of semester one of the English Education Department who took the Pronunciation Skills class. They were given a task to read aloud a short passage entitled *The Gorilla Joke* taken from the audio bank of short texts (British Council, 2006).

Before recording their own narration of the text, the students first listened to the audio text to get used to the sound and then were given the written text. The recording process was conducted only after the students felt comfortable with their pronunciation; therefore, they were given time to practice their pronunciation of the text several times before they recorded their narration. The recording process was also conducted without the lecturer's presence to lower students' anxiety. All and all, students were conditioned in a supportive environment that the students' narration should not be affected by any psychological interferences.

The data were then analyzed with Wolcott's data analysis procedures, namely description, analysis and interpretation. The results of the analysis were presented in figures to describe stress-timing adapted from Collins and Mees (2003) and a metrical foot diagram from Giegerich (1992).

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Intonation

Some students did not produce the appropriate intonation patterns in their oral production. Students did not vary their intonation. They tended to have flat intonation when reading the text. The opening line '*A gorilla went into a bar and ordered a whisky*' should be pronounced with the following intonation pattern:

- (4) $\Gamma \cdot - \cdot \cdot \cdot \Gamma \cdot - - \cdot - \Gamma \cdot \cdot$
 A gorilla went into a bar and ordered a whisky.

Note:

A dot (•) = denotes an unstressed syllable; a \dashv -line (—) denotes a stressed syllable, with a thicker line shows the more prominent syllable, the symbol (Γ) shows the fall-rise intonation, and the symbol (\dashv) characterizes the rise/fall intonation.

(adapted from Collins and Mees, 2003)

Most students (17 students) produced the following intonation pattern in their narration:

- (5) $\cdot - - \dashv - - \cdot \dashv \cdot - - \cdot - \dashv$
 A gorilla went into a bar and ordered a whisky.

The syllables [rɪlə], from [gə'rɪlə], are given a falling intonation and the ending phone [ə] was slightly lengthened, which was probably influenced by their native language, Bahasa Indonesia, in which it is common to start a story with a falling intonation at the initial phrase of the story by saying *suatu hari* [swatʊ hɑrɪ] or *pada suatu hari* [pɑdɑ swatʊ hɑrɪ] and; i.e. in the syllable [rɪ] of [hɑrɪ] and lengthening the ending sound to express a pause before continuing the story; [hɑrɪ:].

- (6) $\cdot \cdot \cdot \cdot - \dashv$
 Pada suatu hari,
 [pɑdɑ swatʊ hɑrɪ:]

All the other words like *went* and *ordered* (in 2) are given equal stress as well as the function word *into* although normally in English speech intonation some words are more prominent than the others and the function words (*into*) are not normally stressed. However, the falling intonation at the end of the line shows that these students were aware of the function of a falling intonation that is to show a completeness of an utterance, that one sentence is complete. Some other students have different kinds of intonation patterns, like:

- (7) • - - ɿ — - - • Γ • Γ — • — ɿ
A gorilla went into a bar and ordered a whisky.
- (8) • - - - — - - • — • — Γ • — ɿ
A gorilla went into a bar and ordered a whisky.
- (9) • - - - - • • • — - — - • — -
A gorilla went into a bar and ordered a whisky.

At (7) and (8) students were clearly aware of the signal of completion by producing the falling intonation at the end of the speech, but at (9) students (only two students) were clearly unaware of such a rule. At (8) and (9) students had flat intonation and tended to read the words one by one, not in a continuous flow of speech; moreover students were prone to put stresses on any occurring syllables.

Stress Assignment

In the excerpt below given the same task (4) above, students seemed to ignore the rule of stress assignment in the different word group. Naturally the assigned text (4) *A gorilla went into a bar and ordered a whisky*, is represented phonemically as:

- (10) / ə gə'rilə went intu ə ba: ænd 'o:də(r)d ə 'wiskI /,

and represented phonetically as:

- (11) [ə .gə'rilə 'wentintu ə'ba: əno:də(r)də 'wiskI].

The phonemic representation at (10) puts the words in the text as single words; therefore when it is read then it will sound like we are actually reading ten single words not connected to one another. The phonetic representation in (11), however, shows how the sentence should be read fluently. Here are students' profiles of stress assignment:

- (12) [ə gərilə wen intu ə bar æn ordə(r)d ə wiskI]
 (13) [ə gə'rilə went intu ə 'ba: æn 'o:də(r)d ə 'wiskI]
 (14) [ə gərilə went intu ə ba:r æn or'də(r)d ə wiskI]
 (15) [ə gə'rilə wenintu ə ba: əno:də(r)d ə 'wiskI]

The speech production of (12) shows that the students did not assign any stress at any syllables at all. Students read the words one by one but did not produce the connected speech which characterizes the fluent oral narration. In (13), students tried to put the right stress assignment at [gə'rilə], ['o:də(r)d], and ['wiskI] although still did not produce any connected speech. In (14), students clearly made a mistake by assigning the stress at the second syllable of the word *ordered*, [or'də(r)d]. In (15), however, there clearly is an effort to produce English connected speech which assign the right stress placement in [gə'rilə] and ['wiskI]. Students narrated the phrases *went into* as [wenintu] and *and ordered* as [əno:də(r)d] which also show that there is an effort to produce a connected speech closer to being fluent although students still miss [t] in *went into* [wentintu] and put [æ] instead of [ə] in *and ordered* [əno:də(r)d].

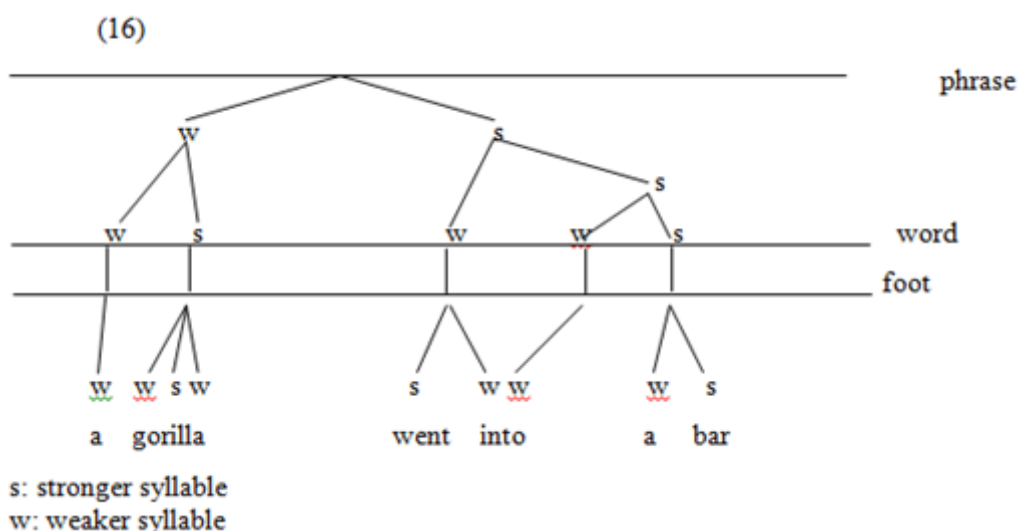
Violated Obligatory Phonological Rules

Foot Assignment

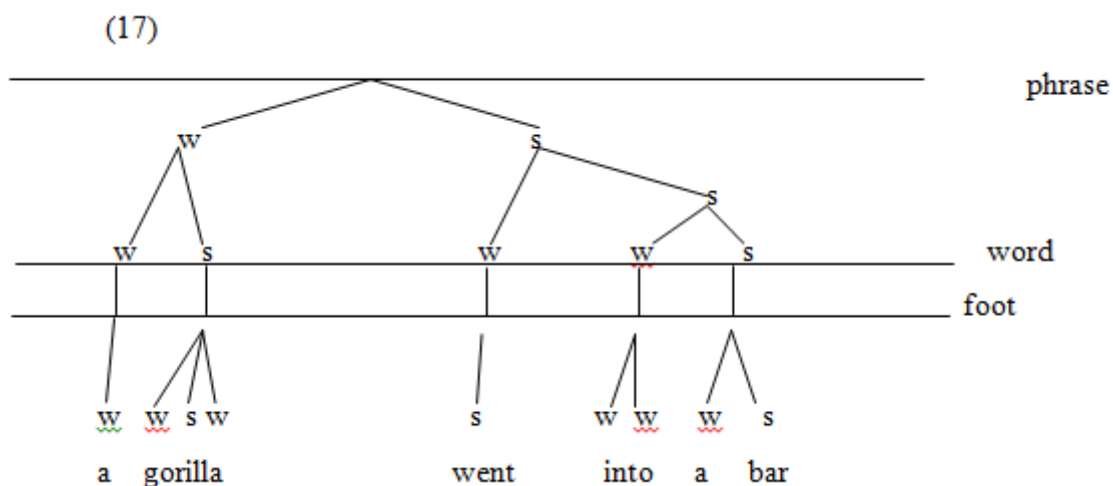
Giegerich (1992: 258) defines a foot as as a stretch of phonetic material that begin at the onset of a stressed syllable and ends at the onset of the next stressed syllable. He also proposes that all speech when delivered fluently without interruption or hesitation is said to have rhythm. Collins and Mees (2003) state that the sentence stress becomes the basis of rhythm in English. Thus,

English, as a stress-timed language, has the rhythm of an utterance. This rhythm can be accomplished when all the feet of the utterance are isochronous (roughly equal in time), regardless of the number of syllables that each foot contains. To relate the foot assignment to an utterance narrated by the students, a metrical analysis can be conducted to show the phonological processes that the students missed.

One of the rules of foot formations is that it requires adjoining any stray syllable to the foot preceding it. The metrical tree for a phrase taken from sentence (4) is presented in diagram (16).



The feet shown in the diagram determine the timing units of the connected speech. The unstressed syllable [in] in [intu:] in the sentence above is adjoined to the preceding stressed syllable [went]. However, the students' narration violates the feet formation rule, take one example of students' narration as shown in Diagram 17.



The diagram shows that when the stray syllable does not adjoin the preceding stressed syllable, the narration then is more like a broken speech – one word at a time.

Morphophonemics

The second obligatory phonological process that the students violated is the morphophonemics, i.e., the rule of the allomorph formation in English. The rule of the formation of allomorphs [t], [d], and [ɪd] in the English past participles of regular verbs states that:

- a. when the root of a verb is ended by a voiceless sound, then allomorph [t] occurs, e.g. stopped [stopt], liked [laikt], watched [wotʃt]
- b. when the root of a verb is ended by a voiced sound, then allomorph [d] occurs, e.g. begged [begd], judged [dʒʌdʒd]
- c. and when the root of a verb is ended by either phone [t] or [d], the allomorph [ɪd] occurs, e.g. wanted [wontɪd], added [ædɪd]

The sample below shows the feature of students' talk:

- (18)the barman got curious and decided to find out why....
[də ba:mən got kuriəs ænd **dɪsaɪd** to faɪn aʊt wai] when it should be [dɪsaɪdɪd]
- (19) The barman served him and charged him....
[də ba:rmən **sə(r)vəd** him ænd tʃɹɑ:ʒd him] when it should be [sə(r)vɪd]
- (20) I'm not surprised with the....
[aɪm nɒt **səpraɪzd** wɪθ ðə] when [səpraɪst] should be the accurate pronunciation

Evidently seen in (18), (19), and (20), students still found it difficult to apply these rules.

Pedagogical implication

The study was conducted in the Pronunciation Skills class in a situation in which learners were asked to read a text aloud and not in a real communication context. It is insufficient to conclude that these students' pronunciation will impair their communication. However, by analyzing and describing the features of the talks, some areas of weaknesses in the students' pronunciation are observable. Thus, the findings of the study may be of a valuable input for a pedagogical implication in teaching pronunciation.

First, as stress, rhythm, and intonation play very important role in building students' intelligibility in communication, there should be more emphasis to the teaching of suprasegmental features. Accurate pronunciation and intelligible communication require appropriate stress placement (Sonia & Lotfi, 2016). Stress is vital as misplacement of it may impede understanding of meaning in communication and may result in several repetitions of utterances (Gilakjani, 2011). When students start learning segmental pronunciation, they need to follow it through with suprasegmental learning. Pronouncing single segments needs to be followed immediately with its context in a word and sentences. Cutting lesson times in discriminating single phonemes through drilling minimal pairs is advisable.

Secondly, the purpose of learning pronunciation needs to shift from native-like pronunciation to building intelligibility in communication. Learners need to be able to comprehend talks as well as to communicate appropriately. Accentedness, according to studies (Gilakjani, 2011; Rubin, 2011), may hinder communication only when it is accompanied by stress misplacement and sloppy intonation.

Third, the students involved in the study were semester one students who newly studied English. The kinds of mistake they made may be driven by their lack of knowledge and experiences in the target language. These students' lack of practice caused by their short study period may have contributed to their inaccuracies in pronunciation. Achieving clear appropriate pronunciation requires hard work, time, practice, and supporting facilities. To familiarize students to English sounds and talks, exposing students to audio and/or videos of speeches of English as Lingua Franca might be a great lesson idea. Designing classroom practice that would require students to practice pronunciation in different events like poetry reading, drama performance, and role playing to practice interactional talks can also be included in the designed learning activities.

CONCLUSION

English, being a stressed language, requires a speaker to assign stress at the right syllable. Speech may sound like broken speech, unnatural, or may be misunderstood when a certain speaker does not mind the stress placement. Intonation is also important to distinguish meaning and intention of the speaker. As suprasegmental features are considered vital in building students' fluency and may contribute to communicative competence, it is important to put emphasis on the teaching of suprasegmental features in pronunciation classes. Students also need lots of exposure to learning materials that help them to distinguish these features of English speech. More achievable learning objectives in teaching pronunciation should also be set, in which the main goal of learning pronunciation is to get, not the native-like pronunciation, but the intelligibility and communication skills.

REFERENCES

- Abdullah, F. & Lulita. (2016). Situating English segmental and suprasegmental features proportionally: a profile of Indonesian EFL students. *Eduscience-English Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics Journal Vol.1 No.3 2016*.
- British Council. (2006). *The Gorilla Joke. Short texts* © BBC | British Council. www.teachingenglish.org.uk (accessed July 2009)
- Brown, H. D. (2001). *Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy. 2nd ed.* New York: Pearson Education
- Ching, C. (2006). *Phonetics & Phonology of the English Language (ITTT Unit 13)* www.TesolCourse.com (retrieved June 10, 2010)
- Collin, B. & Mees, I. M. (2003). *Practical phonetics and phonology: A resource book for students*. London: Routledge
- Darn, S. (nd). *Rhythm*. Retrieved from <https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/rhythm> accessed on January 2, 2019
- Giegerich H. J. (1992). *English phonology: An introduction*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- Gilakjani, A. P. (2011). *A Study on the Situation of Pronunciation Instruction in ESL/EFL Classrooms*. Journal of Studies in Education ISSN 2162-6952 2011, Vol. 1, No. 1
- Hussain, S & Sajid, S. (2015). Applications of Suprasegmental in EFL Classroom: A Short Review. *International Journal of Scientific and Research Publications, Volume 5, Issue 9, September 2015*.
- Indriani, M. I. (2003). *English pronunciation: The English speech sounds theory & practice*. Jakarta: PT Gramedia Pustaka Utama.
- Kelly, G. (2000). *How to teach pronunciation*. Harlow, Essex: Pearson Education Limited.
- Kung Fu Panda. (2008). by DreamWorks Animation, distributed by Paramount Pictures.
- Ladefoged, P. & Johnson, K. (2011). *A Course in Phonetics. 6th ed.* Boston: Wadsworth, Cengage Learning
- Luoma, S. (2004). *Assessing speaking*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- Nunan, D. (2015). *Teaching English to speakers of other languages: An introduction*. Oxon: Taylor & Francis
- Rubin, D. L. (2011). The power of prejudice in accent perception: Reverse linguistic stereotyping and its impact on listener judgments and decisions. In J. Lewis & K. LeVelle (eds.), *Proceedings of the 3rd Pronunciation in Second Language Learning and Teaching Conference* (pp. 11-17).

- Sonia, B. & Lotfi, B. A. (2016). The Importance of Prosody in a Proper English Pronunciation for EFL Learners . *Arab World English Journal (AWEJ) Volume.7 Number.2 June, 2016 pp. 316-327* (Online) www.awej.org
- Steele, V. *Connected speech*. Retrieved from <https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/connected-speech> accessed on January 2, 2019



INVESTIGATING PREPOSITION USAGE PROBLEMS OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATION STUDY PROGRAM STUDENTS

Albertus Agung Sanjaya¹, Barli Bram^{2*}

^{1,2}*Sanata Dharma University*

²*barli@usd.ac.id**

Received: 23 July 2020

Accepted: 29 November 2020

Abstract

As one of the English grammar elements, prepositions might be considered difficult for students of English as a foreign language (EFL). Many studies on this topic have been conducted but it remains problematic and unresolved. Accordingly, the researchers aimed to explore the prepositions in this paper. Gathering the data from fifty acknowledgments of undergraduate theses of the English Language Education Study Program (ELESPA) of a private university in Yogyakarta, the researchers analyzed preposition usage problems that occurred in the acknowledgments. Results showed that three main problems involving the use of prepositions, namely the misselection of prepositions for, in, and to, insertion of prepositions about and to, and omission of prepositions about. Factors causing the problems were investigated and it was found that students' first language (L1) influenced the incorrect usage of English prepositions.

Keywords: preposition, misselection, deletion, omission

INTRODUCTION

In learning English, grammar, including the use of prepositions, plays an important role in assisting the students to understand the correct use of the English language and improve their writings (Debata, 2013). Grammar also still becomes a valuable asset in learning the English language (Saaristo, 2015). Wang (2010a), Wang (2010b), and Zhang (2009) also agree that mastering language needs excellent grammar. It helps the students in all English skills, such as writing, reading, listening, and speaking. However, mastering English grammar is not as easy as falling off a log. The learners also need to learn various aspects of English grammar, such as parts of speech, subject and verb agreements, and preposition usages. Those become a big challenge for the students who learn English especially the students who come from countries using English as a foreign language (EFL).

Regarding prepositions in English, Sinclair (2011) states that they consist of various kinds and functions and due to their complexity, they cause problems for learners. This complexity makes the students tend to misuse the prepositions in writing sentences. Concisely, a preposition is a type of word used to provide information about places or actions (Sinclair, 2011). As one of the

unique features in English, the complexity of prepositions causes many confusion and problems for EFL learners. It corresponds to what Lorincz and Gordon (2012) found. They argued that “prepositions are notoriously difficult for English language learners to master due to the sheer number and their polysemous nature” (Lorincz & Gordon, 2012, p. 1). Many studies around the countries which use English as a foreign language have verified the complexity of prepositions. This complexity of English prepositions leads to prepositional misuses performed by the students in China, Iran, or even Malaysia (Arjan, Abdullah, & Roslim, 2013; Huang, 2010; Loke, Ali, & Anthony, 2013; Mahmoodzadeh, 2012). The findings of those studies have provided evidence that prepositions still become a problem among the students who live in countries that use English as a foreign language (EFL) or as a second language (ESL).

Looking at the problems which stem from the complexity of prepositions, the researchers conclude that there might be an influence on students’ first language in learning the second language or target language. Several studies also have investigated how students’ L1 influenced prepositions in L2 or TL (Huang, 2010; Mahmoodzadeh, 2012; Yuan, 2014). Considering the preposition systems in the Indonesian language, Sam (2016) has grouped twenty kinds of prepositions in nine different functions. They are a small number compared to the prepositions in the English language, in which Sinclair (2011) stated that there are 76 different prepositions (p. 573). From the comparison of prepositions numbers, it can be assumed that there could be interference from students’ first language to their target language, namely language transfer. In other words, there is a process of learners’ interlanguage behavior towards the input of knowledge and transformation of input data into the production of meaningful output. The output might be negative or positive (Gass, 1979; Gvarishvili, 2013; Jarvis & Odlin, 2000; Zhanming, 2014). Therefore, the researchers selected fifty acknowledgments of the final research papers of the English Language Education Study Program (ELESP) students of Sanata Dharma University. The researchers aimed to explore preposition usage problems that occurred in the thesis acknowledgments of the ELESP students of Sanata Dharma University.

Problems of using English prepositions

As one of the elements in English grammar, prepositions might be confusing among the students who learn English due to the sheer number and their polysemous nature (Lorincz & Gordon, 2012). It corresponds to what has been claimed by Chodorow, Gamon, and Tetreault (2010) in their research in which they found that articles and prepositions are the most common grammatical error made by non-native speakers and maybe the most difficult elements of English for non-native speakers to master. Another research also showed that in written discourse, articles and prepositions have a percentage of 20% to 50% of all grammar errors made by second language learners (Dalgish, 1985; Diab, 1997; Izumi et al., 2003). Tetreault and Chodorow (2008) also found that prepositions become the most common type of usage error in writings among English as a second language (ESL) learners in China. These claims also have proved that the cases occurred in many EFL learners’ writings.

Those claims were also verified by the other researchers. In speaking, Huang (2010) investigated the potential influence of L1 (Chinese) on L2 (English) communication with a group of Chinese-speaking English. In writing, Mahmoodzadeh (2012) claimed that Iranian EFL learners tend to suffer from producing English prepositions that are grammatically redundant (e.g., went to home) or wrong (e.g., depends to) in a translation task. These types of problems may often occur for English L2 learners, especially if their L1 does not have such a system (Barrett & Chen, 2011).

Recently, there are also still many types of research which tried to provide more evidence on the prepositional misuses made by the learners in the countries which use English as a second or foreign language (Johanson, 2017; Saravanan, 2014; Sudhakaran, 2015; Vilorio, Ruiz, & Sanchez, 2017). In Malaysia, the students have difficulties in using prepositions on and at to indicate the time (Loke et al., 2013). Another study showed how Malaysian students also expe-

rienced difficulties in using prepositions of place, in and on (Arjan, Abdullah, & Roslim, 2013). All of them still look at how important the use of prepositions in writing is. They agree that the use of prepositions still becomes problem for non-native students who learn English.

The researchers used the same approach in investigating the cases in which they quantitatively analyzed the errors made by the students in the uses of prepositions. They calculated the occurrences of the errors from many students' writings and surveys and then concluded that the students still need help in English prepositions mastery. To enrich the research point of view and give a deeper investigation into the previous research, the researchers tried to provide an explanation on how the preposition systems and features of the students' L1 influence the use of prepositions in their L2, which are considered as incorrect. This kind of investigation can hopefully add different perspectives in analyzing and investigating the misuses of English prepositions.

Looking at the problems in using the prepositions which are shown in the previous studies (Arjan, Abdullah, & Roslim, 2013; Huang, 2010; Johanson, 2017; Loke et al., 2013; Mahmoodzadeh, 2012; Saravanan, 2014; Sudhakaran, 2015; Viloría, Ruiz, & Sanchez, 2017), the students tend to misuse the prepositions. From those misuses, Bram (2005); Chodorow, Tetreault, and Han (2007); and Jha (1991) categorized them into three types of preposition misuses:

1. Omission of preposition: The failure to use a preposition in a sentence where it is obligatory, as in **"We are fond sweet tea"* (missing the preposition 'of' after 'fond').
2. Insertion of preposition: The use of an extra preposition in a sentence where it is unnecessary, as in **"He went to outside"* (unnecessary 'to').
3. Selections of incorrect preposition: The use of a wrong preposition in a sentence, as in **"We arrived to the station"* (using 'at', not 'to' after the verb 'arrived').

Finally, the studies on prepositional misuses have revealed that incorrect usages of prepositions were common for EFL and ESL learners. The prepositions may become quite problematic for EFL learners because the misuse of prepositions does not easily cause communication breakdowns (Brender, 2002). However, a degree of ambiguity for the audience may be resulted from inaccurate usages of articles and prepositions in a written context. Particularly, prepositions are difficult to master since they contain challenging and complex features in terms of their variety. They serve a great variety of linguistic functions (Tetreault & Chodorow, 2008).

Interlanguage contributes to teaching materials and methodology for the learners of the second language (Ellis, 2008; Richards, 1984; Rustipa, 2011). It is also the most accepted theoretical ground to explain the phenomenon of second language acquisition around countries including Indonesia (Fauziati, 2011; Fauziati, & Maftuhin, 2016; Lorincz & Gordon, 2012; Nurhayati, 2015; Sutopo, 2013; Viloría, Ruiz, & Sanchez, 2017). In this research, interlanguage might appear in the thinking process of ELESPP students who wrote the acknowledgments since they activated the background knowledge of the Indonesian language (L1) and tried to English language (L2) sentences. However, the researchers only focused on the languages themselves by investigating in what ways the prepositions system of the students' L1 influences their L2 productions.

Odlin (1989) also adds that "transfer of language" is not only influenced by learners' mother tongue but also is the interference of any other language knowledge possessed by the learners. With the same main idea of language transfer, Ringbom (1992) defines language transfer from a different perspective as "the influence of L1-based elements and L1-based procedures in understanding and producing L2 text" (Ringbom, 1992, p. 87). Yuan (2014) also verified the concept of language transfer which occurred among Taiwanese students. The study found the Taiwanese features of prepositions affected the productions of prepositions in English. Huang (2010) and Mahmoodazdekh (2012) also found the influence of students' L1 in the use of prepositions by the learners.

As investigated by Gass (1979), Gvarishvili (2013), Jarvis & Odlin (2000), and Zhanming (2014), the transfer can be divided into subcategories and different levels of language including the phonetic, lexical, morphological, syntactical, and cultural levels. Language transfer is also divided into positive and negative transfer (Jarvis & Odlin, 2000). The positive transfer can be understood as the similarities between languages which make an EFL learner more successful in using the patterns from their L1 in learning the TL. On the other hand, negative language transfer refers to the differences between two or more language systems which make learners produce errors due to patterns taken from their L1. This concept specifically shows what problems might appear in the use of prepositions by ELESP students and what causes them to face problems in using the prepositions.

METHOD

In this study, the researchers analyzed 50 undergraduate thesis acknowledgments. The researchers used a document analysis as a method. The researchers reviewed all the usages of prepositions and the initial verbs in the selected acknowledgments. From the usages, the researchers determined the misuses of prepositions and the initial verbs by referring to online English Dictionaries (Oxford, Cambridge, Longman, and Macmillan). From the prepositional misuses, the researchers categorized them into several types of prepositional misuses adapted from Bram (2005); Chodorow, Tetreault, and Han, (2007); Jha (1991). Based on the categories, the researchers investigated how the students' L1 would influence the usages of prepositions and the initial verbs. The researchers used English dictionaries, an Indonesian dictionary, and Indonesian corpus data from Corpora Collection (Leipzig University) to compare all the meanings, functions, and usages of verbs and prepositions in English and Indonesian languages. The method of document analysis allowed the researchers to gain a deeper analysis and investigation from the data gathered in the form of students' thesis acknowledgments.

Therefore, the data were expected to provide more visible preposition misuse cases to be analyzed and investigated, specifically about the usages of prepositions with the initial verbs. This idea corresponds to what Selinker (1972) states, "the only observable data of the intermediate states of the students between their L1 and L2 are the utterances produced by the students when they try to formulate sentential sequences in the L2" (as cited in Gargallo, 2009, p.128).

The researchers firstly downloaded 25 acknowledgments from <http://www.library.usd.ac.id> from 4th to 11th October 2018. From the data, the researchers found several misuses of prepositions and their initial verbs performed by the students. Then the researchers downloaded another twenty-five acknowledgments from the website from 7th to 11th May 2019. From the data, the researchers noticed the same misuses of prepositions again and again. Thus, the data saturation was being reached (Francis et al., 2010; Grady, 1998; Guest, Bunce, & Johnson, 2006; Hill, Baird, & Walters, 2014; Jackson, Harrison, Swinburn, & Lawrence, 2015; Middlemiss, Lloyd-Williams, Laird, & Fallon, 2015; Sandelowski, 2008). The researchers then calculated the general and incorrect usage of prepositions on 15th May 2019. After that, the researchers analyzed the data. In identifying the cases, the researchers focused on the incorrect usages of prepositions.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Findings

From the data, the researchers calculated preposition usage problems in each of the 30 acknowledgments. The researchers found the total number for each usage in Table 1.

Table 1. The frequencies of preposition general use and misuses

No.	Verbs + Prepositions	General Use	Misuse
1	Address + to	11	
2	Apologize + for	2	
3	Believe + in	3	1
4	Belong + to	2	
5	Care + about	2	1
6	Contribute + to	2	2
7	Dedicate + to	17	3
8	Deliver + to	11	2
9	Devote + to	1	
10	Express + to	71	4
11	Extend + to	1	
12	Fight + against	1	
13	Force + into	1	1
14	Give + to	56	9
15	Go + to	59	4
16	Hear	1	1 (with about)
17	Indebt + to	2	
18	Inspire + to	2	2
19	Listen + to	6	1
20	Mean + to / for	4	
21	Participate + in	2	
22	Pray + for	8	2
23	Present + to	5	3
24	Provide + for	1	
26	Remind + of	5	1
27	Sacrifice + for	1	
28	Say + to	11	
29	Send + to	12	3
30	Share + with	2	1
31	Show + to	1	
32	Teach	2	2 (with about)
33	Thank	197	25 (with to)
34	Work + on	4	1
	Total	506	69

Based on Table 1, it can be seen that 69 preposition misuses occurred from 506 general uses of prepositions. If they were calculated in percentage, there were about 13.64% of misuses from the general uses of prepositions. The rate of preposition misuses showed that the students were aware of the appropriate uses of prepositions with the initial verbs. Based on the data, five students correctly used the prepositions with the initial verbs and one student had six misuses. In detail, 32 students did one prepositional misuse, seven students did two misuses, three students did three misuses, and two students did four misuses. Nevertheless, the students did the same types of misuses. Most of the students selected wrong prepositions in the sentences and some of them inserted unnecessary prepositions or omitted required prepositions after the verbs (Bram, 2005; Chodorow, Tetreault, & Han, 2008; Jha, 1991). The preposition misuses are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Frequency and misuse rate of preposition

No.	Verbs + Prepositions	Frequency	Misuse	Misuse Rate
1	contribute + to	2	2	100%
2	teach (without about)	2	2	100%
3	present + to	5	3	60%
4	care + about	2	1	50%
5	share + with	2	1	50%
6	send + to	12	3	25%
7	deliver + to	11	2	18.18%
8	dedicate + to	17	3	17.64%
9	give + to	56	9	16.07%
10	thank (without to)	197	25	12.07%
11	go + to	59	4	6.78%
12	express + to	71	4	5.63%

The table showed that there were five kinds of prepositions and the initial verbs which showed misuse rates of 50 percent or above. Based on the data, the researchers aimed to show that those prepositions became problematic for the students. Twelve prepositions and the initial verbs were detected to be influenced by L1 features. In this case, the influence might come from the use of prepositions and the initial verbs in the Indonesian language or the functions of the prepositions. From the table, it can be seen that the use of preposition to with its initial verbs was often used by the students. The students wrongly selected the preposition for to show a purpose, in which they should use the preposition to which is used to show a direction. This might be caused by the frequent use of those prepositions in students' L1. Prepositions to and for could also have the same meaning in the Indonesian language, namely untuk. From this influence, the students might perform a negative language transfer and they perform preposition misuses (Gass, 1979; Gvarishvili, 2013; Jarvis & Odlin, 2000; Zhanming, 2014).

After showing the misuse rates of each preposition and the initial verb, the researchers provided some sentences from each kind of preposition which was detected to be influenced by L1 features. Those sentences were provided as examples of how students' L1 influences the use of prepositions and the initial verbs in English.

Discussion

The findings have shown the prepositions which were frequently misused by the students. From the misuses, the researchers found that three problems might appear. The problems were categorized by types of misuses formulated by Bram (2005); Chodorow, Tetreault, and Han (2008); and Jha (1991), namely the misselection, insertion, and omission. The researchers provide examples from each kind of preposition and the initial verb problem which might be influenced by L1 features. The examples are provided in Table 3 below.

Table 3. The misuses influenced by L1

No.	Sentences	Verb + Preposition	Misuse Types
1.	I dedicate my biggest gratitude for my honorable thesis advisor.	Dedicate + to	Misuse Types Misselection of preposition <i>for</i> (1-22)
2.	I also dedicate my gratitude for my gorgeous thesis advisor.		
3.	I dedicate my thesis for my God.		

No.	Sentences	Verb + Preposition	Misuse Types
4.	I want to deliver my gratitude for His blessings so I could finish writing this thesis.	Deliver + to	
5.	I also deliver my greatest gratitude for my parents.		
6.	I would also like to express my gratitude for my thesis advisor.	Express + to	
7.	I would like to express my sincere thankfulness for all of the lecturers.		
8.	I am keen to express gratitude and appreciation for all individuals or groups.		
9.	I would also like to express my gratitude for VIII G Class students.		
10.	Therefore, I give my gratitude for my father who has given an amazing life for me until now.	Give + to	
11.	And I gave my great gratitude for everyone who writes a book about everything I need.		
12.	I would like to thank Jesus Christ for giving His amazing grace for me.		
13.	My special thanks go for the students of IPA 3 and IPS 2 who participated in my research patiently and cooperatively.	Go + to	
14.	Last but not least, my gratitude goes for those whose name I cannot mention one by one.		
15.	My special thanks also goes for AWK.		
16.	My special thanks also go for MV.		
17.	I also want to present my abundant thanks for my special friends who have accompanied me during my college life.	Present + to	
18.	I present this thesis for them all.		
19.	First, my best gratitude is presented for my big family.		
20.	I also want to send a bouquet of love for ANU.	Send + to	
21.	I also send my gratitude for those who have helped me in finishing this thesis.		
22.	I also send thank for Th, ST.		
23.	I thank everyone who has contributed in the process of doing my thesis.	Contribute + to	Misselection of prepositions <i>to</i> and <i>in</i>
24.	They contributed a lot in proofreading my thesis.		
25.	I also thank her for sharing her experience and knowledge to us, her students.	Share + with	

No.	Sentences	Verb + Preposition	Misuse Types
26.	He does not only teach me about some English courses but also about real life and his experiences.	Teach (without about)	Insertion of prepositions <i>about</i> and <i>to</i> (26-32)
27.	Then, I would like to thank to Bapak Drs. YBG.	Thank (without to)	
28.	I would also thank to my grandfather.		
29.	I then thank to my academic advisor.		
30.	I also thank to SLM who always support me.		
31.	I also thank to the students of Speaking II Class F.		
32.	I also thank to my super close friend, ISF.		
33.	Pdt. MD and Ev. HS always pray, support, guide, care, and love me during my ups and down.	Care + about	Omission of preposition <i>about</i>

From the examples in Table 3, it can be seen the misuses performed by the students in their acknowledgments more clearly. Most of them selected inappropriate prepositions for and with. Some of them inserted the preposition *about* and one student omitted it. The researchers divided the discussion into four sections, referring to the types of misuses proposed by Bram (2005), Chodorow, Tetreault, and Han (2008), and Jha (1991). Thus, the sections are the misselection of preposition *for*, the misselection of preposition *to* and *in*, insertion of preposition *about* and *to*, and omission of preposition *about*. In the four sections, the researchers focused on the influence of students' L1 which might stem from the functions of the prepositions and the common use of the prepositions in the Indonesian language.

1. Misselection of the preposition for

In this section, the researchers focused on the misselection of the preposition *for*, instead of *to*. The verbs which are followed by this substituted preposition are *go*, *deliver*, *express*, *send*, *dedicate*, *give*, and *present*. From those verbs, the researchers provided the sentences with the suggested forms based on four online dictionaries namely, *Oxford Online Dictionary*, *Cambridge Online Dictionary*, *Longman Dictionary*, and *Macmillan Dictionary*. The Indonesian translation from the sentences was also provided.

According to the data, there were 57 general uses of the preposition with the initial verb *go* + *to*. From the general uses, there were four occurrences of *go* + *to* which might be indicated as misuses performed by the students. They changed the preposition *to* into *for*. As a result, the students wrote the sentences as follows.

(13) My special thanks *go for* the students of IPA 3 and IPS 2 who participated in my research patiently and cooperatively.

(14) Last but not least, my gratitude *goes for* those whose name I cannot mention one by one.

(15) My special thanks also *goes for* AWK.

(16) My special thanks also *go for* MV.

However, the students did not pay attention to the verbs before the preposition, which is *go*. According to *Oxford*, *Cambridge*, *Macmillan*, and *Longman* online dictionaries, there were many kinds of what verb *go* means and how verb *go* should be used. Some of them were to move from one place to another, to move somewhere to do something, to be sent or passed on, and so on. Those functions require different kinds of prepositions to use. In this case, we need to look at

what intention the students are trying to convey in their sentences. Referring to the sentences of the students, they might intend to give their thankfulness and gratitude to the people who helped them. Therefore, there could be a sense of movement or sending something to someone. It means that the preposition *to* is more appropriate and required to follow the verb *go* to show the intended meaning (Oxford, Cambridge, Macmillan & Longman).

(13a) My special thanks *go to* the students of IPA 3 and IPS 2 who participated in my research patiently and cooperatively.

(14a) Last but not least, my gratitude *goes to* those whose name I cannot mention one by one.

(15a) My special thanks also *go to* AWK.

(16a) My special thanks also *go to* MV.

The same cases also happen when the students used the verbs *deliver*, *express*, *send*, *dedicate*, *give*, and *present*. According to the data, the use of those verbs is accompanied by two objects. Between those objects, there is a preposition that functions to distinct the direct and indirect objects of those verbs. This preposition is categorized as the preposition used with verbs with two objects. In this case, those verbs supposed to be followed by the preposition *to*. However, the data showed that the students change *to* into *for*.

(1) I *dedicate* my biggest gratitude *for* my honorable thesis advisor.

(4) I also *deliver* my greatest gratitude *for* my parents.

(6) I would also like to *express* my gratitude *for* my thesis advisor.

(10) Therefore, I *give* my gratitude *for* my father.

(17) I also want to *present* my abundant thanks *for* my special friends who have accompanied me during my college life.

(22) I also *send* thank *for* TST.

All of those sentences which use the verbs *dedicate*, *deliver*, *express*, *give*, *present* and *send* have the same meaning in which the students want to give their feelings of thanks to the people who have helped them. Thus, there is a sense of movement in which the students' feelings of thankful are aimed at the people who helped them or have the roles in their processes. The feelings of thankful from the students go to the other people. However, the examples show that the students do not use the appropriate prepositions to link direct objects (the feelings of thankful) and indirect objects (the people who helped the students or have the roles in their processes). The students use the prepositional phrases with *for* after the direct objects. Preposition *for* and *to* have different meanings and functions when they are used in sentences (Larry, 2015; Sinclair, 2011).

The preposition *to* would be more appropriate to use in the students' sentences, as shown in (1a), (4a), (6a), (10a), (17a), and (22a).

(1a) I *dedicate* my biggest gratitude *to* my honorable thesis advisor.

(4a) I also *deliver* my greatest gratitude *to* my parents.

(6a) I would also like to *express* my gratitude *to* my thesis advisor.

(10a) Therefore, I *give* my gratitude *to* my father.

(17a) I also want to *present* my abundant thanks *to* my special friends who have accompanied me during my college life.

(22a) I also send thank *to* TST.

Larry (2015) and Sinclair (2011) describe that the preposition *to* is used when the action described by the verb involves the transfer of something from one person or thing to another. It

can be seen from (1a), (4a), (6a), (10a), (17a), and (22a) that the intention of the students to give their gratitude and thanks to the people who helped them are more clearly stated.

2. Misselection of prepositions in and to

The data also showed that the students performed the selection of the preposition in when they used the verb *contribute* and selection of preposition *to* when they used the verb *share*.

(23) I thank everyone who has *contributed* in the process of doing my thesis.

(24) They *contributed* a lot in proofreading my thesis.

(25) I also thank her for *sharing* her experience and knowledge *to* us, her students.

The students made the wrong selections in which they should use the preposition *to* after *contribute* and *with* after *share*. English dictionaries (*Oxford*, *Cambridge*, *Macmillan*, and *Longman*) state that prepositions *to* and *in* have different functions in which preposition *to* is used to show the person or thing which is affected by an action. Meanwhile, *in* is used to show somebody or something which is at a point within an area or space.

From the meaning of each proposition, it can be seen which prepositions match the whole meaning of the sentence. The student wants to thank the people who helped him or her. The people have affected the thesis accomplishment process of the students, whether they are the students, advisor, or anyone else. Although the preposition *in* has a function to show direct involvement in something, the preposition might not be appropriate to use. In the sentence, the people who helped the student are not meant as the people who do the thesis, they only helped the student outside the process of thesis writing. Therefore, the preposition *to* is more accurate to be used after the verb *contribute* (*Oxford*, *Cambridge*, *Macmillan*, and *Longman*) as shown on (23a) and (24a).

(23a) I thank everyone who has *contributed to* the process of doing my thesis.

(24a) They *contributed to* a lot *to* proofreading of my thesis.

The next case can also be seen when one student used a verb *share* in a sentence (25). He or she wrote a prepositional phrase *with to* after the direct object. In that sentence, the student misused the preposition. According to the *Oxford Online Dictionary*, *Cambridge Online Dictionary*, and *Macmillan Online Dictionary*, if the verb *share* has direct and indirect objects, its direct object should be followed by a preposition *with*.

(25) I also thank her for *sharing* her experience and knowledge *to* us, her students.

(25a) I also thank her for *sharing* her experience and knowledge *with* us, her students.

The use of verb and preposition *share + with* is already common among English native speakers. The data on COCA show that the use of the verb *share* with a direct object is always followed by the preposition *with* and the indirect object.

(25b) ... individual taxpayers who do not want to *share* their personal health care and household income information *with* their employer.

(25c) ... it will *share* information *with* third parties when...

(25d) We will *share* personal information *with* companies, organizations or individuals outside of Google ...

3. Insertion of prepositions about and to

The students did not only select the wrong prepositions after the particular verbs, but they also

added a preposition after a verb that does not need any preposition after it. Those verbs are *teach* and *thank*. The students used the verbs with the prepositions as follows.

(26) He does not only *teach* me *about* some English courses but also about real life and his experiences.

(28) I would also *thank to* my grandfather

(29) I then *thank to* my academic advisor.

In those sentences, the students inserted the prepositions *about* and *to* after the verbs *teach* and *thank*. According to English dictionaries (*Oxford, Cambridge, Longman, and Macmillan*), verbs *teach* and *thank* do not need any preposition because both of them are transitive verbs. Transitive verbs are verbs that accept one or more objects. The objects can be a direct object or direct and indirect objects. Those verbs will need the prepositions only if there is an indirect object.

If we look at (26), even though there is an indirect object *me*, the verb *teach* should have no preposition between *me* and *some English courses* (direct object), as shown on (26a). It is because *teach* has the same structure as the verbs *give, deliver* and *send*, for example, in which any preposition is not used if the indirect object comes after the verb. Otherwise, a preposition *to* can be used only if the indirect object comes after the direct object, as seen in (26b).

(26) He does not only *teach* me *about* some English courses but also about real life and his experiences.

(26a) He does not only *teach* me some English courses but also real-life and his experiences.

(26b) He does not only *teach* some English courses *to* me but also real life and his experiences.

(28) and (29) also showed the same case as (26). *Thank* does not need any preposition to show the relationship between the verb and the object (*Oxford, Cambridge, Longman, and Macmillan*), as shown on (28a) and (29a). A preposition might be used to show a reason why the subject thanks the object, as seen in (28b) and (29b).

(28) I would also *thank to* my grandfather

(28a) I would also *thank* my grandfather.

(28b) I would also *thank* my grandfather *for* motivating me.

(29) I then *thank to* my academic advisor.

(29a) I then *thank* my academic advisor.

(29b) I then *thank* my academic advisor *for* encouraging me to finish my study.

4. Omission of preposition about

In the following, a required preposition after the verb *care* was omitted.

(33) Pdt. MD and Ev. HS always pray, support, guide, *care*, and love me during my ups and down.

The sentence showed that the student used five verbs in the adjective clause. From those five verbs, *pray* and *care* have the dependent prepositions which should be used. In this case, those verbs would not have a complete meaning when the clause is deconstructed, as shown on (33a) and (33b). There would be something missing in those sentences and the clauses seem to be less meaningful. It will be different if the prepositions are added, as shown on (33c) and (33d).

(33a) Pdt. MD and Ev. HS always *pray* me.

(33b) Pdt. MD and Ev. HS always *care* me.

(33c) Pdt. MD and Ev. HS always *pray for* me.

(33d) Pdt. MD and Ev. HS always *care about* me.

Then, the suggested form of the sentence would be as follows.

(33e) Pdt. MD and Ev. HS always *pray for* me, *care about* me, support, guide, and love me during my ups and down.

In (33e), the researchers only focused on the use of verb *care* and preposition *about*. According to *Oxford*, *Cambridge*, and *Longman*, *care* can be intransitive or transitive verbs. When one uses verb *care* to show that he or she loves somebody and worries about what happens to them, he or she should add preposition *about* after it (*Oxford Online Dictionary*). This meaning might also be the same as what the student intends to deliver. Therefore, the preposition *about* is needed. Unfortunately, the student did not use the preposition.

CONCLUSION

Based on the findings, the researchers concluded that there were three problems which appeared in the usages of prepositions in the students' thesis acknowledgments, namely the misselection of prepositions *for*, *to*, and *in*, the insertion of prepositions *about* and *to*, and the omission of the preposition *about*. Those problems were found in 12 kinds of prepositions and the initial verbs, namely *contribute + to*, *teach + about*, *present + to*, *care + about*, *share + with*, *send + to*, *dedicate + to*, *deliver + to*, *give + to*, *thank + for*, *go + to*, and *express + to*.

The students misselected the preposition *for* when they were supposed to use the preposition *to* after the verbs *present*, *send*, *dedicate*, *deliver*, *give*, *go*, and *express*, as shown in sentences (1) to (22). The students seemed to feel the ambiguity between the meaning of purpose from the preposition *for* and the meaning of direction from the preposition *to*. The students also selected the preposition *to* when they were supposed to use the preposition *with* after the verb *share*, as seen in sentence (25). In other cases, the students selected the preposition *in* when they were supposed to use the preposition *to* after the verbs *contribute*, as shown in sentences (23) and (24). The students also added redundant prepositions by inserting the prepositions *about* and *to* after the verbs *teach* and *thank*, in sentences (26) to (32) respectively. The other preposition misuse was the omission of the preposition *about*, in sentence (33), after the verb *care*.

From the results, it can be recommended that the EFL teachers or lecturers need to give more explicit teaching on prepositions. The teachers or lecturers can start by providing the list of verbs with their appropriate prepositions. The list can be easily found from internet sources. By showing the list of verbs with their appropriate prepositions, EFL students are expected to have a clear understanding of the use of prepositions. It is also beneficial for EFL students in the English Department since as future English teachers they need to have a good mastery of English prepositions to teach the students.

REFERENCES

- Arjan, A., Abdullah, N. H. & Roslim, N. (2013). A corpus-based study on English prepositions of place, *in* and *on*. *English Language Teaching*, 6(12), 167 – 174.
- Barrett, N. E. & Chen, L. M. (2011). English article errors in Taiwanese college students' EFL writing. *Computational Linguistics and Chinese Language Processing*, 16(3-4), 1-20.

- Bram, B. (2005). Some common problems involving prepositions in writing English in a multilingual context. In *Proceedings of the 53rd International TEFLIN Conference*, (pp. 95-99). Yogyakarta: Ahmad Dahlan University Press.
- Brender, A. (2002). *The effectiveness of teaching articles to (-ART) students in EFL classes using consciousness-raising methods*. Doctoral dissertation, Temple University.
- Cambridge Dictionary*. (2019). Cambridge University Press. Retrieved from <https://dictionary.cambridge.org/>
- Chodorow, M., Gamon, M. & Tetreault, J. R. (2010). The utility of article and preposition error correction systems for English language learners: Feedback and assessment. *Language Testing*, 27(3), 419-436.
- Chodorow, M., Tetreault, J. R. & Han, N. R. (2007). Detection of grammatical errors involving prepositions. Proceedings of the 4th ACL-SIGSEM Workshop on Prepositions, Prague, Czech Republic.
- Contribute. (2019). In *Cambridge dictionary online*. Retrieved from <https://dictionary.cambridge.org/search/direct/?q=contribute>
- Contribute. (2019). In *Longman dictionary of contemporary English online*. Retrieved from <https://www.ldoceonline.com/dictionary/contribute>
- Contribute. (2019). In *Macmillan dictionary*. Retrieved from <https://www.macmillandictionary.com/dictionary/british/contribute>
- Contribute. (2019). In *Oxford learner's dictionaries*. Retrieved from <https://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/english/contribute?q=contribute>
- Dalgish, G. (1985). Computer-assisted ESL research and courseware development. *Computers and Composition*, 2(4), 45-62.
- Debata, P. K. (2013). The importance of grammar in English language teaching – A reassessment. *Language in India*, 13(5), 482-486.
- Diab, N. (1997). The transfer of Arabic in the English writings of Lebanese students. *The ES-Pecialist*, 18(1), 71-83.
- Ellis, N. C. (2008). The dynamics of language use, language change, and first and second language acquisition. *Modern Language Journal*, 41(3), 232-249.
- Fauziati, E. & Maftuhin, M. (2016). Interlanguage verb tense systems of Indonesian EFL learners. *Journal of Foreign Languages, Cultures and Civilizations*, 4(2), 72-82.
- Fauziati, E. (2011). Interlanguage and error fossilization: a study of Indonesian students learning English as a foreign language. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 1(1), 25-40.
- Francis, J. J., Johnston, M., Robertson, C., Glidewell, L., Entwistle, V., Eccles, M. P., & Grimshaw, J. M. (2010). What is an adequate sample size? Operationalising data saturation for theory-driven interview studies. *Psychol. Health*, 25(10), 1229–124. doi: 10.1080/08870440903194015.
- Gargallo, I (2009) *Analisis contrastivo analisis de errores e interlengua en el marco de a lingüística contrstiva*, Madrid, España: Editorial Sisntesis S.A.
- Gass, S. (1979). Language transfer and universal grammatical relations. *Language Learning*, 29(2), 327-344.
- Grady, M. P. (1998). *Qualitative and action research: A practitioner handbook*. Bloomington: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation.
- Guest, G., Bunce, A. & Johnson, L. (2006). How many interviews are enough? An experiment with data saturation and variability. *Field Methods*, 18(1), 59–82. doi: 10.1177/1525822X05279903.
- Gvarishvili, Z. (2013). Interference of L1 prepositional knowledge in acquiring of prepositional usage in English. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 70, 1565-1573.
- Hill, C. L., Baird, W. O. & Walters, S. J. (2014). Quality of life in children and adolescents with osteogenesis imperfecta: a qualitative interview-based study. *Health Qual. Life Outcomes*, 12, 54. doi: 10.1186/1477-7525-12-54.

- Huang, L. S. (2010). The potential influence of L1 (Chinese) on L2 (English) communication. *ELT Journal*, 64(2), 155-164.
- Izumi, E., K., Uchimoto, T., Saiga, T., Supnithi & Ishara, H. (2003). Automatic error detection in the Japanese learner's English spoken data. Companion Volume to the Proceedings of the 41st Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (ACL).
- Jackson, M., Harrison, P., Swinburn, B. & Lawrence, M. (2015). Using a qualitative vignette to explore a complex public health issue. *Qual. Health Res.*, 25(10), 1395–1409. doi: 10.1177/1049732315570119.
- Jarvis, S. & Odlin, T. (2000). Morphological type, spatial reference, and language transfer. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 22(04), 535-556.
- Jha, A. K. (1991). Errors in the Use of Prepositions by Maithili Learners of English and Their Remedies. *Tribhuvan University Journal*, 14, 49-57.
- Johanson, B. (2017). *The use of English prepositions in Swedish schools: Bachelor degree project English linguistics*. Stockholm Universitet.
- Kepada. (n.d.). In *KBBI besar bahasa Indonesia (KBBI)*. (n.d.). Retrieved from <https://kbbi.kemdikbud.go.id/entri/kepada>
- Larry, J. (2015). *The difference between English preposition to and for*. Retrieved April, 25th, 2018, from <https://preply.com/en/blog/2015/02/26/the-difference-between-the-english-preposition-to-and-for/>.
- Loke, D. L., Ali, J. & Anthony, N. N. Z. (2013). A corpus-based study on the use of preposition of time 'on' and 'at' in argumentative essays of form 4 and form 5 Malaysian students. *English Language Teaching*, 6(9), 128-135.
- Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English Online*. (2019). Longman. Retrieved from <https://www.ldoceonline.com/>
- Lorincz, K. & Gordon, R. (2012). Difficulties in learning prepositions and possible solutions. *Linguistic Portfolios*, (1), 5. *Linguistics in Language Teaching*, 5(4), 161-170.
- Macmillan Dictionary*. (2019). Macmillan Education Limited. Retrieved from <https://www.macmillandictionary.com/>
- Mahmoodzadeh, M. (2012). A cross-linguistic study of prepositions in Persian and English: The effect of transfer. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 2(4), 734-740.
- Middlemiss, T., Lloyd-Williams, M., Laird, B. J. & Fallon, M. T. (2015). Symptom control trials in patients with advanced cancer: a qualitative study. *J. Pain Symptom Manag.*, 50(5), 642–649. doi:10.1016/j.jpainsymman.2015.05.009.
- Nurhayati, I. (2015). Interlanguage: grammatical errors on students' recount texts (a case study of the first year of MANN 2 Banjarnegara in the academic year 2014/2015). *Journal of English Language Teaching*. 4(1).
- Odlin, T. (1989). *Language transfer: Cross-linguistic influence in language learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*. (2019). Oxford University Press. Retrieved from <https://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/>
- Richards, J. C. (1984). *Error analysis: Perspectives on second language acquisition*. Oxford, Great Britain: Routledge.
- Ringbom, H. (1992). On L1 transfer in L2 comprehension and L2 production. *Language Learning*, 42(1), 85-112.
- Rustipa, K. (2011). Contrastive analysis, error analysis, interlanguage, and the implication to language teaching. *Jurnal Pengembangan Humaniora*, 11(1), 16-22.
- Sam, H. (2016). *Kata depan (preposisi) pengertian & (ciri – jenis – fungsi – contoh)*. Retrieved April, 25th, 2018, from www.dosenpendidikan.com/kata-depan-preposisi-pengertian-ciri-jenis-fungsi-contoh/.

- Sandelowski, M. (2008). Theoretical saturation. In Given, L. M (Eds), *The SAGE Encyclopedia of Qualitative Research Methods*. Thousand Oaks: Sage (pp. 875-876).
- Saravanan, J. (2014). The use of English prepositions: An empirical study. *Journal of NELTA*, 19(1-2), 158 – 168.
- Saaristo, P. (2015). Grammar is the heart of language: grammar and its role in language learning among Finnish university students. In J. Jalkanen, E. Jokinen, & P. Taalas (Eds), *Voices of pedagogical development – Expanding, exchanging, and exploring higher education language learning* (pp. 279-318).
- Selinker, L. (1972). Interlanguage. *IRAL-International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, 10(4), 209-232.
- Sinclair, J., (2011), *Collins-Cobuild English grammar*, Glasgow, Great Britain: Harper Collins Publisher.
- Springer Nature Limited. (2019). *Macmillan dictionary*. Retrieved May, 1st-30th, 2019, from www.macmillandictionary.com.
- Sudhakaran, B. (2015). Acquisition of English language prepositions in the absence of formal grammar teaching. *English Linguistics Research*, 4 (4). 88 – 99.
- Sutopo, D. (2013). The interlanguage of Indonesian young learner of English: a case study on an Indonesian bilingual school kindergarten student's English speaking acquisition. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 4(26), 175-182.
- Tetreault, J. R. & M. Chodorow. (2008). The ups and downs of preposition error detection in ESL writing. Proceedings of the 22nd International Conference on Computational Linguistics, Manchester, UK.
- Viloria, I. P., Ruiz, E. A., & Sanchez, G. T. (2017). *Prepositional error analysis in EFL students' written compositions: A thesis in English language teaching program education faculty*. Corporación Universitaria Minuto De Dios, Bogota Colombia.
- Wang, F. (2010). The necessity of grammar teaching. *English Language Teaching*, 3(2), 78-81.
- Wang, S. (2010). The significance of English grammar to middle school students in China. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 1(3), 313-319.
- Yuan, H. C. (2014). A Corpus-based study on the influence of L1 on EFL learners' use of prepositions. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 4(12), 2513-2521.
- Zhang, J. (2009). The necessity of grammar teaching. *International Education Studies*, 2(2), 184-187.
- Zhanming, W. (2014). Review of the influence of L1 in L2 acquisition. *Studies in Literature and Language*, 9(2), 57-60.



TEACHER TALK IN SCIENTIFIC APPROACH IN EFL CLASSROOM: A SPEECH ACTS PERSPECTIVE

Rihza Galih Faturrochman^{1*}, Achmad Anang Darmawan², Faishol Hadi³

^{1,2,3}STKIP Al Hikmah Surabaya

¹rihzagalih@gmail.com*

Received: 17 August 2020

Accepted: 29 November 2020

Abstract

This paper reviews teacher's utterances in the EFL Classroom using Speech Acts' perspective, specifically when the teacher are applying scientific approach in the learning process. Teacher's utterance has a lot of influence in the language learning process, such as: students' input and practice (Xiao-yan, 2006) and (Cullen, 1998). Even though the restriction on using scientific approach in all subjects has been revoked, some schools still apply scientific approach in EFL Classroom. Theoretically, since Indonesia uses English as foreign language, teacher's utterance has a prominent role in the process of learning in the classroom. In the classroom context, teacher talk can be found in the form of questions and feedback. The research had been done using qualitative method. In order to gather the data, observation and interview had been done in the early of 2020. It was found that a teacher in MA Bilingual Muslimat NU Sidoarjo uses the directive sentences mostly in the classroom, since she believes that encouraging students to speak in English is very necessary for English as foreign language learner.

Keywords: Teacher Talk; Speech Acts; Scientific Approach

INTRODUCTION

The latest curriculum in Indonesia, Curriculum 2013, is designed to improve the weak part of previous curriculum, Curriculum 2006. Zaim (2017) states that the Curriculum 2013 is emphasizing on fulfilling students' need in knowledge, the balance of soft and hard skills, and attitude. The increase of students' autonomous learning is also the target that is expected in the implementation of the Curriculum 2013. Ratnaningsih (2017) states that learning skill can improve students' creative thinking, problem solving, communication, collaboration, creativity, and innovation skills which are very important to survive in the 21st Century.

Furthermore, to attain the goal that has been set in the Curriculum 2013, it is also needed to choose the proper approach of the procedure in learning. Based on Ministry of National Education No. 65, the principles of learning in the Curriculum 2013 are: (1) focusing on students, (2) developing student's creativity, (3) initiating fun and challenging atmosphere, (4) containing value, ethic, aesthetics, logic, kinaesthetic, and (5) providing various learning experienc-

es through implementing various enthusiastic, contextual, effective, efficient, and meaningful learning strategies and methods.

It is clear that those are close to scientific approach. Zaim (2017) believes that scientific approach has a special characteristic which is enforcing the students to “do research” in order to learn something new. Instead of directly giving knowledge to the students, teachers in scientific approach must provide a positive environment that triggers students’ willingness and curiosity in learning which is to increase their autonomous learning. Consequently, scientific approach has stages of learning such as: observing, questioning, experimenting, associating, and communicating (Pramesthi, 2015).

Somehow, it is a quite challenging in English language teaching as Wahyudin (2015) argues that “...some experts believe that there is no literature in the history of TEFL/SL that supports the use of scientific-based learning to teach English...”. That is why it is quite difficult to find previous study about scientific approach in language learning, especially about teacher talk.

Furthermore, there are a lot of aspects that must be considered by teachers before they implement the approach into the classroom. One of them is teacher utterances during the learning process. It is important as Xiao-yan (2006) argues that teacher talk makes up to 70% of language in the classroom. Cullen (1998) adds that teacher talk also influences students’ input towards the language learning. In addition, Lasantu (2013) also finds that a teacher who uses direct speech more than indirect speech to the students brings bad impact to the teacher-students interaction in the classroom, which makes students less engaged and involved to the learning in the classroom. That is why teacher utterances need to be considered in order to make the language learning successful.

Different approach must have different composition of teacher talk produced in the classroom. Besides, since scientific approach focuses on students in the learning process rather than on the teacher, it is very different with other approaches that at least turn teachers as knowledge centre. This difference also influences what kind of utterances that should be produced by teachers. Study about teacher talk is expected to help all language teachers to hold a language learning optimally. Pangesti (2016) finds that teachers tend to use teacher talk such as questioning and giving information. Basra and Thooyibah (2017) have conducted a research to find out teacher talk in an EFL Classroom and found out that based on illocutionary acts’ theory, teacher talk can be classified as: 70% for directives, 21% for representatives, 6% for expressive, and 3% for commissive. The research is conducted without the presence of scientific approach as a variable. Setialis and Lukmana (2018) find that during the observing stage, the teacher utter 307 speech functions classified into 4 classes: 59 statements, 108 questions, 77 commands, and 63 acknowledgments. Besides, the remaining stages are waiting to be studied to have a clear picture of teacher talk in the scientific approach.

As discussed previously, Xiao-yan (2006), Pangesti (2016), and Basra and Thooyibah (2017) conduct research with concern only about the types of teacher talk produced in the classroom without considering the approach used by the teachers. Besides, Cullen (1998) and Lasantu (2013) focus on the impact of the teacher talk to the students, and Setialis and Lukmana (2018) study the types of teacher talk during the first stage of scientific approach only, which is observing stage. Those previous studies emerge a new question which is ‘What types of teacher talk produced by a teacher in learning activity while applying scientific approach in a meeting?’ This question is aimed to provide better understanding on holding English learning in the classroom while applying scientific approach. It has been known that even teacher’s utterance in the classroom also determines the success of the learning activities up to 70% (Xiao-yan, 2006). Furthermore, a more complete picture of teacher talks in the classroom which is applying scientific approach in a meeting is very important to help language teachers be more capable to teach students. Hence, this research is designed to find out what kind of speech acts uttered by

a teacher during the learning activity in a Senior High School level where the teacher applies scientific approach in his classroom and why it is chosen. Consequently, there are two research questions.

1. What types of speech acts are performed by the English teacher when applying scientific approach in the classroom?
2. Why does the teacher use the certain type of speech acts the most?

Speech acts

Yule (1996) defines speech acts as a behaviour or activity that is done through speech. Speech or utterance produced by a speaker is intended to tell something with an assumption that the listener get the meaning of what the speaker said. Saputro (2015) states that “speech acts are utterances that replace actions for particular goals in certain situations”. The meaning of the utterance can be acquired through understanding the context or the situation when the conversation happens. That is why in speech acts, interpreting an utterance cannot be separated with the context of the event and Yule (1996) names the term ‘speech event.’

Austin (1962) classifies speech acts into two, constative and performative. Constative is an utterance that is produced in order to tell something or describe something while performative is the utterance which is aimed to do something through speech. However, this research will focus only on performative which is produced by teacher in the classroom. In order to make an utterance become performative, Austin (1962) mentions some conditions that must be fulfilled.

(A.1) There must be a conventional procedure that accept and affect conventionally.

(A.2) The procedure must be uttered by the right person in the right condition.

(B.1) The procedure must be done by all involved people in order, and

(B.2) All the procedure is done.

(Gamma.1) The person involved in the procedure must have intention to do so.

(Gamma.2) The procedure must be done consequently.

From these conditions can be related to classroom context: (1) the procedure is the learning process, (2) the right person in the right procedure is the teacher who is teaching in the classroom, (3) the procedure which is done in order and completely is the situation happening in the classroom, and (4) the teacher must have intention in every utterance and be done consequently. In the learning activity, there must be a communication between teacher and students and the communication can be done both verbal and non-verbal. However, this research will only focus on verbal communication between teacher and students in the classroom, especially teacher’s utterances in communicating with the students. Sadock (2006) adds that speech acts embrace performance that is not discussed in phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, semantic, or in other general theory of performance or acts. The special feature in speech acts is the acts done through speaking cannot be analysed grammatically. Therefore, utterance’s formal features are really important in interpreting the meaning of the utterance. Even in certain cases, how the listener responds to the utterance is also giving contribution in making sense of the utterance. Therefore, Austin in Sadock (2006) classified utterances into three: Locutionary acts, Illocutionary acts, and Perlocutionary acts.

Illocutionary acts

Austin in Sadock (2006) defines that illocutionary acts “...is the apparent purpose for using a performative sentence...” The contrast of illocutionary acts with the two others of classification in speech acts is that the utterance shows an action or making someone do something. Therefore, illocutionary acts include as acts of ordering or requesting, asking, and stating or asserting. Searle (1999) classifies five types of illocutionary acts: Assertive force, directive force, commissive force, expressive force, and declarative force.

Declarative force

“Declarative force has a principle that words change the world.” (Basra & Thooyibah, 2017). Declarative force can be defined as utterance that has effect in changing a state or condition of someone.

[1] I choose Faisal to be the leader of discussion today!

The utterance [1] is addressed from a teacher to the students which change the position from ordinary students to the leader of discussion.

Assertive force

Assertive force is illocutionary acts that is uttered to express a statement related to reality. It can also be defined as an utterance that shows speaker’s assumption about the world.

[2] Sun rises in the east.

The utterance [2] expresses what the speaker believes about the world. Even though at certain issue people might have different opinion about it, it is highly considered as assertive force as long as it only expresses a statement.

Expressive force

The feeling of the speaker about certain situation is the definition of this force. For example: like, dislike, happiness, sadness, and many more.

[3] I am glad to hear that.

People can express their expression in numerous ways. This shows that context in interpreting an utterance is a must in order to have an accurate interpretation. Therefore, in this research, the researcher records the activity in the classroom to picture the situation and the context of every speech acts produced by the teacher.

Directive force

It is uttering speech which is meant to ask someone to do something can be done with directive force (Basra & Thooyibah, 2017)

[4] Turn on the light, please!

Commissive force

Basra and Thooyibah (2017) states that “It has something to do with showing speaker’s intention in the future as shown in the future.”

[5] I promise to buy you ice cream after school. (Basra & Thooyibah, 2017)

Utterance [5] shows someone’s willingness to do something in the future.

Speech acts are also needed in the classroom context since the activity of teaching and learning in the classroom must need a communication from both teacher and students. Nurani (2015) states that speech acts in the classroom context happen in the form of sharing knowledge, conducting activities, managing classroom, and addressing instructions. Therefore, speech acts and the classroom context are inseparable. The more teachers know speech acts in the classroom context, the more learning objectives will be acquired by students.

Teacher talk and the classroom context

A communication between teacher and students in the classroom are inevitable, moreover, in language classroom where communication between teacher and students affect the development of targeted language learning. Cullen (1998) proposes good reasons of enhancing teacher talk time (TTT) in the classroom:

1. For English as foreign language learners, teacher talk become one valuable source of language learning.

2. Since teacher is believed as the source of knowledge, reducing TTT will be not inappropriate both academically and culturally.
3. Teacher's questions can trigger student's engagement in the classroom interaction and the language learning itself.

Therefore, communication between teacher and students in the classroom should be noteworthy since it has significant role in language learning. Gasparatou (2018) believes that speech act theory should be relevant to whole types of human communication, especially in the classroom. Furthermore, Gasparatou (2018) argues that all dimensions of speech act theory can be provided in education:

1. Teacher and students exchange information in the classroom.
2. Education must be related to student's real life.
3. Education must improve students' ability i.e. autonomous learning, good morality, and becoming an ideal social member.

Teacher talk

Ruwaida (2015) defines teacher talk as language feature produced by teachers in the learning process. Ellis (1994) in Ruwaida (2015) has different perspective about teacher talk. In his view, teacher's speech in the learning process has different kind of language from other types of speech in language learning. Ellis' perspective has been supported by Xiao-yan (2006). Cullen (1998) argues that teacher talk is also a possible input for students in learning target language. In other words, teacher talk is teacher utterance that is produced in the learning process that has special feature compared to other language feature. Teacher talk can also be a potential input of language learning for students. Xiao-yan (2006) also adds that in EFL context, teacher talk can be a tool for teaching language rather than become a communication in the classroom only. Xiao-yan (2006) classified features in teacher talk into two, the "the formal features" and "the functional features".

The formal features of teacher talk

Xiao-yan (2006) states that teacher talk can be simplified syntactically, phonologically, and semantically. Xiao-yan (2006) also adds the example for those three aspects. In syntax, utterances to children are mostly short and simple. In phonology, utterances to children use high pitch, various pitches from high to low, and amplified pitch sound. Clear articulation is also needed as children are in the stage of learning how to produce English words. Paused utterances and low speed of utterance are also inseparable. While in semantic, the chosen words by teacher is important due to students' level of English proficiency. Introducing new word and unfamiliar word is done carefully. Chaudron (1988) in Xiao-yan (2006) has also discussed teacher talk and made conclusions:

1. Overall utterances are produced in slow speed.
2. Pauses appear frequently.
3. Clear and amplified utterances are in every pronunciation.
4. There are frequent uses of familiar vocabulary.
5. There are reduced uses of subordination utterance.
6. Questions are fewer than both declaratives and statements.
7. Self-repeat may appear many times.

The functional features of teacher talk

In language classroom, teachers have to fulfil their tasks: providing language input for students the best as teacher could, and advancing students to apply the target language in the classroom. Hence, TTT must be properly arranged (Xiao-yan, 2006). It is important in English

classroom to minimize TTT and maximize Students talk time (STT). However, Fillmore in Xiao-yan (2006) gives two conditions if the teacher talk time is minimized while student talk time is maximized. They are: students must have high level of English competency so they will not have any difficulties to interact among themselves, and students have willingness to use the target language in the classroom.

Besides, types of utterance produced by teacher in English classroom must be considered as well. Xiao-yan (2006) and Cullen (1998) have identified the functional features of teacher talk:

Teacher's questions

Xiao-yan (2006) believes that through giving questions to students, teacher can assess students' understanding about certain topic or how they think about the topic. Cullen (1998) argues that through questions, teacher can initiate students to apply the target language and trigger their willingness to use target language to communicate in the classroom. In addition, teacher's question can also be used to participate in the language learning (Ruwaida, 2015). Richards and Lockhart (1996) add that teacher ask questions to the students in order to:

1. Motivate and preserve student's interest
2. Encourage students to be critics
3. Clarify students' utterances
4. Elicit particular structure or vocabulary items
5. Check students' understanding
6. Encourage students' in learning activity.

Furthermore, teacher's questions can be classified into two: display questions, when teachers are giving questions and they already know the answer, and referential questions, which is used when the teachers give question and they do not know the answer (Cullen, 1998; Xiao-yan, 2006)

On the other hand, Richards and Lockhart (1996) divide teacher's questions into three.

1. Procedural Questions

Procedural questions deal with classroom procedures and routines, and classroom management.

2. Convergent Questions

Convergent questions encourage students to be involved in the topic discussed at that time. Convergent are only followed by two possible answers, yes or no.

3. Divergent Questions

As the opposite of convergent, divergent questions have a lot of possible questions. Therefore, students tend to give more information instead of only give confirmation or denial to teacher's statement.

In summary, questions deals with learning environment, such as classroom, and deals with the learning activity itself.

Teacher's feedback

Feedback is type of teacher talk used to assess students' responses (Xiao-yan, 2006). Feedback is important for the success of both communication between teacher and students and the input of language learning process (Cullen, 1998). Feedback can be both positive and negative (Xiao-yan, 2006). Positive feedback can increase students' motivation in learning, while negative feedback can distract the success of learning process. Teacher's feedback can be produced in the form of:

1. Correction

Teacher indicates a mistake made by students in the process of language learning and this is followed by the correction.

2. Assessment

Assessment refers to the way teacher discovers student's strength and weakness about the lesson. It can be found in the form of both question and request.

3. Confirmation

As teacher is doing assessment, teacher gives a clue whether students have done well. It will help students to improve their language proficiency.

4. Encouragement

Not only letting students know whether they are right or wrong, teacher must keep students' motivation in learning in order to make them still motivated.

The implication of teacher talk

As Xiao-yan (2006) argues that teacher talk is really important in the language learning and it makes up to 70 percent language used in the classroom. Cullen (1998) supports the argument with a statement that teacher talk also takes part in affecting students' input in learning language as in demand source of language material. Therefore, when discussing about the implication of teacher talk, ones must also discuss the theory of language acquisition, especially for this context, the theory of foreign language acquisition.

Since the environment in Indonesia does not support the use of English as daily language, teachers become the most frequent input for the students in acquiring English (Xiao-yan, 2006). Students barely learn English through their environment since people use their native language and Indonesian. Hence, English teachers for foreign learners have more role than English teachers for native learners. That is why Basra and Thooyibah (2017) urge the importance of considering teacher talk in classroom context since it is the major input for students in learning English in Indonesia.

Krashen (1981) introduces a "here and now" principle, where in acquiring new language, the situation that is going on when someone is learning English helps him to comprehend the utterance addressed to him. In the Indonesian context, classroom provides the most effective environment for students to follow the principle without being aware with it rather than any other environments such as neighborhood.

Scientific Approach

Scientific Approach does not only highlight learning outcomes as the goal of learning activity in the classroom, it also strengthens the importance of learning process as the goal of the learning activity (Ratnaningsih, 2017). Hence, students' curiosity in learning is the main activity in the classroom. In scientific approach there are five steps applied in the classroom; observing, questioning, experimenting, associating, and communicating (Ratnaningsih, 2017; Setialis & Rukmana, 2018; Zaim, 2017). All the stages in scientific approach are accelerating students to become the centre of the learning where they will become active learners instead of passive learners.

METHODS

The research type that was used in this research was qualitative research. Saldana (2011) defines qualitative research as "... an umbrella term for a wide variety of approaches to and methods for the study of natural social life". This research is aimed to capture a phenomenon in the English classroom in EFL context. In specific way, this research is designed to find out language pattern produced by teacher during learning process in the classroom while applying any stages of scientific approach. Wahyudin (2015) states that the procedure of collecting data in qualitative approach is: getting access, observing classroom activity, collecting related document, con-

ducting interview, and administering questioner. However, in this study, the researcher applied the procedures with some adjustments according to the situation and the aim of the research: getting access, observing classroom activity, collecting related document, making temporary analysis, and conducting in-depth interview.

Getting access to the school principal was the first step before getting into the classroom. It was important for administration business for both researcher and school administrators. The next step was observing classroom activity. In this step, the researcher collected the data using camera to record the learning process in the classroom. The records of the learning process helped the researcher to make transcript about teacher-whole students' interaction in the classroom which applying any stages of scientific approach. The data collected was about all teacher-whole students' interaction in the classroom for two meetings. The duration for each meeting was 90 minutes long, so all recordings in total were 180 minutes long. In the third step, the researcher collected related document in order to capture all teacher-whole students' interaction. All interaction that is in the form of recording were changed into written form which is known as transcript. The transcript helped the researcher to analyze all teacher-whole students' interaction based on the theory of Illocutionary act by Searle (1999).

After the transcript was analysed, in-depth interview was needed to clarify the findings. In-depth interview is important to strengthen the finding about the interaction in the classroom. Consequently, the result of in-depth interview was used to produce the result of qualitative approach. The number of in-depth interviews was conducted based on the need of the researcher in order to strengthen the findings.

The participant was a teacher in MA NU Bilingual Sidoarjo who teaches ten graders and applying any stages of scientific approach in every meeting of the learning process. In the data analysis technique, Miles and Huberman's (1994) interactive model was used to concede a conclusion: data collection, data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing and verification.

Data collection

Data collection is the process of collecting data in order to answer the research questions. In the case, the data was gathered through observation and interview.

Data reduction

Data reduction, as part of analysis process of qualitative research, is the process of preferring, reducing, detaching, and converting data form field notes or transcriptions (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Since this research focused on teacher talk, only teacher's utterances was analysed.

Data display

Data display is the process of analysis through organizing, compressed assembling the information in order to help drawing conclusion and action (Miles & Huberman, 1994). This research used a table adapted form Nurani (2015) to show the utterances produced by the teacher during the learning in the classroom.

Conclusion drawing and verification

The process is a way to generate an understanding of the issue. Miles and Huberman (1994) state that conclusion drawing can be done through "noting regularities, patterns, explanations, possible configurations, causal flows, and proportions".

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Types of speech acts performed by the English teacher when he applied scientific approach in the classroom

Table 1. Data Findings of Teach Talk in Scientific Approach in EFL Classroom using Speech Acts' Perspective

No	Classification of Speech Acts	Frequency	Percentage
1	Declarative	0	0 %
2	Assertive	40	42,10%
3	Expressive	2	2,10%
4	Directive	52	53,68%
5	Commisive	1	1,05%
Total		95	100,00%

In order to answer the first research question which is about the most used type of speech acts by the teacher in the English as foreign language classroom while using scientific approach, the researcher collected data through observing the classrooms and obtained the data using a video recorder. Then all the conversations in the video were transcribed so they could be analyzed. Before the transcription analysis, the data were reviewed in order to reduce the unnecessary data. In this research, the necessary data were all the teacher's talk in the classroom, hence only teacher talk's transcriptions would be analyzed. This process was known as reducing data. Then the necessary data was classified based on Searle's (1999) theory of Speech Acts.

During the learning activities in the classroom, the teacher used four of five classifications of speech acts with the total of 95 utterances during the learning process, while the students used 218 utterances during the class. It means that the teacher only produced 30,35% of the whole utterances during the class.

The teacher used directive mostly in the class, which is 51 times (53,68%). While the second most frequently used speech acts type is assertive, which is 40 times (42,10%). The teacher only used expressive two times (2,10%). Declarative and commisive were only be used once (1,05%). Hence, it could be concluded that the English teacher in MA Bilingual Muslimat NU Sidoarjo used Directive in the classroom the most.

Teacher's beliefs on producing directive type of speech acts the most

Table 2. Coding of Data Findings of Interview on Teacher Talk in Scientific Approach in EFL Classroom using Speech Acts' Perspective

No	Hierarichal Name	Number of Coding References
1	Second semester focus on student's presentation	1
2	Collaboration to make a condusive environment for learning English	1
3	Encourage students to speaking English	4
4	Enforce students to speaking English	2
5	Students centre learning	1

The second research question was answered using interview. The interview was used to find the reason on using the certain type of speech acts in the classroom by the teacher most of the time, especially during the observation. In this case, the teacher mostly used 'Directive' in the classroom.

After the interview has been done, then the data was transcribed so it can be reduced in order to eliminate the unnecessary data. After the data has been transcribed and reduced, the data was encoded. In order to help the researcher encode the data, the researcher is using an application 'NVivo 12'. Since the focus of the scientific approach in the learning is the enhancement of students' autonomous learning skill (Ratnaningsih, 2017), the teacher believes that the students need to be the centre of the learning. Hence, students should be the one who present the material. This will also help them to increase their speaking ability and willingness to speak in English.

In order to enhance students' willingness to speak in English, the teacher encourage students to speak English. Without considering the grammar, the teacher believes that students' courage is a major aspect in enhancing speaking skill. Therefore, the first thing that the teacher wants the students to have is the courage to share their opinion and feeling orally. This finding is relevant with the Xiao-yan's (2006) statement that teacher talk has a function to encourage students in the learning process. Directive in the classroom can be found in various types of expressions, such as: questions, requests, invitation, commands, challenges, orders, summons, entreaties, dares, and suggestions.

CONCLUSION

A conclusion that can be derived from this research is that a teacher in the MA NU Bilingual Muslimat NU Sidoarjo uses directive type the most (53,68%) in the English learning activity while the declarative type is not uttered by the teacher at all. The teacher believes that using directive type is to encourage students to speak in English confidently. Since the goal is to encourage students to speak in English, the teacher only produces 30,35% utterance in the classroom, while the rest of the utterance are produced by students.

In this case, the teacher encourage students to speak in English as frequent as possible by the giving the maximum chance for the students to speak. The teacher instructs the students to present a material in front of the class, so they will both learn the material before present it and learn how to deliver a presentation in English. Besides, the teacher also spares some time for the other students who become the audience to speak in English for giving questions about the materials, giving suggestions about the way presenters perform, and share their opinions about the material presented.

REFERENCES

- Austin, J. L. (1962). *How to do things with words*. Oxford University Press.
- Basra, S. M., & Thoyyibah, L. (2017). A Speech Act analysis of teacher talk in an EFL classroom. *International Journal of Education*, 10(1), 73. <https://doi.org/10.17509/ije.v10i1.6848>
- Chaudron, C. (1988). Second Language classrooms: Research on teaching and learning. In *Inorganic Chemistry: Principles of structure and reactivity*. Cambridge University Press.
- Cullen, R. (1998). Teacher talk and the classroom context. *ELT Journal*, 52(3), 179–187. <http://eltj.oxfordjournals.org/>
- Gasparatou, R. (2018). How to do things with words: Speech acts in education. *Educational Philosophy and Theory*, 50(5), 510–518. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00131857.2017.1382353>
- Krashen, S. D. (1981). *Second language acquisition and second language learning*. Pergamon Press.
- Lasantu, Z. L. (2013). *A study of teacher talk in English for Specific Purposes class at Poltekkes Kemenkes Surabaya Jurusan Keperawatan Prodi D III Keperawatan Kampus Sutopo Surabaya*.

- Miles, M. B., & Huberman, M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis* (Second). SAGE Publications Inc.
- Nurani, N. P. (2015). *A pragmatic analysis of classroom Speech Acts in the English teaching and learning at SMAN 1 Purworejo (A Case Study)*. S1 thesis, Universitas Negeri Yogyakarta.
- Pangesti, D. (2016). *Teacher talk in English teaching and learning process at SMK Batik 1 Surakarta in 2015/2016 Academic Year. Skripsi thesis*, Universitas Muhammadiyah Surakarta.
- Pramesthi, B. S. (2015). *Developing Scientific-Approach-based English learning materials for Grade XI students of Welding Engineering Department of SMKN 1 Sedayu*. S1 thesis, Universitas Negeri Yogyakarta.
- Ratnaningsih, S. (2017). Scientific Approach of 2013 Curriculum: Teachers' implementation in English language teaching. *English Review: Journal of English Education*, 6(1), 33. <https://doi.org/10.25134/erjee.v6i1.768>
- Richard, J. C., & Lockhart, C. (1996). *Reflective teaching in Second Language classrooms*. Cambridge University Press.
- Ruwaida, D. (2015). *Teacher's talk on giving question in teaching English at MAN Kunir Wonodadi Blitar*. Skripsi thesis, IAIN Tulungagung.
- Sadock, J. (2006). The handbook of Pragmatics (Blackwell Handbooks in Linguistics). In L. R. Horn & G. Ward (Eds.), *The handbook of Pragmatics*. Blackwell Publishing.
- Saldana, J. (2011). *Fundamentals of qualitative research: Understanding qualitative Research*. Oxford University Press.
- Saputro, E. P. N. (2015). *The analysis of illocutionary acts of Jokowi's speeches*. Master's thesis, Sanata Dharma University.
- Searle, J. (1999). *Mind, language and society: Philosophy in the real world*. Basic Books.
- Setialis, A., & Lukmana, I. (2018). Teacher talk realization in observing stage of Scientific Approach: An interpersonal meaning analysis of EFL classroom discourse. *Edulitics Journal*, 3(1), 29–35.
- Wahyudin, A. Y. (2015). *The implementation of Scientific Method in teaching English as a Foreign Language at Senior High School Level*. S2 thesis, Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia.
- Xiao-yan, M. (2006). *Teacher talk and EFL in university classroom*. China, print.
- Yule, G. (1996). *Pragmatics*. Cambridge University Press.
- Zaim, M. (2017). Implementing Scientific Approach to teach English at Senior High School in Indonesia. *Asian Social Science*, 13(2), 33. <https://doi.org/10.5539/ass.v13n2p33>



DESIGNING MEANINGFUL AND RELEVANT ACTIVITIES TO ENHANCE STUDENTS' MOTIVATION DURING COVID-19 PANDEMIC

Andreas Winardi

Universitas Kristen Duta Wacana

aw_ppbi@staff.ukdw.ac.id

Received: 30 November 2020

Accepted: 31 December 2020

Abstract

Teachers and students all over the world are now facing the biggest shift in their lives, from studying in the school to studying at home, from meeting their teachers and friends face to face to meeting them via technology, and from depending on teachers to give them knowledge to depend on themselves. This change is not easy to cope with, both teachers and students are at their wit's end. They are confused what to do and if this continues, they will be frustrated and lose their motivation for learning. Many parents complain that their children have to do a lot of assignments that overwhelm them. As a result, they lose motivation. To remedy this situation, teacher needs to design activities which are relevant and meaningful to their students.

Keywords: Meaningful, Relevant, Motivation

INTRODUCTION

The outbreak of Covid-19 pandemic has changed every aspect of our life. In this new situation, we have to obey the health protocol such as wearing a mask, washing our hands, and doing physical distancing. In the field of education, the teaching-learning process must also follow the strict rule of avoiding physical interaction; therefore, students are not allowed to go to school and the lessons are delivered online.

The online learning is quite problematic for both teachers and students. In the past, teachers used to meet their students in the classroom and then there were a lot of activities that students did like playing games, singing some songs, and having group work. But, in online learning, the activities are limited, usually the teachers explain the materials, then give assignments. If this pattern continues, it will result in students getting bored and losing their motivation for learning.

The question is how teachers can keep the students engaged and motivated. To answer this question, we need to define what motivation is. Deci and Ryan (2000, p. 55) state that there are two types of motivation, namely intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. According to them, intrinsic motivation refers to "doing something because it is inherently interesting or enjoyable", while extrinsic motivation refers to "doing something because it leads to separable outcome". Simi-

larly, Adama, Ekwutosim, and Unamba (2018, p.53) posited that intrinsic motivation is “an inner force that motivates students to engage in academic activities, because they are interested in learning and they enjoy the learning process as well” while the extrinsic motivation “promotes effort and performance with rewards serving as positive reinforces for the desired behavior.” From these definitions, it can be concluded that the lecturers can make the students intrinsically motivated by designing interesting and enjoyable activities so that the students eagerly do the activities, while to promote external motivation, the lecturers may inform the students that the activities they do are relevant and meaningful and will be beneficial for them in the future. We often hear the statement, “why should we study hard if what we learn in campus cannot be used after I graduate?” or “The subjects I learn are not in match with the demand of the business world” The lecturers must counter these complaints by showing them the relevance and the purpose of doing certain activities.

Related to the discussion about external motivation, one needs to know the definition of meaningful and relevant activities. Christiansen and Baum (1997; p. 599 in Eakman, 2013, p. 101) defined the meaning of activities as “the personal significance of an event as interpreted by an individual.”, while relevant activities simply put is, based on Oxford Learner’s Dictionary, “closely connected with the subject you are discussing or the situation you are in.” In summary meaningful and relevant activities are activities that the students consider important and can be applied to the real world or transferable to fulfill their needs or goals.

DISCUSSION

This semester, I teach among others: *English for Job Hunting* (EfJH), *English for International Communication* (EfIC), and *English for Business Communication* (EBC). In this section, I share some activities I have assigned my students to do in these three classes.

Activities in *English for Job Hunting class*

Digital curriculum vitae (CV)

When people want to apply for a job, they send their CV and Cover Letter usually through mail or e-mail. But, in this digital era, some companies start to ask its applicants to send the videos about him/herself. This digital CV has an advantage for both the company and the applicants. For the company, they can see the applicant in person because sometimes the photo that the applicant send is quite different from the “real” person. Through videos, the company can see the face and listen to the applicants’ voices. For the applicants, sending a video is a golden opportunity to persuade and convince the company to employ them.

The activities consist of 3 stages:

1. Preparation stage

To be able to successfully facilitate the students to “convince the company” in this activity, the teachers should do the following:

- a. Make sure that the students look confident when they present themselves. One way to boost their confidence is to rehearse many times. They need to present in front of the mirror and record themselves. They can be asked to watch their videos repeatedly and make necessary improvements.
- b. Equip themselves with the skills to give a successful presentation.

In terms of contents, students should not make mistakes such as saying “I want to present-ed” or “I want to presentation about myself”, “I am good at speak”, or “I could be better at analyze”, “I am able to singing” and many other possible mistakes. In terms of delivery, students should speak clearly and confidently. They should not speak too fast or too slow. They should be reminded not to hesitate to make eye contact to the audience (despite the audience being virtual one, students should speak as if they speak directly to them). Stu-

dents must not speak monotonously or else they will make them bored and sleepy. They should be encouraged to use gestures to make the presentation alive.

2. Presentation Stage

In this stage, the students send their videos to the lecturers. Then, the lecturers watch the videos.

3. Evaluation Stage

After watching the videos, the lecturers give correction and feedback to the students. If needed, their peers can also give feedback (to help them, the lecturers may give them rubrics as a guideline to evaluate their friends' performances). Upon receiving the feedback from the lecturers and friends, the students then revise their videos.

Online interview

After students (applicants) sending the CV and Cover Letter, the company will invite some shortlisted candidates to be interviewed. The interview is of utmost importance because usually this is the final stage to decide whether an applicant is accepted or not. Downes (2008, p. 50) states that "responding to questions at an interview is your opportunity to give evidence of your skills and experience, prove you know what the job entails, and demonstrate you are the best person for the job."

Like the digital CV activity, the online interview also has three stages:

1. Preparation stage

In this stage, in addition to giving general tips such as finding the exact location of the company, having enough rest before the interview date, and coming early to the interview, the lecturers can give tips on how to answer the interview questions successfully. Usually there are two types of questions:

- a. Questions about the applicants' motivation, knowledge, education, ambition, and personality. The following are the examples:
 - (a) Tell me about yourself.
 - (b) What are your strengths?
 - (c) What are your weaknesses?
 - (d) What university did you attend and why did you choose to study there?
 - (e) Why do you want to work in our company?
 - (f) Where do you see yourself in five years' time?
 - (g) Why should we hire you?
 - (h) Why do you believe you are the best candidate for this position?

Lecturer may give tips, for example, when answering the questions about weaknesses:

- (a) Applicants should not say that they have none. This is because the company will consider an arrogant.
- (b) Applicants should not mention their weakness without mentioning the steps to tackle them. If you just list your weaknesses, the company may be afraid to hire you because your weakness may hinder you to give maximum contributions to the company.
- (c) Related to these tips mentioned, it will be better that in addition to mentioning their weaknesses, they also inform the company on how they overcome your weaknesses, for example:

"In the past, I could not speak English well, but I took an English course and kept improving my English by listening to English songs and watching English movies. By doing so, my English is getting better."

b. Competency-based questions

These types of questions gauge the students' ability to handle specific situations. For examples:

- (a) Have you ever had to make a difficult decision? Tell me about it.
- (b) Have you ever experienced pressure at university or at work?
- (c) Have you ever played an important role in a team?
- (d) Have you ever demonstrated your leadership ability?
- (e) Have you ever organized an important event?

Lecturers may suggest that the students use the STAR method to answer these questions (Downes, 2008). The acronym STAR stands for: **Situation**: Lecturers can begin by explaining the situation or the problems that the students face, for example, they are going to have an exam, but their mother call to go home because their father is ill. **Target/Task**: The students must decide whether to take the exam or go home to visit their father. **Action(s)**: Students discuss with the lecturers about the situation. **Result**: The lecturers give the students permission to go home and schedule a make-up exam.

2. Interview stage

This is conducted online and the lecturers may opt to interview the students or assign the students to work in pairs and in turn they may become interviewer and interviewee.

3. Evaluation stage

The lecturers give feedback to students regarding the things that need improvement, for example, lack of eye contact, unnecessary gestures, and inappropriate dress.

The two mentioned activities, digital CV and online interview, are meaningful and relevant for the students because most of them will hunt for a job after they graduate.

Activities in English for International Communication class

I share some activities the students have done in the class set up in response to that the world is going global and the needs to interact with people from other cultures increase.

Learning to enhance communication skills

To ensure effective communication, students need to be able to pronounce words correctly so that their speaking partners comprehend the message. First of all, I asked my students how to pronounce the word "ewe". Most of them were confused or did not know how to pronounce that word. After asking some students to pronounce the word, I informed them that actually we can check how to pronounce the word by using the phonetic symbols found in a dictionary. Then, we practiced to pronounce some English words using the phonetic symbols as a reference.

Next, I informed them that we often find it difficult to understand the native speakers of English because they tend to speak fast by linking the sounds. Then, we watched a video on how the sounds are linked in English. To practice, I gave them tongue twisters like:

- 1. How much wood would a woodchuck chuck if a woodchuck could chuck wood.
- 2. She sells seashell on the seashore.
- 3. Peter piper picked a peck on a pickled pepper.

The students found this exercise very fun and entertaining. Finally, to check their understanding, I dictated some English words, the students wrote down the words, for examples: (ju:) ewe, (blu:) blew.

The activities are relevant and meaningful for the students because in this global era, it is highly probable that they will need to communicate with people from around the world.

Crossing cultures

We live in the multicultural world and with the advancement of technology and communication, it is easier for students to study and work abroad. On the other hand, there will be more and more foreign students and workers coming to Indonesia. This phenomenon requires stu-

dents to be aware that they will deal with people whose cultures may be very different from their cultures and they need to realize the importance of understanding other cultures. Failing to understand other cultures may result in misunderstanding, conflict, and embarrassment. Here are some activities that can be used to increase students' awareness and understanding of other cultures:

I divided the students into two groups. I gave the first group a text about Japanese cultures and the other group a text about Italian cultures. I asked each group to read the text and list some important cultural information. Then, I asked each person to find a partner (Japanese with Italian). They pretended to be a Japanese businessman/woman or Italian businessman/woman. They imagined that their business partner (from Italy or Japan) would visit their country to discuss business with them. Before their partner came to visit, their job is to inform their partner about some customs or cultures that they needed to obey during their visit.

Learning other cultures will certainly be relevant and meaningful for students who intend to study or work in another country because each country has its unique customs. For example, in some countries, women are not allowed to shake hands with people of the opposite sex, so we can imagine how awkward the situation is when our male students offer to shake hands with their female co-workers. Additionally, the way people greet others may differ around the world. The Japanese bow their head, people from Middle-East may hug their friends, the European men and women tend to kiss cheek to say hello, and many more.

Furthermore, one part of the cultures is gestures. Students need to be aware that the same gestures may have different meanings across places, for example: head nod which means 'yes' in Indonesia may mean 'no' in some parts of the world. Blanchard and Root (2007) give some information regarding the meaning of gestures all over the world, for example: finger circle. This is widely accepted as the American "OK" sign, while in Brazil and Germany, it is considered vulgar or obscene. It is also considered impolite in Greece and Russia. From this example, it can be seen that even the seemingly insignificant "OK" sign, if used in Brazil and Germany may cause anger and lead to broken relationship.

Hence, to illustrate the use of gestures, I played two videos. The first video was about Italian gestures and the second video was about Japanese gestures. We played a simple guessing games; I played the video, then paused, and gave students an opportunity to guess the meaning. It was fun and hilarious.

Making an appointment

In their future career, students will need to make an appointment with their clients, investors, and suppliers. Hence, I played a video about requesting, agreeing/disagreeing a date, cancelling an appointment, and suggesting an alternative date. The students watched the video and learned some expressions/phrases. After that they did a role play on making an appointment.

Describing people

Describing people is an important skill to learn because they will need to do this, for example, when they must pick up somebody from the airport. To ensure that the person they are about to meet recognize them, they need to be able to describe themselves accurately. As an exercise, I asked my students to send an e-mail (to an imaginary person) describing him/herself.

World Englishes

In the world of limitless possibilities, the students may travel all around the world, and communicate with people who speak various kinds of English (American English, British English, Australian English, Indian English, and many others). As an example, I played a video about the differences between American and British English. From this video, the students can learn that American and British English differ in terms of vocabulary, spelling, and pronunciation. In vocabulary, for example, American people say "garbage/trash" while British say "rubbish".

Americans say “cookie” while British say “biscuit”. In spelling, American write “humor” while British write “humour”. In terms of pronunciation, one of the differences is Americans tend to pronounce the “r” clearly, while the British tend not to say the “r” sound.

I then asked the students to make a video regarding many variants of English. By doing so, I hope that my students will be more aware, open-minded, and appreciative to the different kinds of English.

Activities in *English for Business Communication class*

As the name of the course suggests, the students who take this class will learn how to communicate in a business context. There are a lot of relevant and meaningful activities in class.

Describing products

At some point in their life, the students of business will need to describe their products or service to their clients, prospective customers, or investors. In order to be able to do the tasks successfully, the students need to be adequately prepared. Lecturers can share the knowledge about how to describe products, for example, when describing products, they can talk about:

1. Its size: it is tiny, small, big, or others.
2. Its shape: it is round, oval, flat, or others.
3. Its ingredients (what is it made of?): It is made of plastic. It is made of metal, it is made of wood.
4. Its function: It is used for cutting wood. It is used for showing directions.
5. Its special features: It has a handle. It has some buttons.

In addition to the basic things to describe products, it will be better for the lecturers to inform his/her students that in order to persuade or convince the prospective investors/buyers to invest or buy, they need to highlight the competitive advantage and the problems that their products can solve. For example: I showed them a video about a small car which is so small that the owner can put the car in her pocket. This product can solve some problems such as the difficulties in finding parking spot and getting stuck in a traffic jam. Another important thing that the lecturers need to inform his/her students is no matter how good their product is if they cannot present/describe the products in such interesting and impressive ways, the investor will not invest and the buyers will not buy. Therefore, the students need to be equipped with presentation skills such as using powerful adjectives like “fantastic”, “remarkable”, and “awesome”, instead of just common and plain adjectives like “good” and “nice”. It is also useful for the students to make a demo on how the product works because some people will not believe until they see. Hence, using visual aids will make the presentation more attractive. In the lesson, I played several videos about innovative products and how the investors present their products convincingly, enthusiastically, and confidently. After watching the video, the students could create their own videos describing the product that they wanted to sell.

Business meetings

Having meetings is something that cannot be avoided in the business world. Business people need to brainstorm and discuss some ideas to solve their problems or implement new policies. To participate effectively in a meeting, students must have the skills such as:

1. Giving ideas or suggestions:
 - a. I think we should/should not _____
 - b. If I were you, I would _____
2. Agreeing with ideas
 - a. I think you are absolutely right.
 - b. That is a brilliant idea.
3. Disagreeing with ideas
 - a. I think that's a good idea, but _____

b. I don't think your idea will work because _____

I divided the students into several teams, and each team had to do a business meeting simulation. One of them become the chairperson of the meeting and the others took certain roles like the Human Resource Manager, the Finance Director, the Marketing Manager, and others. Each team did a business meeting simulation, for example, to discuss how to survive in the pandemic era, then sent the link of the videos to me.

CONCLUSION

To motivate the students, lecturers need to design activities that have connections or can be applied to the real world. Moreover, students will be enthusiastically do the activities when they know that the activities are relevant with their needs and meaningful for their life, for example, the needs to communicate with people from other cultures that will expand their horizons and widen their insights. Another example of relevant and meaningful activities is mastering job interview techniques because most of them will search for the job after they graduate, and the ability to answer interview questions effectively will maximize their opportunity to get their dream job.

REFERENCES

- Adamma, O. N., Ekwutosim, O. P., Unamba, E. C. (2018). Influence of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation on pupils' academic performance in mathematics. *Supreme Journal of Mathematics Education*, 2(2) 52-59.
- Blanchard, K. & Root, C. (2007). *For your information* (Second Edition). New York: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Deci, E. & Ryan, R. M. (2000). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations: Classic definitions and new directions. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 25, 54-67.
- Downes, C. (2008). *Cambridge English for job hunting*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Eakman, A. M. (2013). Relationship between meaningful activity, basic psychological needs, and meaning in life: Test of the meaningful activity and life meaning model. *OTJR Occupation Participation Health* · March 2013. DOI: 10.3928/15394492-20130222-02



A CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS IN GRETA THUNBERG'S SPEECH

Yuli Suryaningsih

Universitas Gadjah Mada

yulisuryaningsih@mail.ugm.ac.id

Received: 28 February 2020

Accepted: 27 October 2020

Abstract

Although the study of personal pronouns in speeches is very popular, only a few studies are conducted to analyze non-political speeches. In spite of Greta Thunberg's famous and bold speaking manners, none of the researchers are interested to look deeper at speeches delivered by the young activist. In this study, I employ Fairclough's (1992a) model of Critical Discourse Analysis to examine the use of 102 first-and-second person personal pronouns in her speeches. Forty-seven percent of the pronouns are you and twenty-five percent of the pronouns are we. Furthermore, the high percentage of the occurrence towards you and we shows the characterization of her speeches. It shows both othering strategy and personalization strategy between the speaker and the audience. In addition, the pronouns act both as inclusive and exclusive. The variation of inclusiveness and exclusiveness is highly affected by who the audience is. These findings propound that the use of the same pronouns by the same person acts differently depending on who the audience is.

Keywords: critical discourse analysis, pronoun, exclusive, inclusive

INTRODUCTION

When related to a discourse, the inappropriate use of pronouns may cause miscommunication referring to how the others are addressed (Fromkin, Rodman, & Hyams (2011). Personal pronouns indicate the interpersonal strategies of the speaker. In this paper, I draw an implication from relating the language use, especially the personal pronouns and the social stances. Language is flexible enough to change and develop according to its social settings and the speaker's intentions (Hasan, 2013). It means that the language can be used to conclude what the speaker is going to convey and why he/she is using the particular features, especially the personal pronouns.

Pronouns are grammatical items that represent the meaning from other noun phrases in a discourse (Fromkin et al., 2011; Greenbaum & Nelson, 2002). There are several types of pronouns but this research will focus only on the use of first-person and second-person personal pronouns. Greenbaum and Nelson (2002) categorize personal pronouns as seen in Table 1.

Table 1. The Categorization of English Personal Pronouns

	Subjective Case	Objective Case
First Person		
Singular	<i>I</i>	<i>Me</i>
Plural	<i>We</i>	<i>Us</i>
Second Person		
Singular/plural	<i>You</i>	<i>You</i>
Third Person		
Singular		
- Masculine	<i>He</i>	<i>Him</i>
- Feminine	<i>She</i>	<i>She</i>
- non-personal	<i>It</i>	<i>It</i>
Plural	<i>They</i>	<i>They</i>

In relation to discourse, pronouns are used to represent an object/an entity that has been mentioned previously. The misuse of pronouns may cause misunderstanding between the speaker and the hearer. A pronoun gets its reference from the previous noun phrases within the same sentence so it is bound to that noun phrase (Fromkin et al., 2011). In a discourse, the choice of personal pronoun is able to indicate the speaker's discursive strategies in communication (Gochecho, 2012). Generally, the usage of personal pronouns in a speech may portray the social distance, politeness, or solidarity between the speaker and the audience (Bano & Shakir, 2015; Hasan, 2013). Thus, the use of personal pronouns in a speech is absolutely related to the way the speaker addresses someone or himself. It is implied that addressing someone using a certain personal pronoun may show how distant the relationship between the speaker and the audience. In this research, I focus only on the use of first-person personal pronouns (I and we) and the second-person personal pronoun (you). It is possible to formulate the ideational and interpersonal functions in terms of social distance in a particular context by seeing the choice of pronoun (Widdowson, 2004). The personal pronouns you and we are used to personalize the communication in order to accomplish implicitness towards the audience (Woods, 2006). The personalization strategy is commonly found in advertisement to persuade the recipient. It is assumed that when a speaker uses personalization, it means that he/she knows a lot about the audience. In other words, it makes the speaker and audience become closer. The personal pronoun you is specially used as the speaker speaks directly to the audience.

In the real context of communication, Dan (2015) states that there is a vagueness in the use of personal pronouns as you may represent the plurality of you but we does not present the plurality of I. The pronoun we has more complex referential presuppositions. Goddard (1995) interprets that we is used to initiate the audience to think of who else than I is being talked about. It is also explained that we contains a metalinguistic act of 'same-saying', within the speaker and the audience in solidarity. Further, Woods (2006) and Dan (2015) state that the personal pronoun we can be interpreted as 'you and me', 'me and the people I represent, but not you', and 'me and the people I represent along with you too'. Reviewing the previous statement, it means that I need to take a deep understanding to identify the use of pronoun we in the speech. Thus, the first personal pronoun I is generally used to show commitment in taking responsibility towards certain actions (Woods, 2006). It also shows subjectivity which also leads into several negative assumptions such as self-centeredness/selfishness, subjectivity, and exclusiveness

There are a lot of previous studies that give overviews of the choice of personal pronouns in a speech. It shows that how the speaker chooses the personal pronouns to address specific parties is very important in a speech or other spoken discourse. First, Inigo-Mora (2013) conducted a study that involved three main political interviews of the President of Spain (Jose M. Aznar),

the President of the USA (G.W. Bush), and the Prime Minister of the UK (Tony Blair). Second, different from the previously mentioned study, Hasan (2013) conducted a study focusing on one speaker only. The study also involved a political discourse. The data were taken from Hosni Mubarak's speech. From the data, the study analyzed the use of in-group and out-group pronouns in the speech. This study was described using Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA). Third, Kaussouhon and Dossoumou (2015) also conducted a study analyzing the speech of President Buhari. The study combined the theory of Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) and Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA). In this study, the choice of personal pronouns is used as the support of deontic and epistemic modality choices.

Fourth, Goheco (2012) conducted a study of Tagalog language focusing on the pronominal choice in relation to persuasion and culture reflection in the Philippines. The data were taken from a political discourse that also played role as a campaign and advertisement on television. In the study, the researcher pointed out that persuasion strategies were embedded in the use of personal pronouns by the politicians. As the conceptual framework, the study employed Schacter's and Otnes' (1972) categories of personal pronouns namely genitive, absolutive, and locative. In this study, I followed Goheco's analysis of personal pronouns by choosing a theory of the categorization as the framework. The use of personal pronouns was seen according to their corresponding forms. As the basis in interpreting the data, the researcher adapted Reid's and Liao's (2004) theory about a patient as the undergoer role and an agent which carries the actor's macro role. The result of the study was supported by quantitative data in the form of percentage. Further, the result was described along with the examples and explanations.

As shown by the numerous previous studies, personal pronouns in political discourse have been studied popularly. The language portrays how the speaker constructs the information, ideas, persuasion, and how they are delivered. Unfortunately, none of them analyze the use of personal pronouns in non-political speeches. To fill the gap, I do not use data from political discourse. The data of this study are taken from a persuasive speech delivered by Greta Thunberg during the UN Climate Summit 2019 and the Montreal Global Climate Change 2019. Greta Thunberg is well-known for her straightforward and bold speaking manners to the world leaders. Media describe her as a role model for future leaders because of her strike movements. In the past two years, she has received numerous awards and honors. She was also featured on the cover of Time magazine. A study that analyzes the language aspects in Greta Thunberg's speech has not been found despite of her popularity. Thus, I believe that this topic is interesting to study.

In line with the previous studies, this study aims at revealing personal pronouns that characterize the speech delivered by Greta Thunberg. To limit the area of the study, I only focus on the use of first-person personal pronouns and second-person personal pronouns since they are closely related to the speaker and the audience. Dan (2015) states that the speaker and the audience of a communication context are generally marked linguistically by the first-person and second-person pronouns. In particular, this study questions how the first-person personal pronouns and second-person personal pronouns characterize Greta Thunberg's speech.

From this study, the readers will know how personal pronouns are used in Greta Thunberg's speech as a strategy for delivering her ideas. Considering all the pros and cons towards the climate activist Greta Thunberg, some insecurities about the worsening climate change among youths, and the contrast mindset with senior world leaders, it is worth to understand Greta's speech in a deeper way. I expect the readers to be able to see how Greta put herself in the setting, and how she makes the audience ideologically motivated or empathized to support her actions.

METHOD

Research design

To serve as the theoretical framework of the study, I employ Fairlough's (1992a) Model of Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) as conducted by Al-Gublan (2015) to examine how power

and strategy were presented by jurists in the deposition of Bill Clinton. Fairclough (1992a) suggests a three-step model namely: 1) the investigation of linguistic features within a text in the discourse; 2) the discursive practice exploration in which the text is related with the processing analysis; and 3) the consideration of the wider context in which the text is used as the socio-cultural practice. The use of CDA was enough since it also explained the relation between the text and the social context.

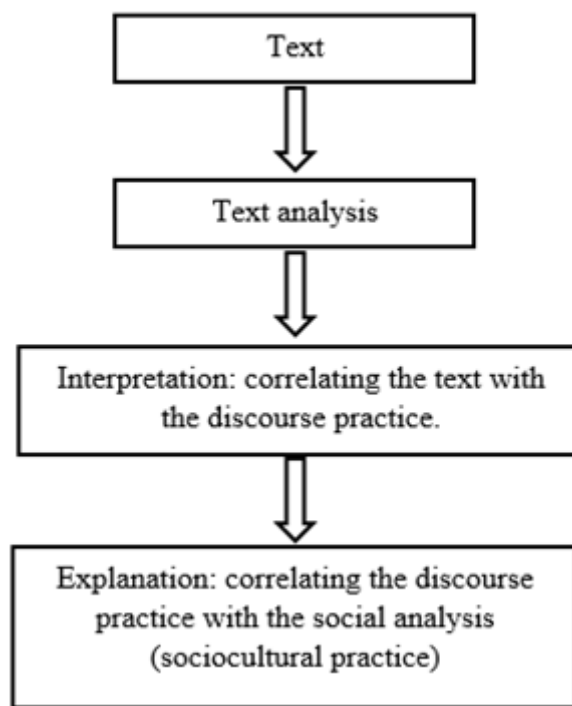


Figure 1. The model of Critical Discourse Analysis by Fairclough

In this research, the English personal pronoun categorization proposed by Greenbaum and Nelson (2002) was employed. However, this study focused on only the application of first-person personal pronouns (I, we) and second-person personal pronoun (you). To support the interpretation, I presented data percentages in terms of the personal pronouns as done by Gochecho (2002). The quantitative data were important to strengthen the interpretation. The theory of personal pronouns in relation to context proposed by Woods (2006) was also employed. In addition, the explanation in this study involved the support of the previous studies so the result is well grounded.

Data Source

The data were taken from two speeches delivered by Greta Thunberg. The first speech was delivered during the UN Climate Summit 2019 that took place in New York City on 23 September 2019. The speech had been watched 4.1 million times on the Guardian official YouTube channel, 5 million times on VICE News official YouTube channel, and 2.6 million times on the PBS NewsHour official YouTube channel up until December 4th 2019. Furthermore, Greta Thunberg also uploaded her full version of speech on her official Instagram account. It had been watched 4.5 million times. The video also gained 143.258 comments. In this research, I observed Greta Thunberg's speech uploaded on the VICE News official YouTube channel. The reason was because it had the most viewers and the video was in the original full-length version. The second speech was delivered at the Montreal Global Climate Change on 27 September 2019. She spoke briefly to appreciate the presence of the audience. However, the similarity between the second and the first speech was to urge the world leaders in taking the immediate

actions towards climate problems. The full version of the speech was uploaded on CBC News and the Global News official YouTube channels. It had been viewed 234 thousand times on CBC News and 3.7 thousand times on Global News. Therefore, I took the video uploaded by the CBC News.

I chose those two speeches since they were the most recent speeches delivered by Greta. Furthermore, the second speech showed the success of the first speech that she was able to move several hundred thousand people into taking an action in the strike. Both speeches were delivered by the same speaker but different audience. Greta Thunberg is now very famous, proven by the search result in Google. There were 138 million results (0.48 seconds) when I typed 'Greta Thunberg' and 33.3 million results (0.44 seconds) when I typed 'Greta Thunberg's Speech' in Google search engine. To support the analysis, I used the transcription of the speech downloaded from <https://www.npr.org/>. The transcription was validated through an actual viewing of the speech downloaded from YouTube to make the materials more comprehensive.

Data Analysis

The data were in form of word chunks along with the clauses to determine the context. The presence of the personal pronouns was traced and categorized according to Greenbaum and Nelson (2002). The quantitative data related to how many times a pronoun occurred was also presented. The use of first-person personal pronouns (I, we) and the second-person personal pronoun (you) was described in terms of their number of occurrences. The data were deconstructed and interpreted using Fairclough's model. To summarize, the goals of the study were; 1) categorizing the personal pronouns to see their distribution in the speech; 2) applying CDA approach to examine the contextual usages of pronouns; and 3) interpreting the result by providing underlying implications of how the pronouns characterize Greta Thunberg's speech.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

How the first-person personal pronouns and second-person personal pronouns characterize Greta Thunberg's speech?

Table 2. The Distribution of First-Person and Second-Person Personal Pronouns in Both Speeches

First-Person Singular Pronoun	1st speech	2nd speech	Total	%
Subjective (<i>I</i>)	7	4	11	11%
Objective (<i>me</i>)	0	0	0	0%
First-Person Plural Pronoun				
Subjective (<i>we</i>)	6	42	48	47%
Objective (<i>us</i>)	6	5	11	11%
Second-Person Pronoun				
Subjective (<i>you</i>)	17	9	26	25%
Objective (<i>you</i>)	5	1	6	6%
TOTAL	41	61	102	100%
	40.2%	59.8%	100%	

When a speaker delivers a speech, he/she needs to consider specific attitudes and feelings that are shown by the language choice to move the audience. As illustrated in Table 3, the first-person plural is the most frequently used in the speech, with a total of 48 occurrences out of 102 occurrences of first-person and second-person personal pronouns in the data.

Example 1. The use of first-person plural personal pronouns (exclusive)

(Excerpt 1) My message is that we'll be watching you.

(Excerpt 2) So a 50% risk is simply not acceptable to us — we who have to live with the consequences.

(Excerpt 3) We will not let you get away with this. Right here, right now is where we draw the line.

The example 1 provides excerpts from the first speech that indicate “me and the people I represent, but not you”. It can be clearly seen that the audience (the world leaders) were not part of her supporters in urging the issue of climate change. The exclusion of you in the speech shows where the speaker takes a different position from the audience. From the sentences, it can be stated that the speaker made a threat towards the audience. The purpose is to “wake them up” realizing that the earth is getting worse. The exclusive we used in the speech means that the speaker had negative relationship with the audience. The speaker believed that the audience held the strategic solutions of the climate crisis and capable of doing so. Unfortunately, the speech shows that they did not take enough action. This interpretation is supported by Greta's following speech in Montreal Global Climate Change as she stated, “This week, world leaders all around the world gathered in New York for the UN Climate Action Summit. They disappointed us once again with their empty words and insufficient plans.” The objective case us is also presented in the same way as we.

Example 2. The use of first-person plural personal pronouns (inclusive)

(Excerpt 4) We marched for a living planet and a safe future for everyone. We spoke the science and demanded that the people in power would listen to and act on the science.

(Excerpt 5) They say we shouldn't worry, that we should look forward to a bright future.

(Excerpt 6) And once again, we are not communicating our opinions or political views. The climate and ecological crisis is beyond party politics.

The pronoun we is also used to indicate inclusiveness as occurred in the second speech. The audience of the second speech is Greta's supporters that gathered during the Montreal Global Climate Change. The inclusive we shows that the speaker was together with the audience. Koussouhon and Dossoumou (2015) suggest that we displays a complex functionality and vagueness. The inclusive we refers only to the participants of the strike that consist of 500.0000 of Greta's supporters. It may also show a high optimism between Greta and her supporters that they have done this far together, they share the same destiny, and they need to keep working together so they can solve the global climate crisis as well as ironizing the world leaders that have not done much, according to the speech. Interestingly, in the second speech, we was used to address Greta herself as a Swedish. The use of we acts as we and I whereas us acts both as me and us.

From the previous examples, it can be seen that Greta used the first-person personal pronoun (we) to indicate both exclusiveness and inclusiveness. In the first speech, she used the pronoun we to refer to the youths she represented but not the audience. It is because she had different ideas and goals from the audience. The difference made Greta speak more powerfully in order to persuade and to urge the audience to take real actions towards the global warming and other climate crisis. The use of personal pronoun we in the second speech is different from the first speech since the audience was also different. The sign of inclusiveness was shown by Greta to indicate strong solidarity, optimism, and commitment.

Example 3. The use of second-person personal pronouns (exclusive and inclusive)

(Excerpt 7) Fifty percent may be acceptable to you. But those numbers do not include tipping points, most feedback loops, additional warming hidden by toxic air pollution or the aspects of equity and climate justice.

(Excerpt 8) You have stolen my dreams and my childhood with your empty words.

(Excerpt 9) ...and all you can talk about is money and fairy tales of eternal economic growth.

(Excerpt 10) You are a nation that is allegedly a climate leader.

(Excerpt 11) You are not at work today. Because this is an emergency, and we will not be bystanders.

(Excerpt 12) The eyes of all future generations are upon you. And if you choose to fail us, I say: We will never forgive you.

According to the categorization proposed by Greenbaum and Nelson (2002), the personal pronoun you acts both in the subjective and the objective cases. The use of second-person personal pronoun you does not provide the same rhetorical effect since the speaker does not belong to the community (Dan, 2015). This is the case when talking about the exclusive you. In the excerpts 7-9 which belong to the first speech, the personal pronoun you was used as the strategy to exclude the audience (you) since they did not share common beliefs and the speaker did not speak on their behalf. Greta Thunberg, the young climate activist had moved millions of people in the world to take an immediate action towards the climate crisis. Unfortunately, as she said, the world leaders keep talking about technology and economic growth but rarely pay attention to the climate issues.

The inclusiveness in the use of pronoun you is shown in the excerpts 10-12 which are taken from the second speech. In this speech the second-person personal pronoun was addressed to Greta's supporters. Dan (2015) and Woods (2006) state that the inclusive you was used as the strategy of personalization in order to get closer to the audience. In the speech, Greta put herself as she knew a lot about the audience. It can be seen through the following example.

Example 4. The use of second-person personal pronouns (inclusive)

(Excerpt 13) You are very similar to Sweden, where I'm from.

(Excerpt 14) You have moose, and we have moose. You have cold winters and lots of snow and pine trees.

(Excerpt 15) You play ice hockey; we play ice hockey. You have maple syrup, and we have — well, forget about that one.

During the speech, the speaker mentioned a lot of similarities between we that refers to Swedish people since she is from Sweden. So, we refers to the speaker herself. However, the boundaries between the speaker and the audience were eliminated when the speaker mentioned that she was just like the audience. She convinced the audience that climate crisis was not only threatening her but also threatening everyone. This way, the speaker attempted to gain full support from the audience to urge the world leaders to make clear plans and to act immediately regarding to the climate issues. The pronoun you was also used by the speaker to show directness in communication as the speaker also thanked the audience for leaving schools and offices in order to attend the strike.

The high number of personal pronoun we and you indicates the distance between the speaker and the audience. In the first speech, in which Greta faced the world leaders, she used an othering strategy to exclude the audience from her communication context. Wahyuningsih (2018) and Saj (2012) find out that the high usage of we and you in the context was because of a high cultural difference between the speaker and the audience. This proves that the use of pronoun you and we was affected by the speaker's beliefs and social impacts. In the first speech, Greta used the strategy to show how different positions and roles were shared.

Example 5. The use of first-person singular personal pronoun

(Excerpt 16) I shouldn't be up here. I should be back in school on the other side of the ocean.

(Excerpt 17) I do not want to believe that. Because if you really understood the situation and still kept on failing to act, then you would be evil. And that I refuse to believe.

(Excerpt 18) ... and I cannot thank you enough for being here.

(Excerpt 19) But I think we have proven that to be wrong by now.

The number of first-person singular pronouns in both speeches was quite a few. However, the use of pronoun I was to show the speaker's position as the leader, the influencer, and the initiator of the movement. Greta would like to see her personal belief and comments towards what has been said to her. There have been a lot of pros and cons that personally attacked her. However, the pronoun I was only used by Greta in a certain situation that required her to act as a leader. As shown in the Excerpt 17, Greta stated her disagreement and judgment towards the world leaders. She used the pronoun I and she also wanted to talk personally as the leader. The use of I indicates strong belief, responsibility, and optimism. In the previous study, Saj (2012) finds out that I is used to describe specific deeds, to highlight the speaker's point of view, and present personal beliefs or comments.

CONCLUSION

The high number of first-person personal pronoun we and second-person personal pronoun you in both speeches is the sign of pronouns that characterize Greta Thunberg's speech. The pronouns were used exclusively and inclusively as well as in subjective and objective cases. The study highlights that the use of personal pronouns varies according to the context. In the first speech, the personal pronouns used were mostly exclusive whereas in the second speech, the personal pronouns used were mostly inclusive. The difference was due to the social settings of both speeches which were also dissimilar. The exclusion of you allows the speaker to create distance and different point of view from the audience.

Since inclusive pronouns were generally used in the second speech, the sense of solidarity can be proved. The audience of the second speech was different from the audience in the first speech. The finding reveals that those pronouns were used by the speaker to create a community oneness and solidarity as the speaker spoke on the audience's behalf. The distance was shortened so they became united and could work together as a team. The interesting point of the speech is that no matter how inclusive or exclusive the language is, the purpose of the speech is to fight and to convince the world leaders that sufficient plans and actions are required.

The findings indicate how Greta took a stance as the leader of young people throughout different contexts. It is in line with the previous study conducted by Goheco (2012) that points out the speaker as the instigator or the undergoer of a particular action. It has been proven in this study that the same pronoun may refer differently. It depends on who is the audience or who is the listener. It helps the readers to understand how ideology is produced. The Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) approach has successfully explains how the social and contextual factors are related to the linguistic structures.

However, the study is only limited to the use of first-person personal pronouns and second-person personal pronoun. I suggest further studies of personal pronouns by conducting other models of CDA combined with SFL/SFG as it will bring clearer and more grounded findings. Therefore, the other pronouns occur in the discourse are also useful to study. In this study, I only analyze two out of numerous speeches delivered by Greta Thunberg so I cannot make a generalization or a conclusion of her language style. The findings can be used as an example of how Greta 'plays' with the language in front of different audiences.

REFERENCES

- Al-Gublan, B.K. (2015). A linguistics study of language power and strategy used by Jurists. *International Journal of Language and Linguistics* 2, 165-182.
- Bano, Z., and Shakir, A. (2015). Personal pronouns in 'about us' section of online university prospectus. *Journal of Education and Practice* 6, 133-140.
- Dan, L. (2015). The functionality of personal pronoun in construction of communities. *Globe: A Journal of Language, Culture, and Communication* 1, 31-42.
- Fairclough, N. (1992a). *Discourse and social change*. Cambridge: Polity Press
- Fromkin, V., Rodman, R., and Hyams, N. (2011). *An introduction to language*. Canada: Cengage Learning.
- Goheco, P.M. (2012). Pronominal choice: A reflection of culture and persuasion in Philippine political campaign discourse. *Philippine ESL Journal* 8, 4-25.
- Goddard, C. (1995). Who are we? The national semantics of pronoun. *Language Sciences* 17, 99-121.
- Greenbaum, S., and Nelson, G. (2002). *An introduction to English grammar*. London: Pearson Education Limited.
- Hasan, J. M. (2011). A linguistics analysis of in-group and out-group pronouns in Hosni Mubarak's speech. *Journal of Basrah Researches (Humanities Series)* 38, 5-24.
- Inigo-Mora, I. (2013). Pronominal choice as an interpersonal strategy. *American International Journal of Contemporary Research* 3, 22-37.
- Kaussouhon, L.A. and Dossoumou, M. (2015). Political and ideological commitments: A systemic functional linguistic and critical discourse analysis of president Buhari's inaugural speech. *International Journal of Linguistics and Communication* 3, 24-34.
- Reid, L., and Liao, H. (2004). A brief syntactic typology of Philippine language. *Language and Linguistics* 5, 433-490.
- Saj, H. E. (2012). Discourse analysis: personal pronouns in Oprah Winfrey hosting queen Rania of Jordan. *International Journal of Social Science and Humanity* 2, 529-532.
- Schachter, P., and Otanes, P.S. (1972). *Tagalog reference grammar*. London: University of California Pres.
- Wahyuningsih, S. (2018). A discourse analysis: Personal pronouns in Donald Trump's inauguration speech. *2nd English Language and Literature International Conference Proceedings* 2, 346-350.
- Widdowson, H.G. (2004). Text, context, pretext: *Critical issues in discourse analysis*. Malden: Blackwell Publishing.
- Woods, N. (2006). Describing discourse: *A practical guide to discourse analysis*. New York: Oxford University Press.



THE PROPOSED ELEMENTS OF INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE (ICC) FOR INDONESIAN EFL ENGLISH TEACHERS

Mas Muhammad Idris

Yogyakarta State University

masmuhammadidris@gmail.com

Received: 28 April 2020

Accepted: 19 October 2020

Abstract

The development of intercultural communicative competence (henceforth ICC) has inevitably made one be able to mingle and communicate effectively and appropriately utilizing the target language, for example English, with other people who have multiple backgrounds of culture, language, and nation. It is due to ICC is seen as a complex competence in this twenty-first-century life. However, in the educational context, this competence is rarely noticed seriously by the Indonesian EFL or English teachers. It is based upon the previous research conducted by the writer in 2018. Therefore, this paper is to present a comprehensive understanding of ICC and recommend a number of competencies related to ICC that should be mastered by the Indonesian EFL or English teachers. Such competencies are linguistic, sociolinguistic, discourse, intercultural competence, and intercultural awareness which are all able to assist the Indonesian EFL or English teachers in developing their intercultural competence and their student's ICC as well.

Keywords: Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC), Indonesian EFL teachers, English teachers, Intercultural Competence (IC), English Education.

INTRODUCTION

The enhancement of intercultural communicative competence (ICC) in relation to EFL students should be taken into consideration since it has been noticed as the main aim in English language education and learning. This development of ICC can attempt to prepare and provide the EFL students with a lot of knowledge about cultural differences so that they are able to live, mingle, and be aware of their own culture as well as respect to others' cultures (Byram, 1997; Deardorff, 2006, Fantini, 2000; Idris, 2019; Tran & Sheepo, 2016). The term intercultural communicative competence or in short, intercultural competence (hereafter IC) can be defined based on an individual's context (Spitzberg & Cupach, 1984). In the perspective of a professional domain, it is seen as one who has the ability to be competent that should be able to know not only how to interact effectively and properly with diverse people in a particular situation but also how to

respect and give a positive attitude towards the people who have multiple identities (Chen & Starosta, 1996). Similarly, Chen and Starosta (1996), Lazer, Huber-Kriegle, Lussier, Matei and Peck (2007) argue that intercultural communicative competence is the ability to talk in numerous intercultural conditions which are identified as the understanding of cross-cultural situation efficaciously and to relate it in numerous contexts which are identified as cultural situation too appropriately conducted by the language teachers.

On the other side, in the view of educational context, Huber and Reynolds (2014) point out that intercultural competence is the compilation of attitude, skill, and knowledge as well as the skill of intercultural activities. The activities have made people be always aware of and respect other cultures in a good manner so that the people who are involved in that intercultural encounters or activities can create a good atmosphere when they conduct the intercultural interaction with others. Added to this, Byram (1997) states that individuals who possess the ability to communicate with other people from different cultures, languages, and countries in a foreign language can be called or labeled as an intercultural speaker. Furthermore, Byram (1997) adds three competencies namely linguistics, sociolinguistics, and discourse competence that must be always inserted in a communication to avoid misunderstanding between interlocutors. In other words, it can be meant that becoming an intercultural speaker, one needs to have the capability of intercultural competence along with its elements because it has an essential role as one of the key competencies in this discursive era to live with different people in this world (Sudhoff, 2010; UNESCO, 2006).

Since the intercultural communicative competence is also behold as the most important key competence in the educational context, it is then inevitable that the role of EFL teachers become pivotal too. In the Indonesian context, Madya (2013) argues that Indonesian students are naturally mingled and included in a situation of the process of intercultural talks. This happens because of the condition of Indonesia that has a multiculturalism society (Idris, 2020). Meaning that Indonesian students can be categorized as intercultural students who have achieved and improved their intercultural competence unconsciously. The misunderstanding and miscommunication sometimes appear among the Indonesian students. It is due to the limited understanding of intercultural knowledge owned by them. Hence, the contribution of the EFL or English teachers should be considered as an integral part of the process of learning and teaching in the EFL classroom so that they can minimize those unpredictable and unwanted activities that can create misunderstanding and miscommunication among interlocutors. However, not many EFL or English teachers notice this situation accordingly. This is based on the writer's research conducted in 2018. Therefore, this paper presents the comprehensive insight pertinent to intercultural communicative competence and proposes some elements of ICC that must be possessed first by the EFL or English teachers in order for them to be able to help their students to obtain and develop their ICC properly.

DISCUSSION

What is intercultural communicative competence (ICC)?

The citizens today, who live in this 21st-century life must behold, feel, and learn of other people from cultures rather than their own cultures (Chen & Starosta, 1996). Furthermore, Chen and Starosta (1996) emphasize that there are five essential parts of the several important trends of the late twentieth century that have been making this world-wide into a "global village". They are in the forms of technology development, globalization of the economy, widespread population migrations, the development of multiculturalism, and de-emphasis on the nations-state. Those five trends are based on the United States context, yet the three formers can be categorized as common issues which can be related to any other countries such as Indonesia (Idris, 2019).

The essential parts of the trends indicate that people are being connected rapidly and easily towards one another. In addition to this, they also give a strong foundation for global society. The world has become interconnected and interdependent as well as the society themselves have become heterogeneous. These developments, therefore, urge people to have intercultural communicative competence (Chen & Starosta, 1996). Besides, Boulding (1988) as cited in Chen and Starosta (1996) adds that intercultural communicative competence has functioned to provide people to be aware of their diverse identities and be able to continue to have a good multicultural coexistence in the global civic culture. It means that this intercultural communicative competence has changed people from being monocultural to multicultural people. As stated by Belay (1993) that this change can be obtained by demonstrating tolerance for differences and respecting others' cultures through communication or talk.

The definition of intercultural communicative competence that relates to foreign language teaching has been coined by Byram (1997) who defines this competence as someone who has the capability to interact with other people from other countries and cultures in a foreign language. Furthermore, Byram (1997) states that people who are involved in such intercultural interaction in a foreign language, they can do a negotiation related to the interaction conducted by them so that the satisfactory between interlocutors can be obtained, and they can act as a linker between people who have their original cultures. Also, they can share their knowledge pertinent to the ability to use the language appropriately and have a basis for gaining a new language as well as an understanding of others effectively. Moreover, Byram (1997) suggests a comprehensive model of intercultural communicative competence in which it has four dimensions or elements namely linguistic, sociolinguistic, discourse, and intercultural competence as well as intercultural awareness which is suggested by Fantini (2000) and that of those competencies should be owned by individuals, and EFL teachers or English teachers are no exception. The following description of ICC competencies will be explained further as follows.

The competencies of intercultural communicative competence (ICC) that Indonesian EFL teachers need to have

As mentioned previously that the EFL or English teachers need to consider the important part of having intercultural communicative competence proposed by Byram (1997) and Fantini (2000), in this session, the competencies of ICC will be described as the following.

The term *linguistic competence* as the first description can be meant as the ability in applying the knowledge regarding the patterns of language standard to make or interpret written as well as a spoken language. This concept has been refined by Byram (1997) from van Ek's (1986) definition who states that linguistic competence is the capability to make and find meaning the utterances meaningfully typed from the patterns of language that concern and bear the traditional meaning. This definition, according to Byram (1997) is still based on a 'native' speaker model, it is, therefore, he refines such definition in the context of an intercultural situation that may refer to a relationship between an intercultural speaker and the native speaker. In addition to this, there is a piece of confronting information about the concept of linguistic competence which is pointed out by Chomsky (1957) who argues that linguistic competence is considered important in accordance with idealization and that speakers know the patterns of their language. In this case, Tienson (1983) disagrees and says that even such concept has contributed to the understanding of language and other psychological phenomena, this concept, based on his opinion, is still less readily accepted than it should have due to some false things said by Chomsky related to linguistic competence. From this notion, it is clear that although the definition of linguistic ability is behold as an important part of the dimension both in writing and speaking in regard to the use of understanding of the patterns of a standard grammar use in the situation of multiculturalism, this ability becomes less accepted in the era 1980s, yet it is still considered essential in teaching and learning process. Hence, this competence in accordance to the role of EFL or English teachers, they must master it at first so that they are able to cope the problem

faced by their students in the classroom as well as they can assist their students in acquiring such competence effectively and properly both in the forms of speaking and writing.

The second which becomes a part of intercultural communicative competence that is *sociolinguistic competence* has been identified as an important dimension or element of communicative competence. Meaning that this competence includes pragmatic learning and the understanding of sociolinguistics related to the usage of the language linguistically and socially as well as appropriately (Mede & Dikilitas, 2015). Looking back in the 1960s about the term 'competence', Chomsky (1957) has different terms related to it that he calls as a 'performance' which means an actual utilization of language in a concrete condition. This definition, however, is then criticized by Campbell and Wales (1970) who state that Chomsky's competence does not include the linguistic capability regarding the use of formal talks that are grammatically not true, yet suitable in relation to the situation within the utterances. Added to this, Canale and Swain (1980) divide the communicative competence into four parts. They are (1) grammatical competence that can be also called as linguistic competence which has a meaning of the acquisition of phonological, syntactic, morphological, and semantic rules; (2) sociolinguistic competence that may refer to the understanding of the features of pragmatic in a variety of speech acts such as socio-cultural conventions, cultural values, and norms in social situations; the third part (3) is discourse competence which means to the ways of combining the grammatical forms and meaning to gain the whole written text; and lastly (4), it is the strategic competence that may refer to the mastery of non-verbal and verbal communication to break down the difficult communication because of the inadequate competence and to improve the effective interaction. Since the sociolinguistic competence is also a part of ICC, Byram (1997) stresses that this ability is seen as the competence to the language meanings that are produced by a communicator both native or not which are taken for accepting by the interlocutor and also that are made as well as negotiated explicitly with the interlocutor. Based on these insights, the EFL or English teachers, besides from its pivotal role in helping their students to live in multicultural situations in the future, need to master this sociolinguistic competence too to solve the obstacles and difficulties obtained by their students.

Thirdly, *discourse competence* is also taken into consideration as an important dimension or element to be had by the EFL or English teachers. This competence, according to Byram (1997), is the strategy of ability in using, discovering, and negotiating for the production and interpretation of both monologues as well as dialogue in the form of intercultural texts for particular purposes. Furthermore, the discourse competence may include (1) much knowledge of and abilities to navigate the sentences of topic/focus, cause/effect, given/new; (2) competence to create structure and control the discourse related to thematic origination, coherence, and cohesion, logical ordering, style and register, rhetorical effectiveness; (3) text design such as the design convention in the community pertaining to how information is structured (e.g., descriptive text, narrative text, and exposition text), how stories, and anecdotes as well as jokes are told, and how written texts are laid out and sequenced (Council of Europe, 2001). Llobera (1996) points out that in the teaching and learning process, a dynamic procedural ability is in action during that situation in the foreign language teaching and learning classroom. Moreover, Llobera (1996) comments on some important things that relate to such a situation namely status, social roles, distance, face and politeness, rheme and theme, given and new information, and genre as well as turn-taking, and also repairing. Those of which are included in the process of the reaching and learning process. Thus, from the mentioned perspectives, the discourse competence is explained, in short, as the competence to understand, make, create, using the strategy to discover, perhaps negotiate, and cultivate the language forms which are longer than usual construct sentences for instances series of events, talks, messages, communications, posters, and many more with correct and proper cohesion, coherence as well as the good organization of rhetoric to compile the ideas. In this sense, the EFL or English teachers have a responsibility

to navigate their students once the students face some problems related to the discourse competence so that they can conduct what the tasks are delivered by their teachers in simple ways in any form of intercultural texts.

The *intercultural competence* as the fourth competence becomes a very essential part to be the next discussion since it is a complex competence in relation to the educational context (Byram, 1997). He gives a comprehensive definition related to intercultural competence which means that people have the capability to communicate using their language with diverse people from different countries as well as cultures from their own. Furthermore, the individuals can make up a communication based on their knowledge about intercultural activities, and their interest in others through showing a good attitude that makes them be open-minded people. Also, their skill of interpreting, discovering, and conducting translation towards other documents may be called another example of intercultural competence too. Here, Byram (1997) argues that there is a link with the teaching of foreign literature in translation, and others. Specifically, he emphasizes that language teaching may include these kinds of engagements with otherness that can be as the goal of and ensure the method that makes the intercultural competence has a value. In this part, Byram (1997) proposes elements of intercultural competence (IC) namely attitude, knowledge, skills, and critical cultural awareness.

The first element, attitude (*savoir etre*), is the sense of curiosity, eagerness, an openness that can suspend the refusal to believe that something is true towards other cultures and belief towards one's own. The objective for EFL or English teachers is that the engagement of (1) equality (not to seek out the profit from others' things), (2) the interest to figure out other views related to phenomenon both from one's own or others' cultures, (3) the willingness to question about the values and presupposition in cultural activities, (4) the readiness to experience and engage with different cultures, (5) conventions of non-verbal and verbal communication, becomes the central part to be attained.

The second element is knowledge (*savoirs*). It relates to the understanding of social groups, their regular activities in one's own towards others' interlocutors' countries, and the process of their individual and/or social talks. To EFL or English teachers regarding this knowledge, the objective is that they should understand the types and cause as well as the process of 'misunderstanding' conducted by the interlocutors of different cultural origin so it can be minimized. Besides, the EFL or English teachers need to know the knowledge of social institutions in one's own and others' interlocutors' countries such as in the forms of learning the education system, and religious institutions, for example. In other words, this intercultural knowledge that should be mastered by the EFL or English teachers is meant as the acquisition of the same period as well as historical institutions and an association between one's own and other interlocutors' countries, their detailed plans in obtaining the relation with other interlocutors from dissimilar country. The third element namely the skills which comprise two skills. The first is the skill of interaction and discovery (*savoir apprehender/faire*). It tells the competence to gain new understanding of a culture and its practice as well as the competence to operate the knowledge, behaviors, and skills under real interaction and communication. Furthermore, this intercultural skill has a pivotal place in the model of Byram's intercultural communicative competence (ICC). The next skill is the skill of relating and interpreting (*savoir comprendre*). This intercultural skill talks about the competence to interpret a sort of document and/or events from other interlocutors who have different cultures and then try to describe them and relate them to documents and/or events from one's own. In this point of view, the EFL or English teachers should utilize their knowledge to explain such sources of 'misunderstanding' if they find it and try to help the other interlocutors solving different perspectives. In addition to this, Byram (1997) states that critical cultural awareness (*savoirs' engager*) is also an important part of his model of ICC. It is the capability to critically evaluate the insights, practices, and the results and/or products in one's own cultures and others and countries based on obvious criteria.

In regard to explaining about what intercultural competence is, Fantini (2000) says that IC is often described with a number of different traits such in the forms of respect, empathy, flexibility, motivation, openness, curiosity, patience, interest, a sense of humor, tolerance for ambiguity, and willingness to suspend judgment towards others. Also, IC is seen as the developmental process and there are at least five elements in it. The five elements which are proposed by Fantini (2000) are awareness, attitudes, skills, knowledge, and language proficiency which is used in the host tongue. Fantini (2000) states that another essential element of IC development is 'awareness' as a part of her model of ICC. It is because intercultural awareness can influence other elements, attitude (affect), knowledge (cognition), and skill (behavior). To be more specific, she explains that a number of interculturalists see awareness (of others and self) as the key element related to the effectiveness and appropriateness interactions. For this reason, she argues that awareness is the most powerful element of her model namely A+ASK quartet. It can be seen through Figure 1.

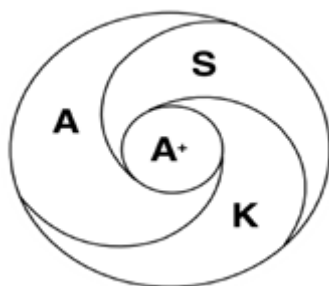


Figure 1. Fantini's (2000) pinwheel model of IC

The above figure illustrates that intercultural awareness becomes central to intercultural competence enhancement proposed by Fantini (2000). And the first three elements promote as well as enhance awareness that is to foster via introspection and reflection while the awareness itself, it can influence and enhance to stimulate the development of the other three elements (Fantini, 2009). Pertaining to the awareness which is in and of the "self" and it always relates to someone or something else, it is, hence, called as the "self"-awareness that refers to all awareness (Fantini, 2000). Furthermore, she says that awareness may involve exploring, experiencing, and experimenting. In other words, to the EFL or English teachers towards this intercultural awareness, they should comprehend this competence since it has a positive development that can lead their deeper cognition, affect, and behavior. It is also important to relate to cross-cultural understanding so that they can minimize misunderstanding and perhaps obstacles faced by their students in the process of teaching and learning in the EFL classroom. As the last element coined by Fantini (2000), the language proficiency is also a fundamental element in her model of IC. Yet, this competence is not noticed seriously in the model of intercultural competence. In this sense, Fantini (2000) emphasizes that this proficiency must be considered fundamental regarding the enhancement of intercultural competence even if it is not equal to it. She further gives an example of it that can enhance all the other aspects of IC both quantitatively and qualitatively. It can be seen through the proficiency in a second language acquisition which causes one's perspective, perception, expressions, conceptualizes behavior, and interaction with other people in the process of one's first tongue. Added to this, it can also provide an alternative communication way appropriately towards the second language used. In short, based on these two theories both from Byram (1997) and Fantini (2000), the urgency of having the competencies of ICC is a must that should be owned by the Indonesian EFL teachers. Once they have the competencies, they will easily handle the students who have different cultures from their own. For instance, in the context of international or national schools, the Indonesian EFL teachers, of course, will meet a number of students who have different backgrounds of cultures, values,

languages, and nations. Thus, if the Indonesian EFL teachers do not have the competencies of ICC, they will face difficulties in teaching due to the students' raising hand using a left hand.

CONCLUSION

To summarize, the incremental attention of intercultural communicative competence (ICC) or in short intercultural competence (IC) cannot be neglected since this competence has a fundamental influence on individuals' attitudes, skills, and knowledge. As seen from the writer's research related to ICC in 2018 in the educational context, this competence should be owned by the EFL or English teachers who are considered able to aid their students in learning and teaching process in the EFL classroom. This competence which is seen as an integral part of this twenty-first-century life should be well-acknowledged thoroughly and comprehensively. It cannot be ignored respectively. This competence has also an important place for the EFL or English teachers related to their language development to assist their students so that they can live and mingle with other people with numerous identities as well as other elements such as cultures, languages, and nations. Henceforth, this present study focuses on the elements of intercultural communicative competence namely linguistic, sociolinguistic, discourse and intermural competence in which this intercultural competence (IC) comprises five dimensions namely attitude; knowledge; a skill of interaction and discovery as well as skill of relating and interpreting; and cultural awareness.

Moreover, intercultural awareness is also considered a very important element of IC since it has a significant influence towards other elements, attitude (or affect), knowledge (or cognition), skill (behavior) as well as target language proficiency as another additional element of her model of IC. Related to the model of IC, the writer more concerns about one element namely intercultural awareness that should be had by the EFL or English teachers. In short, once the EFL or English teachers have those kinds of competencies, it can be said that they are able to cope the misunderstanding and/or obstacles in their life so that they are ready to mingle with other different people who have a varied background of cultures, languages, values, norms, and/or nations. Besides, they can also help their students when the students face some problems related to the understanding or interpreting documents or events which are not from their own cultures. In other words, the students will be very easy to live in any intercultural activities both inside or outside the classroom and they can also be very easy to not judge (negative judgment) to other people directly when they confront different perspectives or views with them. In this sense, they can minimize or control their ego and see that awareness towards others insight is very important.

REFERENCES

- Belay, G. (1993). Toward a paradigm shift for intercultural and international communication: New research directions. In S. A. Deetz (Ed.), *Communication yearbook 16* (pp. 437-457). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Byram, M. (1997). *Teaching and assessing intercultural communicative competence*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Campbell, R., & Wales, R. (1970). The study of language acquisition. *New Horizons in Linguistics*, 242-260.
- Canale, M. & Swain, M. (1980): "Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing". *Applied Linguistics*, 1, 1-47.
- Chen, G. M. & Starosta, W. J. (1996). Intercultural communication competence: A synthesis, *Annals of the International Communication Association* 19 (1), 353–383. <https://doi.org/10.1080/23808985.1996.11678935>

- Council of Europe. (2001): *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Chomsky, N. 1957. *Syntactic structures*. The Hague, Mouton and Company: 116p.
- Deardorff, D. K. (2006). Identification and assessment of intercultural competence as a student outcome of internalization. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 10(3): 241-266. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1028315306287002>
- Fantini, A. E. (2000). A central concern: developing intercultural competence. *SIT Occasional Papers (Addressing Intercultural Education, Training & Service)*, 25-42. Retrieved from <https://agustinazubair.files.wordpress.com/2013/04/6-developing-intercultural-competence1.pdf>, accessed on 21 February 2019.
- Fantini, A. E. (2009). Developing intercultural competence: An educational imperative for the 21st century. *Studies in Language and Literature*, 28 (2): 192-213.
- Huber, J., & Reynolds, C. (2014). *Developing intercultural competence through education*. Paris: Council of Europe Publishing.
- Idris, M. M., & Agus, W. (2019). Intercultural communicative competence (ICC): What should Indonesian EFL teachers have related to ICC's elements? *Journal of English Language Teaching and Linguistics*, 4(1), 67-76. <http://dx.doi.org/10.21462/jeltl.v4i1.184>
- Idris, M. M. (2020). Assessing intercultural competence (IC) of state junior high school English teachers in Yogyakarta. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 9(3), 628-636. <https://10.17509/ijal/v9iv.23213>
- Lázár, I., Huber-Kriegler, M., Lussier, D., Matei, G. S., & Peck, C. (2007). *Developing and assessing intercultural communicative competence - A guide for language teachers and teacher educators*. European Centre for Modern Languages. Strasbourg: Council of Europe.
- Llobera, M. (1996): "Discourse and Foreign Language Teaching Methodology". In McLaren, N. and Madrid, D. *A handbook for TEFL*. Alcoy: Marfil.
- Madya, S. (2013). *Metodologi pembelajaran bahasa: Dari era pra-metode sampai era pasca-metode*. Yogyakarta: UNY Press.
- Mede, E. & Dikilitas, K. (2015). Teaching and learning sociolinguistic competence: Teachers' critical perceptions. *Participatory Educational Research (PER)*, 2(3), pp. 14-31. <http://dx.doi.org/10.17275/per.15.29.2.3>
- Spitzberg, B. H., & Cupach, W. R. (1984). *Interpersonal communication competence*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Sudhoff, J. (2010). CLIL and Intercultural communicative competence: Foundations and approaches towards a fusion. *International CLIL Research Journal*, 1(3), 30-37.
- Tienson, J. (1983). "Linguistic Competence": *Transactions of the Nebraska Academy of Sciences and Affiliated Societies*. 259. <http://digitalcommons.unl.edu/tnas/259>
- Tran, Q. T., & Sheepo, S. (2016). An intercultural communicative language teaching model for EFL learners. Retrieved from <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/304086067>,
- UNESCO, (2006). *Guidelines on international education*. Paris: UNESCO Headquarters.



Published by:
ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT
FACULTY OF EDUCATION AND HUMANITIES
UNIVERSITAS KRISTEN DUTA WACANA

Jl. dr. Wahidin Sudirohusodo 5-25
Yogyakarta 55224
Telp. 0274-563929 ext. 143
www.ukdw.ac.id

