

**PENDIDIKAN DAN LATIHAN PROFESI GURU
PANITIA SERTIFIKASI GURU (PSG) RAYON 144**



**ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING
AND LEARNING: FROM THEORY
TO PRACTICE**

The writers

Prof. Dr. Endang Fauziati
Agus Wijayanto, M.A, Ph.D
Dra. Siti Zuhriah Ariatmi, M.Hum.
Drs. Djoko Srijono, M.Hum.
Dra. Malikatul Laila, M.Hum.
Dra. Mauliy Halwat Hikmat, M.Hum.
Dra. Koesoemo Ratih, M.Hum.
Dra. Rini Fatmawati, M.Pd.
Dra. Aryati Prasetyarini, M.Pd.
Nur Hidayat, S.Pd.

PERGURUAN TINGGI PENYELENGGARA:



**UNIVERSITAS
MUHAMMADIYAH
MALANG**



**UNIVERSITAS
ISLAM MALANG**



**UNIVERSITAS
WISNUWARDHANA
MALANG**



**STKIP PGRI
BLITAR**

Table of Contents

Part 1

Chapter 1 PRINCIPLES OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING

1.1	Introduction.....	1
1.2	Theory of learning	1
1.2	Theory of language	11
1.3	Learning style.....	19
1.4	Learner language	23
1.5	learner language analysis	26
1.6	Summary.....	30
1.7	Exercises	32
1.8	References.....	38

Chapter 2 FOREIGN LANGUAGE THEACHING METHODS 41

2.1	Introuction.....	41
2.2	Approach, Method And Teaching Method	41
2.3	Foreign Language Theaching Method	46
2.4	Summary.....	63
2.5	Exercises	65
2.6	References.....	69

Chapter 3 PRINCIPLES OF ENGLISH INTRODUCTONAL DESIGN..... 71

3.1	Introduction	71
3.2	Current curriculum impemented in indonesia	71
3.3	Designing english syllubus.....	72
3.4	Principle og design english syllubus.....	76
3.5	Principle of english learning.....	77
3.6	Steps inn design/planning english lesson.....	78
3.7	Summary	84
	Excercises	85
	References	88

Chapter 4 LANGUAGE THEACHING MEDIA 93

4.1	Introduction	93
4.2	Techniques Of Using Visuals Materials.....	94
4.3	Techniques Of Using Audio Materials	99
4.4	Techniques Of Using Video Materials.....	108
4.5	Information and communication technologies	114
4.6	Making email account using Google	115
4.7	Using Google For Searching Resources.....	119
4.8	Finding Multimedia	122
4.9	Creating Blog.....	123

	4.10 Website Supporting English Language Teaching.....	126
	4.11 Exercises	128
	References	129
Chapter 5	LANGUAGE LEARNING EVALUATION	131
	5.1 Introduction	131
	5.2 Methods of assessment.....	132
	5.3 Language Learning Assagment	135
	5.4 The Assigment Of The Process And Outcome Of Learning English	147
	5.5 Determining English Mastery Level	148
	5.6 The Importance of Assigment	149
	Exercises A.....	153
	Exercises B.....	155
	References	157
PART 2		
Chapter 1	INTERPERSONAL TEXT	161
	1.1 Introduction	162
	1.2 Interpersonal Text.....	162
	1.3 Summary	186
	References	187
Chapter 2	TRANSACTIONAL TEXT.....	189
	2.1 Introduction	189
	2.2 Interpersonal Texts	189
	References	205
Chapter 3	SHORT FUNGTIONAL TEXT.....	207
	3.1 Introduction	207
	3.2 Short Fungtional Texts.....	207
	References	227
Chapter 4	LONG FUNGTION TEXT	231
	4.1 Introduction	231
	4.2 The Kinds of Long Fungtional Texts	231
	4.3 SUMMARY	271
	4.4 How To Teach Long Fungtion Texts.....	274
	References	186

CHAPTER 1

PRINCIPLES OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING

1.1. Introduction

Foreign language teachers have long been engaged in scientific approaches to foreign language teaching methodology based on experimentation and research on linguistic, psychological, and pedagogical foundations. They must have good understanding on the underlying principle or theoretical background which underpins the emergence of the teaching methodology. This provides them with a comprehensive grasp of theoretical foundations of foreign language teaching and can serve as an integrated framework within which a foreign language teacher can operate to formulate an understanding of how people learn foreign languages. Such an understanding will make them enlightened language teachers, having adequate understanding of why they choose a particular method or technique of teaching for particular learners with particular learning objectives. This is also supposed to encourage teachers to develop an integrated understanding of the underlying principles of second or foreign language teaching methodology.

This section will shed light on some principles or theories which are relevant for language teaching. Four major theories are deliberately chosen for the discussion here, namely: theory of learning, theory of language, learner learning style, learner language, and learner language analysis.

1.2. Theory of Learning

There are four major theories of language acquisition and language learning which many psycholinguists and applied linguistics are familiar with, namely: Behaviorism, Cognitivism, Humanism, and Constructivism. These theories will be discussed in their relation to foreign language teaching methodology.

1.2.1. Behaviorism

Behaviorist theory is originated from Pavlov's experiment which indicates that stimulus and response work together. In his classical experiments he trained a dog to associate the sound of a tuning fork with salivation until the dog acquired a conditioned response that is salivation at the sound of the tuning fork. A previously neutral stimulus (the sound of the tuning fork) had acquired the power to elicit a response (salivation) that was originally elicited by another stimulus (the smell of food). Watson (1913), deriving from Pavlov's finding has named this theory Behaviorism and adopted classical conditioning theory to explain all types of learning. He rejects the mentalist notion of innateness and instinct. Instead, he believes that by the process of conditioning we can build a set of stimulus-response connections, and more complex behaviors are learned by building up series of responses. B.F. Skinner (1938) followed Watson's tradition and added a unique dimension to Behaviorism; he created a new concept called Operant conditioning. According to skinner, Pavlov's classical conditioning (Respondent Conditioning) was a typical form of learning utilized mainly by animals and slightly applicable to account for human learning. Skinner's Operant Conditioning tries to account for most of human learning and behavior. Operant behavior is behavior in which one operates on the environment. Within this model the importance of stimuli is de-emphasized. More emphasis, however, is on the consequence of stimuli. So, reinforcement is the key element. Therefore, the teaching methodology based on skinner's view rely the classroom procedures on the controlled practice of verbal operants under carefully designed schedules of reinforcement. Operant conditioning, then, is a mechanistic approach to learning. External forces select stimuli and reinforce responses until desired behavior is conditioned to occur. In sum, we can say that learning is basically viewed as a process of conditioning behavior. From this tenet comes the definition of learning as "a change in behavior". In accordance with Skinner's theory, Brook (1964: 46) has defined learning as "a change in performance that occurs under the conditions of practice".

Skinner's theory of behaviorism has profoundly influenced the direction of the foreign language teaching. The simplicity and directness of this theory—learning is a mechanical habit formation and proceeds by means of the frequent reinforcement of a stimulus and response sequence—has enormous impact on language teaching. It provides the learning theory, which underpins the widely used Audiolingual Method (ALM) of the 1950s and 1960s. This method, which will be familiar to many language teachers, has laid down a set of guiding methodological

principles based on two concepts: (1) the behaviorist stimulus-response concept and (2) an assumption that foreign language learning should reflect and imitate the perceived processes of mother tongue learning. Classroom environment in Audiolingualism, therefore, is arranged in which there is a maximum amount of mimicry, memorization and pattern drills on the part of the learners. Ausubel (1968) calls this type of learning as rote learning. On the other part, the teacher is supposed to give rewards to the utterances coming closest to the model recorder and to extinguish the utterances, which do not.

Skinner's theory of behaviorism has profoundly influenced the direction of the second or foreign language teaching. The simplicity and directness of this theory—learning is a mechanical habit formation and proceeds by means of the frequent reinforcement of a stimulus and response sequence—has enormous impact on language teaching. Classroom environment in Audiolingualism, therefore, is arranged in which there is a maximum amount of mimicry, memorization and pattern drills on the part of the learners. On the other part, the teacher is supposed to give rewards to the utterances coming closest to the model recorder and to extinguish the utterances, which do not.

1.2.2. Cognitivism

Skinner's theory of verbal behavior has got a number of critics, especially from cognitive psychologists; among them was Noam Chomsky (1959) who argued that Skinner's model was not adequate to account for language acquisition. In Chomsky's view much of language use is not imitated behavior but is created a new from underlying knowledge of abstract rules. Sentences are not learned by imitation and repetition but 'generated' from the learner's underlying 'Competence' (Chomsky, 1966). Cognitivism believes that people are rational beings that require active participation in order to learn, and whose actions are a consequence of thinking. Changes in behavior are observed, but only as an indication of what is occurring in the learner's head. Cognitivism focuses on the inner mental activities (the processes of knowing) such as thinking, memory, knowing, and problem-solving. Knowledge can be seen as schema and learning is a change in a learner's schemata. The mind just like a computer: information comes in, is being processed, and leads to certain outcomes. So, learning is considered as an active, constructive, cumulative, and self-directed process that is dependent on the mental

activities of the learner (Sternberg 1996). Cognitive theories, therefore, have replaced behaviorism in 1960s as the dominant paradigm.

Cognitive psychology, together with Chomsky's transformational grammar, gave rise to its own method of language learning called Cognitive Approach or Cognitive Code Learning. The role of the teachers is to recognize the importance of the students' mental assets and mental activity in learning. Their task is also to organize the material being presented in such a manner that what is to be learned will be meaningful to the learners. The classroom procedures emphasize understanding rather than habit formation (cf. Audiolingual Method). All learning is to be meaningful. In so doing, the teacher can (1) build on what the students already know; (2) help the students relate new material to themselves, their life experiences, and their previous knowledge; (3) avoids rote learning (except perhaps in the case of vocabulary); (4) use graphic and schematic procedures to clarify relationships; (5) utilize both written and spoken language in order to appeal to as many senses as possible; (6) attempt to select the most appropriate teaching-Learning situation for the students' involvement.; and use inductive, deductive, or discovery learning procedures as the situation warrants.

1.2.3. Humanism

Humanistic psychology emerged in the 1950s as a departure from the scientific analysis of Skinner's Behaviorism and even from Ausubel's cognitive theory. In humanistic view, human being is a whole person who not only has physic and cognition, but more importantly has feeling and emotion. Learning, therefore, has more affective focus than behaviorist and cognitive ones; it focuses more on the development of individual's self-concept and his personal sense of reality. From 1970s, humanism in education has attracted more and more people's attention. According to its theories, the receiver in education is first a human being, then a learner. If a person cannot satisfy his basic needs physically and psychologically, he will surely fail to concentrate on his learning whole-heartedly. Affect is not only the basic needs of human body, but also the condition and premise of the other physical and psychological activities. So learning and the affective factors are closely connected.

Wang (2005: 1) notes that there are three prominent figures in this field, namely: Erikson, Maslow, and Rogers. Erik Erikson who developed his theory from Sigmund Freud claims that "human psychological development depends not only on the way in which individuals pass

through predetermined maturational stages, but on the challenges that are set by society at particular times in their lives” (1963: 11). The second figure is Abraham Maslow (1968), who proposes a famous hierarchy of needs---deficiency (or maintenance) needs and being (or growth) needs. Deficiency needs are directly related to a person’s psychological or biological balance, such as the requirements of food, water or sleep. Being needs are related to the fulfillment of individual potential development. The third one is Carl Rogers (1969), who advocates that human beings have a natural potential for learning, but this will take place only when the subject matter is perceived to be of personal relevance to the learners and when it involves active participation of the learners. Although these three humanists have different ideas, their theories are all connected with humanism and their theories contribute greatly to the emergence of humanistic approach. (Wang, 2005: 2) Among these three, Rogers has been the most influential figure in the field of foreign language teaching methodology.

According to Rogers (in Brown, 1980: 76), the inherent principle of human behavior is his ability to adapt and to grow in the direction that can enhance his existence. Human being needs a non threatening environment to grow and to learn to become a fully-functioning person. He states that fully-functioning person has qualities such as: (1) openness to experience (being able to accept reality, including one's feelings; if one cannot be open to one’s feelings, he cannot be open to actualization; (2) existential living (living in the here-and-now); (3) organismic trusting (we should trust ourselves—do what feels right and what comes natural); (4) experiential freedom (the fully-functioning person acknowledges that feeling of freedom and takes responsibility for his choices) and (5) creativity (if we feel free and responsible, we will act accordingly, and participate in the world; a fully-functioning person will feel obliged by their nature to contribute to the actualization of others, even life itself).

Humanistic principles have important implications for education. According to this approach, the focus of education is learning and not teaching. The goal of education is the facilitation of learning. Learning how to learn is more important than being taught by the superior (teacher) who unilaterally decides what will be taught. What needed, then, is real facilitator of learning. A teacher as a facilitator should have the following characteristics: (1) He must be genuine and real, putting away the impression of superiority; (2) He must have trust or acceptance from his students as valuable individuals; and (3) He needs to communicate openly and emphatically with his students and vice versa. (Brown, 1980: 77)

Humanistic approach has given rise to the existence of foreign language teaching methodology such as Community Language Learning by Curran, Silent Way by Gattegno and Suggestopedia by Lazanov, and Communicative Language Teaching. There are several concepts that are closely allied to Communicative Language Teaching such as Task-Based Language Teaching, Cooperative Language Learning, Collaborative Language Learning, Active learning, and Active, Interactive, Communicative, Effective, and Joyful Learning or popularly known in Indonesia as PAIKEM (*Pendekatan yang aktif, interaktif, komunikatif, efektif, dan menyenangkan*). These terms are simply expression for the latest fashions in foreign language teaching. They could be used to label the current concerns within a Communicative Approach frame work (Brown 2004: 40). These foreign language teaching methods focus on a conducive context for learning, a non-threatening environment where learners can freely learn what they need to. There are aspects of language learning which may call upon conditioning process, other aspects need a meaningful cognitive process, and yet others depend upon the non-threatening environment in which learners can learn freely and willingly. Each aspect, however, is required and appropriate for certain type of purpose of language learning.

1.2.4. Constructivism

The latest catchword in educational field is constructivism which is often applied both to learning theory (how people learn) and to epistemology (the nature of knowledge). In pedagogy, constructivism is often contrasted with the behaviorist approach. Constructivism takes a more cognitive approach as Glaserfled (in Murphy, 1997: 5) argued "From the constructivist's perspective, learning is not a stimulus-response phenomenon. It requires self-regulation and building of conceptual structures through reflection and abstraction."

Constructivism is a philosophy of learning founded on the premise that, by reflecting on our experiences, we construct our own understanding of the world we live in. In other words, it refers to the idea that learners construct knowledge for themselves. This is in consonant with Holzer (1994: 2) who states that "the basic idea of constructivism is that knowledge must be constructed by the learner. It cannot be supplied by the teacher." Each learner individually and/or socially constructs meaning as he or she learns. The construction of meaning is learning; there is no other kind. The dramatic consequences of this view are twofold, namely: (1) we have to focus on the learner in thinking about learning (not on the subject/lesson to be taught); and (2) There is

no knowledge independent of the meaning attributed to experience (constructed) by the learner, or community of learners.

Based on Piaget's definitions of knowledge, Bringuier (in Holzer, 1994: 2) provides clue of how learning can be nurtured or developed. He states that "Learning is an interaction between subject and object. It is a perpetual construction made by exchanges between thought and its object". Thus, the construction of knowledge is a dynamic process that requires the active engagement of the learners who will be responsible for ones' learning, while, the teacher only creates an effective learning environment.

Current conception of constructivism tends to be more holistic than traditional information-processing theories (Cunningham, 1991). It has extended the traditional focus on individual learning to address collaborative and social dimensions of learning. Hence, this often referred to as social constructivism. Another sister term is Communal Constructivism that was introduced by Bryn Holmes in 2001. Social constructivist scholars view learning as an active process where learners should learn to discover principles, concepts and facts for themselves; hence it is also important to encourage guesswork and intuitive thinking in learners. The social constructivist model thus emphasizes the importance of the relationship between the student and the instructor in the learning process; individuals make meanings through the interactions with each other and with the environment they live in. Knowledge is thus a product of humans and is socially and culturally constructed (Prawat and Floden 1994). In sum, learning is a social process; it is not a process that only takes place inside our minds (Cognitivism), nor is it a passive development of our behaviors that is shaped by external forces (Behaviorism). Meaningful learning occurs when individuals are engaged in social activities (McMahon, 1997). This current conception of social constructivism, according to Wood (1998: 39) can possibly be viewed as the bringing together of aspects of the work of Piaget with that of Lev Vygotsky.

Vygotsky's Concept: One of Vygotsky's (1978) concepts which is very influential in pedagogical field is the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). This was originally developed by Vygotsky to argue against the use of standardized tests as a means to determine students' intelligence. He stated that rather than examining what a student knows to determine intelligence, it is better to examine their ability to solve problems independently and their ability to solve problems with the assistance of an adult.

What is ZPD? One conception states that ZPD is the zones between what Vygotsky calls 'actual' development (what the learner can do independently) and 'potential' development (what the learner can do in the future, with the help of others now). Every act of learning occurs within a ZPD; building on what the learner already knows and can do. Each learner has two levels of development: a level of independent performance and a level of potential performance. To sum up, ZPD is the gap between these two levels. (Feeze and Joyce 2002: 25-26)

Learning, according to Vygotsky, is first inter-psychological (social) before it is intra-psychological (psychological) in nature; in other words, it begins by being object-regulated, and then is others-regulated, before it is self-regulated. Object-regulation refers to the role played by concrete manifestations of culture in the environment (i.e. objects and artifacts, rituals, routines and daily practices, documents and valued texts, and so on) that function as sign systems that mediate learning. The learners' starting point is thus social, in the first place, because they begin by taking cues from the environment. Children's playground activities, for example, are also of value not so much because they provide the children opportunities to manipulate, explore, and discover the environment, but more because the role-playing which often dominates such activities is a form of object-regulation of the children's understandings of their environment.

One's potential development, however, cannot be manifested, if learning stops at object-regulation. The key to such a manifestation is the role played by significant others in mediating learning (the stage of others-regulation). Such significant others may include parents, elders, teachers, and more expert peers, who through talk and other means provide explicit or conscious as well as implicit or unconscious guidance to the learner. Returning to the examples of playground activities, this guidance may take the form of explanations of the meanings of the activities or of an expert peers telling another their own view. It is at the stage of others-regulation that language becomes important, not only to facilitate the transactions between 'expert' and learner, but also enable key concepts to be understood and retained.

For the potential development manifested by what the learner is able to do with the help of others to be transformed eventually into actual development; self-regulation is vital. This is the stage in which the learners process and manipulate by themselves the knowledge and understanding gained; they begin to be capable of working independently. Vygotsky confirms that the presence of more capable others in a child's learning environments enables him/her to be involved in cultural events at social level that eventually develop the her/his individual cultural

identity. While individual potential is acknowledged, this potential can only develop to its maximum capacity when he/she child undergoes learning processes involving more knowledgeable others that create social interaction, negotiation, and shared learning. In classroom context, Corden (2000: 8) suggests that “classroom learning can best be seen as an interaction between teacher’s meanings and those of the pupils, so what they take away is partly shared and partly unique to each of them”.

Constructivism (especially Vygotsky’s ideas) has been adopted by Derewianka (1990) and Butt et al. (2001) to design a foreign language teaching method called Genre-Based Approach. This model is firstly popularized as Curriculum Cycle which is very influential in school settings in New South Wales, Australia, as well as in Singapore. This is a simple model for developing complete lesson units (cycles) around text types/genres to be taught, and has as its ultimate aims of helping learners to gain literacy independently through mastery of text types and genres. Each lesson unit (cycle) has as its central focus on a chosen text type or genre, and consists of a fixed sequence of stages. The descriptions of the cycle in Derewianka (1990) and Butt et al. (2001) vary in minor ways, but four phases essential for developing control of a genre may be identified, namely: Context Exploration, Text Exploration based on Model Texts, Joint Construction of a Text, and Individual Application.

Every cycle begins with context exploration, ‘context’ referring to the possible contexts of situation in which the chosen text-type or genre may be used. This phase resembles the pre-listening/reading/speaking/writing phase that has come to be typical in Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), and the activities that may be carried out may resemble to typical pre-activities in skills-based teaching. However, where traditional pre-activities have aims as warming up and activation of mental schema, the main goal of the genre-based Curriculum Cycle is to help students to become aware of and understand some aspects such as: the social purpose of the chosen genre, the contextual factors influencing the production of the texts, and the texts themselves. Based on Vygotskian principles, another important aim of the context exploration phase, from the teacher’s point of view, is to establish the learners’ ‘actual development’ or starting point. (Derewianka, 1990; Butt et al., 2001)

The next stage, text exploration based on Model Texts, is the first of two perhaps distinctive key phases in the Curriculum Cycle that demonstrates how GBA different from other forms of CLT. The aims of this phase are to familiarize the learners with the target text-

type/genre, and to draw attention to organizational and linguistic features commonly found in texts belonging to it. Model texts play a crucial role in this phase, providing, in Vygotsky's terms, the necessary object-regulation. Using such model texts, the pedagogical activities to make explicit the features of the text-type are carried out. These may include a range of established 'communicative activities', such as the re assembling of 'jigsaw' texts or information gap exercises, but the tasks are deliberately constructed in such a way as to highlight the salient lexical and grammatical features.

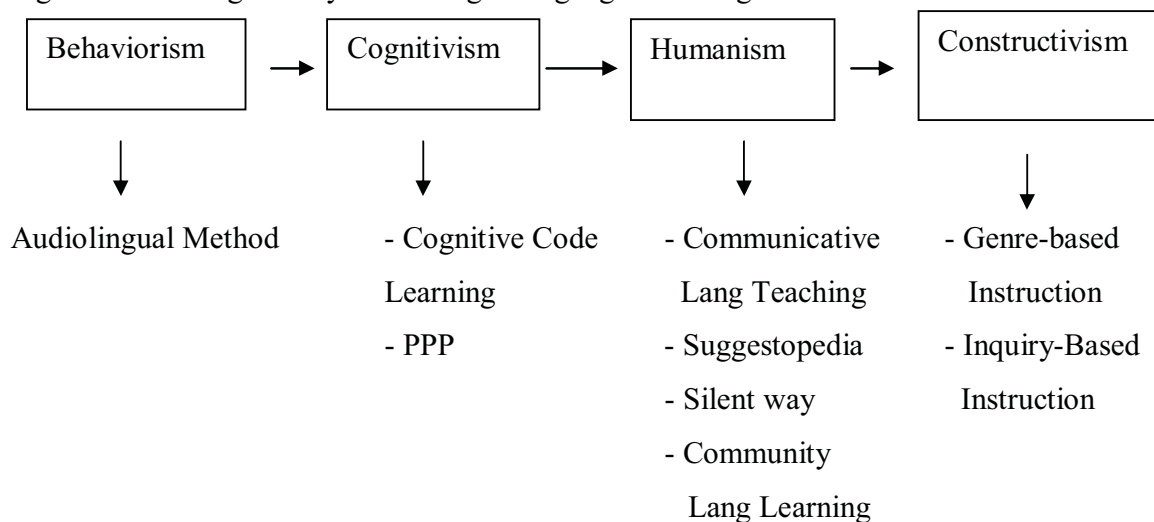
Thus, the tasks aim to be implicitly analytical, and not just to facilitate interaction as an end in itself. Of course, more explicitly analytical work is also possible: for example, students may be asked to 'hunt' for and highlight all instances of a specific grammatical form. Direct teaching by the instructor is also an option, in order to make the features obvious to the learners. How the formal features work to help the text-type achieves its purposes are also discussed or explored. The teacher plays a key role in others regulation throughout this phase. (Derewianka, 1990; Butt et al., 2001)

Others-regulation continues and takes centre-stage in the next stage, the joint construction. Here, referring to the model texts, and making use of the knowledge and awareness gained from the exploration of the text, the students work with the teacher to construct their own texts (spoken or written) in the text-type/genre. This can take some forms of activity such as teacher-fronted whole-class co-construction of a single text on the board, small-group or pair construction with the teacher helping each group or pair by turn, or teacher conferencing with individual students.

In the case of writing, as with process approaches, the texts may go through a few rounds of drafting, editing, and re-drafting. The model texts continue to provide object-regulation, while others-regulation comes from not only the teacher but also from other students, as more expert peers guide others. What is to be noted in both the text exploration and joint construction phases is that while there is much oral interaction taking place, its nature and intention is different from that of most forms of CLT. Where the interactive activities in CLT are often designed to simulate real life interaction, directed at providing opportunities for talking in the language, the talk in GBA is about using language and is focused on a collaborative effort to learn to accomplish a purpose in the language.

The last stage in the Cycle, individual application, as the name suggests, requires learners to work individually/independently, for example, in the case of writing, to produce individual essays. Ideally, this is carried out only after the students have successfully produced a jointly constructed text or understanding of a text. This phase then provides the opportunity for self-regulation, the crucial final stage in Vygotsky's model of learning. What each learner produces can be further recycled through further others-regulation (e.g. peer editing, teacher feedback), until the learner attains a desired level of attainment. (Derewianka, 1990; Butt et al., 2001)

Figure 1: Learning Theory and Foreign Language Teaching Methods



1.3. Theory of Language

This section discusses some language theories which are relevant with the current issues in foreign language teaching and learning, especially in Indonesia context. The chosen topics for the discussion here are genre and text, speech act, and communicative competence.

1.3.1. Genre and Text

Current teaching method of English is widely known Genre-based approach (GBA). According to Hyland (2003), GBA has varied theoretical bases in linguistics, such as Rhetorical Structure Theory in North America (Mann & Thompson, 1988) and Generic Structure Potential theory in Australia (Halliday & Hasan, 1989), in fields such as genre analysis. Genre analysis is the study of how language is used within a particular setting (Swales 1990) and is concerned

with the form of language use in relation to meaning (Bhatia 1993). This is a tool to examine the structural organization of texts by identifying the moves and strategies, and to understand how these moves are organized in order to achieve the communicative purpose of the text. Genre analysis also examines the lexico-grammatical features of genres to identify the linguistic features chosen by users to realize the communicative purpose, and to explain these choices in terms of social and psychological contexts (Henry & Roseberry, 1998). Other considerations in genre analysis include the communicative purpose, the roles of the writer and the audience, and the context in which the genre is used. The results from analyzing a genre serve as the instructional materials in genre-based instruction.

What is a genre? Swales (1990: 58) identified a genre as “a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes”. His definition offers the basic idea that there are certain conventions or rules which are generally associated with a writer’s purpose. For example, personal letters tell us about (their writers’) private stories and film reviews analyze movies for potential viewers. Most genres use conventions related to communicative purposes; a personal letter starts with a cordial question in a friendly mood because its purpose is to maintain good relationships, and an argument essay emphasizes its thesis since it aims at making an argument. They are the examples of written genres.

Meanwhile, according to Byram (2004: 235), genre refers to “a staged, goal-oriented, purposeful activity in which speakers engage as members of their culture”. Some circumstances as examples of spoken genres are buying fruits, telling a story, writing a diary, applying for a job interview, writing an invitation letter, and so on (Kay & Dudley-Evans, 1998: 309). Each spoken genre has a specific goal that people should achieve through several steps. Thus, the specific social goals become main focuses when genre is discussed. The implication is that when writing, the context of a situation should be considered and analyzed in order to anticipate what linguistic features are required. All genres control a set of communicative purposes within certain social situations and each genre has its own structural quality according to those communicative purposes. (Kay and Dudley-Evans, 1998: 309)

Genres also refer to more specific classes of texts, such as newspaper reports or recipes. Texts of each genre may be purely of one text-type (for example, a bus schedule is purely an Information Report, while most recipes are purely of the text type ‘Instructions’) or they may be a blend (for example, sermons often include stretches of narratives or recounts, as well as

explanations, while usually expository in intent). The classification and labeling of genres may vary, depending, among other things, on the theoretical influences behind each approach. For example, in some instances, written genres are defined in terms of familiar broad categories such as *Narratives*, *Description*, *Persuasion*, *Argumentation*, etc. Another approach makes a distinction around six text prototypes called text types, and more specific genres that employ each or combinations of these text types. Whatever the differences, categorization is based on what the discourse seeks to achieve or to do socially, for example, to tell a story (Narratives) or to argue an opinion (Argument, Exposition).

The specification of genres to be taught in language teaching is based on the classification used by many systemic functional linguists, especially in applications to classroom teaching of English (e.g. Derewianka, 1990; Butt et. al., 2001). The classification involves a distinction between text types and genres. Text types refer to text prototypes defined according to their primary social purposes, and six main text types are identified as follows: (1) Narratives tell a story, usually to entertain, (2) Recounts (Personal, Factual) tell what happened, (3) Information Reports provide factual information, (4) Instructions tell the listener or reader what to do, (5) Explanations explain how or why something happens, and (6) Expository Texts present or argue viewpoints.

The structural features of genres include both standards of organization structure and linguistic features. Standards of organizational structure refer to how a text is sequenced. What is a text? A text is a semantic unit, a unit of language that makes sense. A conversation, talk, or a piece of writing can be called a text only when it makes sense. When it does not make sense, it is not a text; it is not communication. Communication happens only when we make sensible texts. (Agustien, 2006: 5) Meanwhile, Butt et al. (2001: 3), state that a text refers to “a piece of language in use”, which is a “harmonious collection of meanings appropriate to its context” and hence has “unity of purpose”. In other words, texts are stretches of language that may be considered complete in themselves as acts of social exchange. Length and mode of communication are immaterial: a text may be long or short, written or spoken. A brief exchange of greetings as two acquaintances pass each other is as much a text as is a 600-page novel.

Common sets of linguistic features can constitute a text type. Biber in Paltridge (1996: 237) states that a text type is “a class of texts having similarities in linguistic forms regardless of the genre”. Hammond in Paltridge (1996: 237-239) exemplifies the characteristics of several

genres and categorized them according to similarities in text types: recipes have procedure type of text; personal letters are often used to tell private anecdotes; advertisements deal with description; news articles have recount type; scientific papers prefer passive voice over active voice in presenting reports; and academic papers commonly have embedded clauses (Paltridge, 1996: 237-239). This means that different text types involve distinctive knowledge and different sets of skills.

1.3.2. Speech Act

Speech act is an act of communication. In attempting to express themselves, people do not only produce utterances containing grammatical structures and words, they perform action via those utterances. Actions which are performed via utterances are generally called speech act. In English speech acts are “commonly given more specific labels, such as apology, complaint, compliment, invitation, promise or request” (Jule, 2000: 47). Speech act theory focuses on communicative acts, which are performed through speech. It is coined by Austin (1962). He observed that sentences are not always used to report state affairs; some sentences, in certain circumstances, must be treated as the performance of an act.

Austin also has proposed the distinction between constatives and performatives. The first refers to declaratives whose truth/falsity can be judged and the latter is the opposite, lack of a truth-value since performatives ‘do’ an action. This distinction helps reveal Austin’s view of two aspects of the conditions underlying speech acts: context and text (circumstance and language). There are also possibilities that performatives can be realized without verbs and not all types of performatives need verbs specialized to that task. He proposes the term explicit performatives (with verb) and primary performatives (without verb). One outcome of this is that primary performatives can be ambiguous, the saying “this house is yours’ may be either an act of bequeathing (I give it to you) or an acknowledgement that it (already) belongs to you.

Austin has also proposed several tests to identify performative verbs. First, the simplest is that *hereby* can be inserted before the verb. Thus one can say: I hereby promise but not I hereby sing. ...Another way is to ask whether the saying of an utterance is the only way to perform the act, for example, one cannot apologize, or promise without saying something to someone, whereas one can be sorry, be grateful or intend to do something without saying

anything. And the easiest speech acts to recognize would appear to be those which contain explicit performative verbs such as “*promise, bet, warn, bequeath, state*”, etc.

We have seen that utterances in speech acts have certain qualities. On any occasion, the action performed by producing an utterance will consist of three related acts: a locutionary act, an illocutionary act, and a perlocutionary act. The locutionary act is the act of saying something; producing a series of sounds which mean something. This is the language aspect, which has been the concern of linguistics. The illocutionary act is the issuing of an utterance or the act performed when saying something. It includes acts of betting, promising, ordering, warning, etc. Thus, to say, “*I promise to come*” is to promise to come. The perlocutionary acts is the actual effect achieved ‘by saying’ on hearers. This is also generally known as the perlocutionary effect.

Austin has basically proposed grouping his performative verbs into five major classes:

- (1) **Verdictives**. They are typified by the giving of a verdict (judgment) by a jury, arbitrator or referee, such as the words “*acquit, grade, estimate, and diagnose*”.
- (2) **Exercitives**. Verbs with the exercising of powers, rights, or influence, such as the words “*appoint order, advice, and warn*”.
- (3) **Comissives**. Verbs which commit the speaker to do something, but also include declarations or announcements of intention, such as the words “*promise, guarantee, bet, and oppose.*”
- (4) **Behabitives**. A miscellaneous group concerned with attitudes and social behavior, such as the words “*apologize, criticize, bless, challenge.*”
- (5) **Expositives**. Verbs which clarify how utterances fit into on-going discourse and how they are being used, such as “*argue, postulate, affirm, and concede.*”

(Austin, 1962; Coulthard, 1985, Schiffrin, 1999)

Here are some other examples of speech acts that we use or hear every day:

Greeting	: "Hi, Mommy. How are things going?"
Request	: "Could you pass me the mashed potatoes, please?"
Complaint	: "I've already been waiting three weeks for the computer, and I was told it would be delivered within a week."
Invitation	: "We're having some people over Saturday evening and wanted to know if you'd like to join us."
Compliment	: "Hey, I really like your tie!"
Refusal	: "Oh, I'd love to see that movie with you but this Friday just isn't going to work."

1.3.3. Communicative Competence

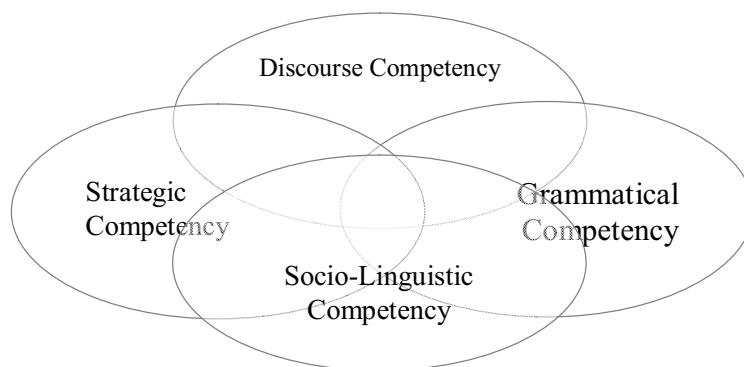
One of the theoretical bases for foreign language teaching is that language as communication. Thus, the goal of language teaching is to develop what Hymes (1972) referred to as "communicative competence." Hymes coined this term to contrast a communicative view of language and Chomsky's theory of competence and performance. For Chomsky (1965: 3) competence is "the speaker-hearer's knowledge of his language." Speaker and hearer are defined as those ideal individuals in a completely homogeneous speech community. For Hymes (1970) the ideal speaker-hearer simply does not exist, because a completely homogeneous speech community is simply non-existent. The language used for communication in society is so full of varieties that competence must be coupled with performance. For Chomsky, the focus of linguistic theory was to characterize the abstract abilities speakers possess that enable them to produce grammatically correct sentences in a language (Chomsky 1965: 3). Hymes held that such a view of linguistic theory was incomplete, that linguistic theory needed to be seen as part of a more general theory incorporating communication and culture.

Hymes's theory of communicative competence was a definition of what a speaker needs to know in order to be communicatively competent in a speech community. In his view, a person who acquires communicative competence acquires both knowledge and ability for language use with respect to: (1) whether or not something is formally possible (grammaticality); (2) whether or not something is feasible (natural and immediately comprehensible); for example, *The cat that the dog chased died* is feasible, in the intended sense whereas *This is the man that hit the dog that chased the cat that died* is totally not feasible (Chomsky (1965: 10); (3) whether or not something is appropriate in relation to a context in which it is used; (4) whether or not something is in fact done and actually performed. (Hymes, 1972: 281; Brumfit and Johnson, 1989: 14) Hymes seems to have parameters with a wider coverage of communicative competence which encompasses not only the formally grammatical but also what is easily understood, appropriate to context, and actually done.

Based on Hymes's concepts, Michael Canale (1983: 43) proposed communicative competence which includes four domains of knowledge and skills as follows: (1) *Grammatical competence* or linguistic competence which refers to the ability to use the language correctly, how well a person has learned features and rules of the language. This includes vocabulary,

pronunciation, and sentence formation. How well does the learner understand the grammar of English? Teachers call this *accuracy* in language use. (2) *Sociolinguistic competence* which refers to the learner's ability to use language correctly in specific social situations – for example, using proper language forms at a job interview. Socio-linguistic competence is based upon such factors as the status of those speaking to each other, the purpose of the interaction, and the expectations of the players. How socially acceptable is the person's use of English in different settings? This competency is about suitability of using language. (3) *Discourse competence* which refers to the learner's ability to use the new language in spoken and written discourse, how well a person can combine grammatical forms and meanings to find different ways to speak or write. How well does the student combine the language's elements to speak or write in English? Teachers often call this ability the student's *fluency*. (4) *Strategic competence* which refers to strategies for effective communication when the learner's vocabulary proves inadequate for the job, and his or her command of useful learning strategies. Strategic competence is how well the person uses both verbal forms and non-verbal communication to compensate for lack of knowledge in the other three competencies. Can the learner find ways to compensate for areas of weakness? If so, the learner has communicative *efficacy*.

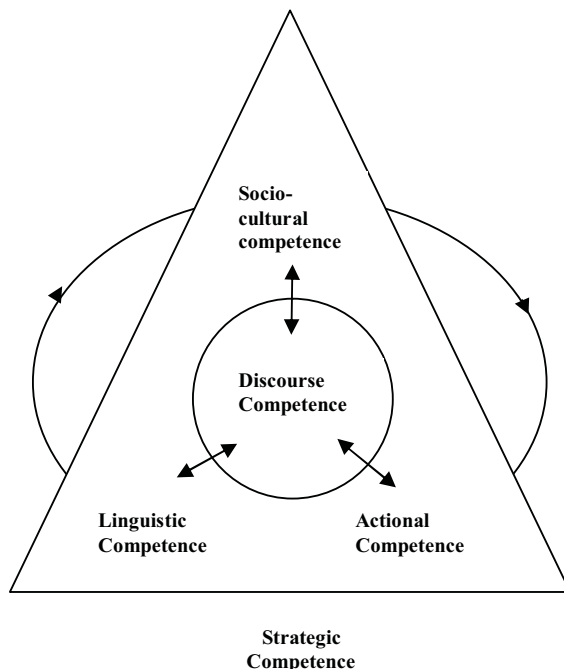
Figure 2: Canale's Communicative Competence



Current theory of communicative competence comes from Celce-Murcia et al. (1995: 10). They describe Communicative Competence as unified competence which comprises of (1) Linguistic competence, (2) sociocultural competence, (3) Actional competence, (4) Discourse competence, and (5) Strategic competence. Discourse competence concerns the selection, sequencing, and arrangement of words, structures and utterances to achieve a unified spoken or written text (i.e. cohesion, deixis, coherence, generic structure, and conversational structure).

Linguistic competence refers to the ability to use the language correctly, how well a person has learned features and rules of the language. This includes vocabulary, pronunciation, and sentence formation. How well does the learner understand the grammar of English? Teachers call this *accuracy* in language use. Actional competence (cf. pragmatic competence and rhetorical competence) is defined as competence in conveying and understanding communicative intent, matching actional intent with linguistic form based on knowledge of an inventory of verbal schemata that carry illocutionary force (speech acts). Socio-cultural refers to the speaker's knowledge of how to express messages appropriately within the overall social and cultural context of communication such as participant variables, situational variables, stylistic appropriateness factors, etc. Strategic competence refers to strategies for effective communication when the learner's vocabulary proves inadequate for the job, and his or her command of useful learning strategies. How well the person uses both verbal forms and non-verbal communication to compensate for lack of knowledge in the other competencies? Can the learner find ways to compensate for areas of weakness? If so, the learner has communicative *efficacy*. (Celce-Murcia, 1995: 5-29)

Figure 3: Celce-Murcia et al.'s Communicative Competence



1.4. Learning Style

People learn in different ways. Just as we prefer different hair styles, clothing styles, managerial styles, and music styles, we also feel much more natural and comfortable acquiring information in ways that fit our preferred styles of learning. Learning style is defined as “any individual’s preferred ways of going about learning” (Nunan, 2002: 168). Researchers in educational psychology as well as in SLA field have observed that learners tend to approach learning in a significantly different ways, and these ways are often referred to as “learning Style”. Learners learn differently and one learning style which may suit to one learner may be not adequate for another learner. Learning Styles are relatively stable; teachers may not have a direct influence on this variable. However, they can modify teaching tasks in the classroom to cater the various learning style of the learners. It is also very likely to encourage the learners to stretch their learning style so as to incorporate different approaches to learning they were resisting in the past. (Cohen and Dornyei, 2004: 176)

Keefe (1979: 4) identifies "cognitive, affective and physiological traits that are relatively stable indicators"; meanwhile Reid (1999: 6) summarises these ideas by proposing three major learning styles: cognitive, sensory, personality.

1.4.1. Cognitive Learning Styles

Cognitive style deals with the mental processes of information. Reid (1999: 6) classifies cognitive styles into three: field-independent/dependent learning styles (FI/FD), analytic/global learning styles, and reflective/impulsive learning styles.

Field independent learners easily separate key details from a complex or confusing background. They tend to prefer situations that allow them freedom in working toward their goals and solving problems. These learners like to work individually. Meanwhile, Field dependent style is “the tendency to be ‘dependent’ on the total field so that the parts embedded within the field are not easily perceived, although that total field is perceived more clearly as a unified whole” (Brown, 2004: 115). Learners who are field dependent may prefer group projects and need more assistance from the instructor. One way to help these students is to make sure that any diagrams and illustrations used as visual aids contain verbal information explaining them.

Analytic vs. global learning styles seems to be closely allied with field independence vs. dependence, and indeed may be a more fundamental and more explanatory dimension of learning style. This strands the learners who focus on the main idea or big picture with those who concentrate on details. Global learners tend to like socially interactive, communicative events in which they can emphasize the main idea and avoid analysis on details. Analytic learners tend to concentrate on details and tend to avoid more communicative activities. (Oxford, 2002: 361)

Reflective learning style is a typical style that produces a slower more calculated answer. Reflective learners tend to “weigh all the considerations in a problem, work out all the loopholes, and then, after extensive reflection, venture a solution”. They tend to think systematically and be more calculated in making decision. Impulsive learning style is the one that produces a quick, gambling answer. Impulsive learners tend to “make a quick or gambling (impulsive) guess at an answer to a problem. Intuitive learners tend to make a number of different gambles before on the basis of intuitions, with possibly several successive gambles before a solution is achieved. (Brown, 2004: 121) SLA research on the field shows as follows: learners who are reflective tend to make fewer errors; reflective learners may be better an inductive learning; reflective learners may be slower, but more accurate in reading; and impulsive learners are usually faster readers; impulsive learners go through stages of Interlanguage faster, while reflective learner's seem to lag behind.

1.4.2. Sensory Learning Styles

Sensory learning styles refer to the physical, perceptual learning channels with which a learner is most comfortable with (Oxford, 2002: 360). These can be classified into three major types: auditory, visual, and kinesthetic learners. Most people have a combination of learning styles but one is usually stronger.

An auditory learner learns best when information is presented through hearing things. This means that the more the learner is able to hear the information, the easier it may be for that learner to learn the information. For the auditory learner, oral presentations are crucial for understanding a subject, as this kind of learner has the ability to remember speeches and lectures in detail but has a hard time with written text. It will be helpful for auditory learners to do the following things, namely: to record lectures, to use word associations, to listen to audiotapes, to

read notes aloud, to sit in the front of the class where the teacher can easily be seen and heard, and to study and discuss subjects with other students (Oxford, 2002: 360; Mortensen, 2008: 4-5). Classroom practices which are suitable for them are discussion groups, lectures, tape recorder, cooperative learning, directions discussed by the teacher before an activity is attempted, listening to books read to the group, books on tape, information put to songs, silly sayings that help him/her remember information (i.e. mnemonic devices), and recited poems of information. An auditory learner may prefer to study using the materials just listed. (Mortensen, 2008: 3)

Visual learners are those who learn through seeing things. They learn best when information is presented visually. This means that the more the learner is able to see the information, the easier it may be for that learner to learn the information. The visual learner will often lose focus during long oral lectures, especially if these are not accompanied by drawings and illustrations. The visual learner takes mental pictures of information given, so in order for this kind of learner to retain information, oral or written, presentations of new information must contain diagrams and drawings, preferably in color. The visual learner can take a lot of benefit from things such as color-coded notes, using drawings to illustrate, outlining information, and using mind maps and flash cards. (Oxford, 2002: 360) Some of the things a visual learner might need to use are textbooks, worksheets, written notes, maps, flash cards, diagrams, written directions, notes on index cards, notes on the blackboard, information on posters, bulletin boards, written outlines, graphic organizers (a kind of written diagram used for outlining or seeing relationships between concepts), drawings, and pictures. A visual learner may prefer to study using the materials just listed. Learning activities suitable for visual learners are as follows: drawing a map of events in history or draw scientific process; making outlines of everything; copying what's on the board; asking the teacher to diagram; taking notes, making lists; watching videos; outlining reading; using flashcards and highlighters, circling words, and underlining. (Mortensen, 2008: 3)

Tactile/kinesthetic learners are those who learn through experiencing/doing things. They are often described as learners who have problems sitting still and who often bounce their legs while tapping their fingers on the desks. They are often referred to as hyperactive students with concentration issues. Kinesthetic learner can best benefit from doing things such as classes with hands-on labs, study with (loud) music in the background, use memory and flash cards, and study in small groups, studying in short blocks, taking lab classes, role playing, taking field trips,

visiting museums, studying with others, using memory games, and using flash cards to memorize. (Oxford, 2002: 360)

Multi-sensory learners learn best when visual, auditory, and tactile/kinesthetic presentation methods are all employed to learn a particular concept. This means that the more the learner is able to see, hear, touch, manipulate the materials used to present the information, and use his/her body movements, the easier it may be for that learner to learn the information. To determine the types of materials a multi-sensory learner might use, look at the suggestions for visual learners, auditory learners, and tactile/kinesthetic learners above. Basically, you are combining these three presentation methods, when you employ a multi-sensory method. With regards to studying, a multi-sensory learner will need to combine study methods from the visual, auditory, and tactile/kinesthetic areas outlined above.

1.4.3. Personality Learning Styles

Personality type is a construct based on the work of Carl Yung. There are many personality types which have been identified; this section, however, just focuses on three major personality types significant in foreign language learning. They include extroversion/introversion and tolerance of ambiguity.

Extroversion/introversion is often thought of as being bipolar, but in reality it occurs along a continuum. People who fall at the extremes have clear preferences. Those who fall in the middle are called "ambiverts" and can function well in many different situations. Extroverts gain their greatest energy from the external world. They are energized by being with other people. They want interaction with people and have many friendships. Commonly, extroverts talk more and tend to take action with less reflection; they work better in groups than alone; they are good at interpreting body language & facial expressions; they excel during classes with high levels of activity; they respond well to praise and competition; they take a lot of benefits from video-conferencing, face-to-face interaction, class discussion, multimedia, chat rooms, and group work. (Ehrman, 1999; Oxford, 2002)

Introverts derive their energy from the internal world, seeking privacy and tending to have just a few friendships, which are often very deep. They are energized by their own minds and find their energy levels rapidly reduced when interacting with others. Commonly, introverts

talk less and reflect more before acting; like to be quiet; better at reflective problem solving and tasks involving long-term memory; like to work independently or with one or two other people; prefer slower, more accurate approach; may have trouble establishing rapport with others; oriented toward inner world of ideas and feelings; prefer low sensory input and low levels of activity; excel at focusing attention for long periods of time in situations if there are no distractions; and have a lot going on in their inner world. They take benefits from activities such as individual work and reading and writing assignments. (Ehrman, 1999; Oxford, 2002)

Tolerance for ambiguity is another style dimension of language learning. It concerns the degree of which learners are cognitively willing to tolerate ideas which are incongruent with their belief system or structure of knowledge. Learners who are tolerant of ambiguity are free to entertain a number of innovative and creative possibilities and not be disturbed by ambiguity or uncertainty. Tolerant learners are more likely to be risk takers and persistent processors, and can be expected to perform well when faced with a learning situation containing novelty, complexity, contradiction and/or lack of structure. In foreign language learning, tolerant for ambiguity has advantages such as learners can accept much contradictory information in the TL and they will entertain innovation. The disadvantages are that learners may become too accepting, may not consider the correct information, and may not integrate rules into a whole system of L2. (Brown, 2004: 120-121)

Intolerant learners are those who typically lack the flexibility and the willingness to perceive ambiguous situations as desirable. In foreign language learning, intolerance of ambiguity has advantages such as learners can guard against the 'wishy-washy' attitude and can deal with reality of foreign language and system. On the contrary, it has some disadvantages such as learners may close mind early in the learning process, may become rigid in learning, too narrow to be creative. (Brown, 2004: 120-121)

1.5. Learner Language

In applied linguistics, learner language is well known as an Interlanguage (the language of the second language learners). This term was first coined by Selinker (1977; 1997) to draw attention to the fact that the learner's language system is neither that of the mother-tongue nor

native language (NL) nor that of the target language (TL). The learner's language system contains elements of both NL and TL. If we can imagine a continuum between the first language system (which constitutes the learner's initial knowledge) and the second language system (which constitutes the target language) we can say that at any given period of L2 development, the learner speaks an interlanguage. Thus, the significant feature of an interlanguage is the existence of error, often referred to as learner error or interlanguage error.

There are several other terms related to interlanguage which have become current such as (1) Transitional Competence, (2) Idiosyncratic Dialect, and (3) Approximative System. Transitional Competence is proposed by Corder (1977) to indicate the fact that learners are developing knowledge of Second Language. Idiosyncratic Dialect (Corder, 1977) is to specify the view that the learner is speaking an Idiosyncratic Dialect. At any given time, the learner operates a self-contained language variety (dialect), many aspects of his language is unique (idiosyncratic) to the individual learner. Approximative System proposed by Nemser (1971) gives emphasis that the learner's language has its own system, which is approximative in nature, more or less close to the full second (target) language system. The most popular term is the one proposed by Selinker (1977; 1997), that is, an Interlanguage. This term has been used most frequently of all.

In his "Rediscovering of Interlanguage", Selinker (1997) confirms that interlanguage is a universal phenomenon. In general, it deals with the creation of a new 'inter-systems' when someone tries to learn other system or it happens when learners learn a new language other than his mother tongue (L2, L3 etc.)

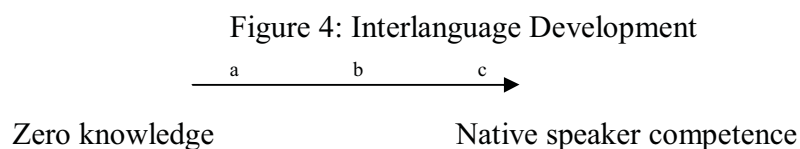
As a language system, interlanguage has specific features different from other natural languages. Adjemian (1976) Selinker (1977; 1997), Yip (1995), and Saville-Troike (2006) discuss four important characteristics of interlanguage: (1) systematic, (2) permeable, (3) dynamic, and (4) fossilization.

Systematicity: Adjemian (1976: 301) suggests that systematicity should be restricted to its linguistic meaning. Then systematicity should mean that "there exists an internal consistency in the rule and feature system which makes up the interlanguage". Like all human languages interlanguage must contain an organized set of rules and basic elements (lexical items, phonological units, grammatical categories, etc.) Saville-Troike confirms that "at any particular point or stage of development, the IL is governed by rules which constitute the learner's internal

grammar. These rules are discoverable by analyzing the language that is used by the learner at that time” (2006: 41).

Permeability: According to Yip (1995: 12), IL refers to "the susceptibility of interlanguage to infiltration by first language and target language rules or forms." The structures of the interlanguage can be invaded by the learner’s native language, especially when the learner is placed in a situation that cannot be avoided (i.e. lack of knowledge of the TL). Similarly, in other situations, the learner may violate or over generalize rules from the TL in his effort to produce the intended meaning. Both of these processes (native language transfer and overgeneralization) reflect the basic permeability of interlanguage.

Dynamicity: Interlanguage is dynamic in the sense that “the system of rules which learners have in their minds changes frequently, resulting in a succession of interim grammar” (Saville-Troike 2006: 41). The system of interlanguage is thought to be incomplete and in a state of flux. For this reason, Corder (1982) gave the term “transitional competence”. This expresses the idea that the TL knowledge system being developed by the learner is a dynamic one. It is in a state of flux or constantly changing, as new knowledge of the L2 is added, an adjustment in the competence already acquired takes place.



Fossilization: The term fossilization was first introduced by Selinker (1988: 92), to refer to "the persistence of plateaus of non-target like competence in the interlanguage". When its dynamicity and permeability is lost, the features of an interlanguage become subject to fossilization. Normally, we expect a learner to progress further along the learning continuum, so that his competence moves closer to the TL system and contains fewer errors. Some errors, however, will probably never disappear entirely. Such errors are often described as already fossilized, meaning that they have become permanent features of the learner’s speech. Han (2004) defines it as “the permanent lack of mastery of a TL despite continuous exposure to adequate input, adequate motivation to improve, and sufficient opportunity to practice” (Han

2004: 4). According to Ellis (2004) fossilization is part of the interlanguage process which happens at a certain point in the IL development.

1.6. Learner Language Analysis

Learner language analysis in applied-linguistics is widely known as Error analysis (EA hereafter). This is “the first approach to the study of SLA which includes an internal focus on learners’ creative ability to construct language” (Saville-Troike 2006: 38). The primary focus of EA is on learner errors and the evidence of how learner errors could provide an understanding of the underlying processes of second language learning or second language acquisition. Learner errors are “windows into the language learner’s mind” (Saville-Troike 2006: 39), since they provide evidence for the system of language which a learner is using at any particular point in the course of L2 development and the strategies or procedures the learner is using in his “discovery of the language”. Errors “tell the teacher what needs to be taught, tell the researcher how learning proceeds, and are a means whereby learners test their hypotheses about the second language” (James 1998: 12). The learners’ learning processes, which Selinker (1997) prefers to refer as learning strategies, can be inferred from an examination of learner language protocols, studies of learner introspections, case studies, diary studies, classroom observations, and experimental studies (Long 1990).

1.6.1. The procedure

The procedure for conducting EA was first proposed by Corder (1978: 126), consisting of three major stages: recognition, description, and explanation of errors. These stages were subsequently elaborated by Sridhar (1980: 103) into the following steps:

- (1) Collection of data (i.e. from free compositions or from examination answers);
- (2) Identification of errors (those which are not acceptable nor accurate)
- (3) Classification into error types (e.g. errors of agreement, articles, verb forms, etc.);
- (4) Statement of relative frequency of error types;
- (5) Identification of the areas of difficulty in the target language; and
- (6) Analysis of the source of error (e.g. L1 transfer, overgeneralization, simplification, etc.);
- (7) Determination of the degree of disturbance caused by the error (the seriousness of the error in terms of communication, norm, etc.).

- (8) Therapy or remedial lessons.

1.6.2. Error Identification

The first step in error analysis is to determine the elements in the learner language which deviate from the TL. For this purpose, distinction should be made between error and mistake. An error arises “only when there was no intention to commit one” (James 1998: 77). Errors are systematic, consistent deviance which is characteristic of the learner’s linguistic system at a given stage of learning. Errors are typically produced by learners who do not yet fully command some institutionalized language system; they arise due to the imperfect competence in the target language. Meanwhile, mistakes are deviations due to performance factors such as memory limitation, fatigue, and emotional strain. They are typically irregular and can be readily corrected by the learners themselves when their attention is drawn to them. James (1998: 78) states that “if the learner is able to correct a fault in his or her output, it is assumed that the form he or she selected was not the one intended, and we shall say that the fault is a mistake.” These mistakes seem to increase in frequency under the conditions of stress, indecision, and fatigue. It is to be presumed, therefore, that second language learners also demonstrate similar mistakes in performance, where all these conditions are likely to occur.

James (1998) said that sentences can be judged as free from errors when they fulfill two criteria: grammaticality and acceptability. “Grammaticality is synonymous with well-formedness. It is the grammar which decides whether something which is said by a learner is grammatical (James, 1998: 65)”. A piece of language is grammatical if it does not break any of the rules of the standard language. Thus, the sentence *The cat died* is grammatical as is *The cat that the dog chased died* and so is *The cat that the dog that the man hit chased died*. Most native speakers, however, would not accept the third sentence. This sentence is certainly grammatical but it is unacceptable in form rather than in content. An ungrammatical utterance is one which deviates from the standard norms. The sentence *The cat did not died* is ungrammatical.

Acceptability refers to “practical notion, being determined by the use or usability of the form in question; it deals with actualization procedure” (James 1998: 66). Acceptability is judged not by linguistic factors, but by the user. It is the user who decides whether an utterance is acceptable. An acceptable utterance is one “that has been, or might be, produced by a native

speaker in some appropriate context and is, or would be, accepted by other native speakers as belonging to the language in question” (James 1998: 67). Thus, to decide the acceptability of an utterance, we do not refer to the rules but to the contexts. For example, if a learner says, *I have a hat on my head*, but he is actually wearing *a cap*, then we judge his utterance as being grammatical but unacceptable. His utterance is well-formed according to the rules of sentence formation in English but contextually inappropriate (unacceptable). In conclusion, we have to consider the sentences produced by learners based on two things: grammaticality and acceptability. Observe the table below for error identification.

Figure 5: Error Identification

Grammatical	Acceptable	Free from Error
Grammatical	Unacceptable	Erroneous
Ungrammatical	Acceptable	Erroneous
Ungrammatical	Unacceptable	Erroneous

1.6.3. Error Description or Classification

There are a number of classificatory systems that have been used in EA studies. Richards (1977), Dulay, Burt, and Krashen (1982), and James (1998) present the most useful and commonly used bases for the descriptive classification of errors. Errors can be described using different kinds of taxonomy, namely, linguistic category, surface strategy, comparative taxonomy, and communicative effect.

The linguistic classification “carries out errors in terms of where the error is located in the overall system of the TL based on the linguistic item which is affected by the error” (James 1998: 105). It indicates in which component of language the error is located. For example, errors can be classified into error in phonological, morphological, or syntactic, level etc.). Within syntax errors are classifiable into auxiliary system, passive sentences, negative construction, etc., or more specific linguistic elements (i.e. articles, prepositions, verbs, and nouns).

The surface strategy taxonomy (or James refers to it as *target modification taxonomy*) is a classification system “based on the ways in which the learner’s erroneous version is different

from the presumed target version” (James 1998: 106). It highlights the ways the surface structures deviate. For example, learners may omit necessary items or add unnecessary ones; they may misform items or misorder them. By using surface strategy taxonomy the error classification can give a clear description about cognitive processes that underlie the learner’s reconstruction of the new language or language being learned. It also makes us aware that learners’ errors result from their active way in using the interim principles to produce the target language. Under this category, errors can be classified into four types: omission, addition, misformation, and misordering (James 1998: 94-112).

1.6.4. Explanation of Error

To explain why errors exist we can use Selinker’s concept of interlanguage. In his conception, he coined the term interlanguage (1977; 1997) to refer to the language of second language learner. The fact is that the learner’s language is an inter system between the system of the mother-tongue and that of the target language. His description of the interlanguage system has a cognitive emphasis and a focus on the strategies that learners employ when learning a second language. It is assumed that interlanguage is the result of the learners’ attempts to produce the target language norms. That is to say, learner errors are the product of the cognitive process in second language learning. He suggests that there are five processes central to second language learning, namely:

- (1) Overgeneralization. Some of the rules of the interlanguage system may be the result of the overgeneralization of specific rules and features of the target language.
- (2) Transfer of Training. Some of the components of the interlanguage system may result from transfer of specific elements via which the learner is taught the second language.
- (3) Strategies of Second Language Learning. Some of the rules in the learner's interlanguage may result from the application of language learning strategies “as a tendency on the part of the learners to reduce the target language to a simpler system” (Selinker, 1977: 219).
- (4) Strategies of Second Language Communication. Interlanguage system rules may also be the result of strategies employed by the learners in their attempt to communicate with native speakers of the target language.
- (5) Language Transfer. Some of the rules in the interlanguage system may be the result of transfer from the learner’s first language.

1.7. Summary

Foreign language teachers have long been engaged in scientific approaches to foreign language teaching methodology based on experimentation and research on linguistic, psychological, and pedagogical foundations. They must have good understanding on the underlying principle or theoretical background which underpins the emergence of the foreign language teaching methodology. There are four major learning theories which many psycholinguists and applied linguistics are familiar with, namely: behaviorism, cognitivism, humanism, and constructivism.

Behaviorism has significant influence on foreign language teaching. It provides the learning theory, which underpins the existence of Audiolingual Method of the 1950s and 1960s. This method has laid down a set of guiding teaching principles such as learning a language is habit formation. Cognitive psychology underpins the rise of a foreign language teaching methodology called Cognitive Approach or Cognitive Code Learning. It emphasizes on studying a foreign language as a system of rules and knowledge, rather than learning it as a set of skills. The role of the teacher is to recognize the importance of the students' mental assets and mental activity in learning. Humanism focuses on a conducive context for learning, a non-threatening environment where learners can freely learn what they need to. In non-threatening environment learners can learn freely and willingly. Constructivism views learning centers on the active learner. This emphasis on the individual during instruction has drawn attention to the prior beliefs, knowledge, and skills that individuals bring with them. Constructivist's greatest contribution to education may be through the shift in emphasis from knowledge as a product to knowing as a process.

Genre: English language teaching in Indonesia has much influenced by Rhetorical Structure theory and Generic Structure Potential theory in the field of genre analysis. Genre analysis is the study of how language is used within a particular setting and is concerned with the form of language use in relation to meaning. Genre is a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes; this is also called text type. Text Types may be fictional (made up) or factual (information reports). The main text types include

long functional, short functional, transactional, and interpersonal. Each of these text types are used for different purposes (social function) and follow a different style or generic structure.

Speech act theory is basically concerned with what people ‘do’ with language (with the function of language). Typically, the functions focused upon are those relate to communicative intention (illocutionary force of an utterance). Actions which are performed via utterances are generally called speech act. In English speech acts are “commonly given more specific labels, such as apology, complaint, compliment, invitation, promise, request, greeting, refusal, warning, etc. On any occasion, the action performed by producing an utterance will consist of three related acts: a locutionary act, an illocutionary act, and a perlocutionary act.

Communicative Competence refers a language user's grammatical knowledge of phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics as well as social knowledge about how and when to use utterances appropriately. The term was coined by Hymes as a reaction against the perceived inadequacy of Chomsky’s distinction between competence and performance. Hymes undertook ethnographic exploration of communicative competence. Current conception (Celce-Murcia) divides communicative competence into discourse, grammatical, sociolinguistic, strategic, and actional competence.

A learning style is an individual's preferred way of learning. When an instructor's style matches a student's learning style, that student typically experiences greater satisfaction and a more positive attitude toward the course. Scholars have generally classified learning styles into three major types: cognitive, personality, and sensory. Learning styles are relatively stable; teachers may not have a direct influence on this variable. However, they can modify teaching tasks in the classroom to cater the learners’ various learning styles. There should be opportunity for learners to work with the learning material in ways that most suit their individual learning style since they approach activities in a variety of ways depending on their personality, their previous learning experience, and their view of the nature of the learning task.

Learner language is often referred to as an interlanguage, the language of second language learner. Language learning is a creative construction process learner error is then considered as an inevitable and positive part of that process. Errors are seen as reflections of learners’ stage of interlanguage development. When learners produce correct, free utterances, they may tell us little about what is going on in their mind. Errors then hold vital clues about the

process of language learning. Like other natural language, interlanguage has its own system different from other languages. Selinker's description of the interlanguage system has a cognitive emphasis and a focus on the strategies that learners employ when learning a second language.

Error analysis as an approach to the study of SLA in which its primary focus of is on learner errors and the evidence of how learner errors can provide an understanding of the underlying processes of second language learning or second language acquisition. Error analysis will continue to enjoy widespread appeal among teachers. Teachers who will always confront with their learners' errors find error analysis as a helpful tool to analyze their learners' errors. Thus, error analysis is quite relevant to their everyday professional concerns. For this reason, error analysis will always play an important role in foreign language research and pedagogy.

Learner language analysis is an approach to the study of SLA in which its primary focus of is on learner errors and the evidence of how learner errors can provide an understanding of the underlying processes of second language learning or second language acquisition. Teachers who will always confront with their learners' errors find error analysis as a helpful tool to analyze their learners' errors. Thus, error analysis is quite relevant to their everyday professional concerns. For this reason, error analysis will always play an important role in foreign language research and pedagogy. It can function as an analytical tool for better understanding of the learners' problems in learning the second language.

1.8. Exercise

A. Give definition to the terminology below. Use dictionary of linguistics and or applied linguistics.

1. Classical conditioning
2. Operant conditioning
3. Meaningful learning
4. Affective factors
5. Free risk environment for language learning
6. Zone of proximal development
7. Kinetic style
8. Extrovert
9. Interlanguage

10. Permeability of interlanguage

B. Choose the best answer from A, B, C, or D

1. According to the behaviorism, human behavior (including verbal behavior) is dependent on three crucial elements of learning as follows, EXCEPT...
 - a. stimulus, response, and reinforcement
 - b. stimulus, motivation, and environment
 - c. input, exposure, and environment
 - d. motivation, input, and environment
2. Classroom environment in Audiolingual method is designed in such a way that there is a maximum amount of...
 - a. group work
 - b. role play
 - c. comprehensible input
 - d. mimicry/memorization
3. The followings are examples of positive reinforcement EXCEPT . . .
 - a. a verbal praise
 - b. a feeling of increased accomplishment
 - c. a good grade
 - d. a mock
4. Noam Chomsky views that much of language use ...
 - a. is imitated behavior (e.g. children from their parents)
 - b. is created a new from underlying knowledge of abstract rules (universal grammar).
 - c. is learned by imitation and repetition
 - d. is due to comprehensible input
5. Learning according to Cognitivism is characterized by the following features, EXCEPT...
 - a. active
 - b. constructive
 - c. cumulative
 - d. rote
6. All learning activities in cognitivism should be meaningful. In so doing, the teacher can do the followings, EXCEPT...
 - a. Build on what the students already know
 - b. Help the students relate new material to their life experiences and their previous knowledge
 - c. provide a lot of pattern practices or drills and memorizations

d. Use inductive, deductive, or discovery learning procedures

7. Humanistic principles have important implications for education. According to this approach, the focus of education is . . .

- a. teaching b. learning c. training d. instruction

8. According to Nunan, humanistic approach to language teaching has a belief in the primacy of . . . within the learning process.

- a. rote learning c. meaningful learning
b. affective & emotional factors d. drills

9. Constructivism has the premise that, by reflecting on our experiences, we construct our own understanding of the world we live in. Thus, knowledge must be ...

- a. constructed by the learner c. supplied by the teacher
b. handed down from generation to generation d. generated from the learner's mind

10. One's potential development cannot be manifested, if learning stops at object-regulation. It should be manifested by significant others in mediating learning, such as the following, EXCEPT...

- a. parents b. elders c. environment d. teachers

11. What follows are examples of ordinary Speech Act, EXCEPT . . .

- a. "I bet you ten dollar if it is raining this afternoon"
b. "I warn you not to disturb my sister"
c. "I watched a Bollywood movie last night"
d. "I command you to finish your paper".

12. Speech act usually contains verbs (bet, warn, promise, name, etc.) which are called . . . verbs

- a. performative b. constative c. imperative d. regular

13. The students' ability to recognize and produce the distinctive grammatical structures of a language and to use them effectively in communication is called... competence.

- a. grammatical
- b. strategic
- c. sociolinguistic
- d. discourse

14. The students' ability to interpret the social meaning of the choice of linguistic varieties and to use language with the appropriate social meaning for the communication situation is called...competence

- a. grammatical
- b. strategic
- c. sociolinguistic
- d. discourse

15. Classroom activities such as discussion groups, lectures, tape recorder, cooperative learning, etc. are likely most suitable for . . . learners.

- a. impulsive
- b. auditory
- c. visual
- d. kinesthetic

16. Extrovert learners commonly have the following traits as follows, EXCEPT

- a. warmth
- b. gregariousness
- c. assertiveness
- d. apprehensiveness

17. Selinker (1977) talked about cognitive strategies in second language learning, EXCEPT

- a. language transfer
- b. strategies of second language learning
- c. transfer of training
- d. error fossilization

18. The following features characterize an interlanguage (the language of second language learner), EXCEPT . . .

- a. systematicity
- b. permeability
- c. fossilization
- d. variability

19. Selinker argues that interlanguage is resulted from the learner's attempts to produce the target language construction. He mentions some learning process/strategies, EXCEPT . . .

- a. language transfer
- b. overgeneralization
- c. transfer of training
- d. fossilization

20. Many people die . . . because they are **offers* of the violence. (Swedish *offer* = *victim*)

At the time he works in a **fabric*. (Swedish *fabrick* = *factory*).

I went every morning to **spring*. (Swedish *spring* = *run*). These data are examples of . . .

- a. simplification errors
- b. transfer errors
- c. overgeneralization errors
- d. induced errors

21. Data: What did he **intended* to say?

She did not **wanted* to learn English.

I **goed* shopping yesterday. These data are examples of . . .

- a. simplification errors
- b. transfer errors
- c. overgeneralization errors
- d. induced errors

22. In Error Analysis, Linguistic Category classifies error according to either or both the language component and the particular linguistic constituent that is affected by an error.

Language components may include EXCEPT . . .

- a. omission
- b. syntax
- c. phonology
- d. morphology

23. Research procedure in error analysis basically consists of three major stages: . . .

- a. elicitation, description, and explanation.
- b. description, recognition, and explanation
- c. identification, description, and explanation
- d. elicitation, identification, and description

24. Surface strategy taxonomy highlights the ways surface structure is altered; in this taxonomy, errors can be classified into the following terms EXCEPT . . .

- a. omission
- b. addition
- c. morphology
- d. misformation.

25. The term *transfer errors* refer to errors which are . . .
- a. the direct result of misunderstanding caused by faulty teaching or materials.
 - b. the result of the learners' first language knowledge.
 - c. the result of the learners' incomplete knowledge of the target language
 - d. the result of the overgeneralization of the target language rules.

KEY

- | | | | | |
|------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 1. A | 6. C | 11. A | 16. D | 21. C |
| 2. D | 7. B | 12. A | 17. D | 22. A |
| 3. D | 8. B | 13. A | 18. D | 23. C |
| 4. B | 9. A | 14. C | 19. D | 24. C |
| 5. D | 10. C | 15. B | 20. B | 25. B |

Check your answer with and score your right answer. Use the formula below to find out your achievement level of this chapter in this module.

$\text{Level of achievement} = \frac{\text{Score of the right answer}}{\text{Total score}} \times 100\%$
--

Meaning of level of achievement:

- 90 – 100% = excellent
- 80 – 89% = good
- 70 – 79% = fair
- < 70% = bad

References

- Adjemian, C. (1976). "On the Nature of Interlanguage System." *Language Learning*, 26: 297--320.
- Agustien, H.I.R. (2006). Text-Based Curriculum and Genre Approach. A plenary paper presented at UPI National Seminar, 27 February 2006.
- Ausubel, David. A. (1968). *Educational Psychology: A Cognitive View*. New York: Holt Rinehart & Winston.
- Bhatia, V. K. (1993). *Analyzing Genre: Language Use in Professional Setting*. London: Longman.
- Brooks. N. (1964). *Language and Language Learning and Teaching: Theory Practice*. Chicago: Rand McNally.
- Brown, H. Douglas. (1994). *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*. New York: Prentice Hall.
- Brown, H. Douglas. (2004). *Teaching by Principles: An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy*. London: Longman.
- Burns, A. (2001). "Genre-Based Approaches to Writing and Beginning Adult ESL Learners". In C. Candlin & N. Mercer (Eds.), *English Language Teaching in its Social Context: A Reader* (pp. 200-207). London: Routledge.
- Butt, D., Fahey, R., Feez, S., Spinks, S., & Yallop, C. (2001). *Using Functional Grammar: An Explorer's Guide* (2nd ed.). Sydney: NCELTR.
- Canale, M. and M. Swain. (1980). "Theoretical Bases of Communicative Approach to Second Language Teaching and Testing". *Applied Linguistics* 7/1-74.
- Celce-Murcia, M., Z. Dornyei, S. Thurrell (1995). Communicative Competence: A Pedagogically Motivated Model with Content Specifications. In *Issues in Applied Linguistics*, 6/2: 5-35.
- Chomsky, N. (1965). *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax*. Cambridge: MIT Press.
- Coelho, Elizabeth. (1997). "Jigsaw: Integrating Language and Content". In Kessler, Carolyn (Ed) 1977. *Cooperative Language Learning*.

- Corden, R. (2000). *Literacy and Learning through Talk: Strategies for the Primary Classroom*. Buckingham: Oxford University Press.
- Corder, S. Pit. (1982). *Error Analysis and Interlanguage*. London: Oxford University Press.
- Depdiknas. (2005). Peraturan Pemerintah Republik Indonesia Nomor 19 Tahun 2005 tentang Standar Nasional Pendidikan. Jakarta: Depdiknas Republik Indonesia.
- Ehrman, M. (1999). *Second Language Learning Difficulties: Looking beneath the Surface*. Thousand Oaks. CA: Sage.
- Ellis, Rod. (2004). *Understanding Second Language Acquisition*. Cambridge: C U P.
- Fees, Susan and Helen Joyce. (2002). Text-based Syllabus Design. Sydney: Macquarie University/AMES.
- Holzer, Siegfried. (1994). *From Constructivism to Active Learning, The Innovator* No.2
- Hyland, K. (2002). Genre in primary classrooms: The New South Wales (NSW) K-6 syllabus. In C. N. Candlin & D. R. Hall (Eds.), *Teaching and researching* (pp. 96-103). Harlow, Essex, UK: Longman.
- Hymes, D. (1972). "On Communicative Competence". In J.B. Pride and J. Holmes (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics* pp.269-93. Harmondsworth: Penguin.
- James, Carl. (1998). *Errors in Language Learning and Use: Exploring Error Analysis*. London: Longman.
- Kay, H., & Dudley-Evans, T. (1998). "Genre: What Teachers Think [Electronic Version]. *ELT Journal*, 52/4: 308-314..
- Long, M. H. (1990). "The Role of the Linguistic Environment in Second Language Acquisition. In W.C. Titchie and T.K Bathia (Eds) *Handbook of Second Language Acquisition*. New York: Academic Press.
- Nunan, David. (1991). *Language Teaching Methodology*. New York: Prentice Hall.
- Oxford, R. (1994). *Language Learning Strategies: an Update*. Eric Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics. Washington, D.C. (ED376707).

- Paltridge, B. (1996). Genre, text type, and the language learning classroom. *ELT Journal*, 50/3: 237-243.
- Piaget, J. (1972). *The Language and Thought of the Child*. Ohio: World Publishing Company
- Rogers, Carl. (1951). *Client Centered Therapy*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Saville-Troike, Muriel. (2006). *Introducing Second Language Acquisition*. Cambridge: C.U.P.
- Schiffrin, Deborah. (1994). *Approaches to Discourse*. Cambridge: Blackwell.
- Selinker, Larry. (1977). "Interlanguage." In Jack C. Richards (Ed.) *Error Analysis: Perspectives on Second Language Acquisition*. London: Longman.
- Skinner, B. F. (1957). *Verbal Behavior*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts.
- Sridhar, N.S. (1980). "Contrastive Analysis, Error Analysis, and Interlanguage: Three Phases of One Goal." In Kenneth Croft (Ed.) *Readings on English as Second Language*. 91--119.
- Sternberg, R. (1996) *Cognitive Psychology*. New York NY: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc.
- Swales, J. M. (1990). *Genre Analysis: English in Academic and Research Settings*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Vygotsky, L. (1978). *Mind in Society*. Cambridge MA: Harvard University Press.
- Watson, John, B. (1913). "Psychology as the Behaviorist Views It". *Psychological Review*, 20: 158—177.
- Yule, George, (1996). *Pragmatics*. Oxford: O.U.P.

CHAPTER 2

FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODS

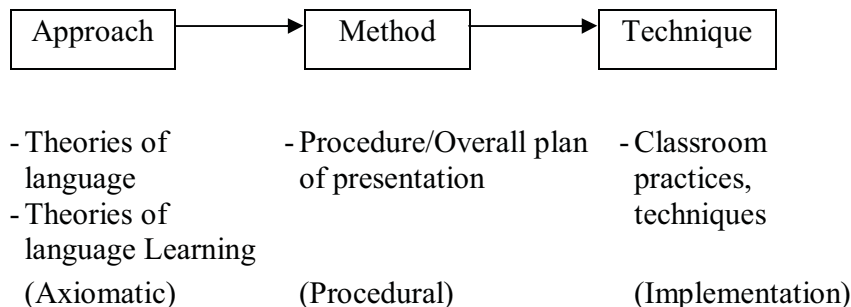
2.1 Introduction

A number of ways of conceptualizing approaches and methods in language teaching have been made. Various attempts have also been made to explore more systematically the relationship between theory and practice within a method. Language teachers are often confronted with a somewhat bewildering set of terms, such as teaching method, model, approach, strategy, and techniques. Given this point of view this section tries to discuss some terms which are widely used in foreign language teaching field. This section will also shed light on some teaching methods which are currently used in English teaching in Indonesia. Some topics chosen for the discussion in this section are the differences between approach, method, and technique, foreign language teaching methods, genre-based instruction, inquiry-based instruction, and cooperative language learning.

2.2. Approach, Method, and Technique

An American applied linguist, Edward Anthony (1963: 94) clearly identifies three levels of conceptualization and organization, which are termed as *approach*, *method*, and *technique* shown in the chart below.

Figure 7: Anthony's Diagram of Approach, Method, and Technique



Anthony (1963: 94) views approach as “A set of correlative assumptions dealing with the nature of language and the nature of language teaching and learning. An approach is an axiomatic.” An approach describes the nature of the subject matter to be taught. It states a point of view, a philosophy or an article of faith, that is, something which one believes but cannot necessarily prove. An approach is often unarguable, except in terms of the effectiveness of the methods which grow out of it. According to Anthony’s model, approach encompasses both theories of language and language learning. Mostly all language-teaching methods operate explicitly from a theory of language and theories about how language is learned. Theories at the level of approach relate directly to the level of design.

Anthony (1963: 95) defines method as “an overall plan for the orderly presentation of language material, no part of which contradicts, and all of which is based upon the selected approach. An approach is axiomatic whereas a method is procedural”. Method is treated at the level of design in which the roles of teachers, learners, and instructional materials are specified. Thus, method is theoretically related to an approach and is organizationally determined by a design. Within one approach, thus, there can be several methods.

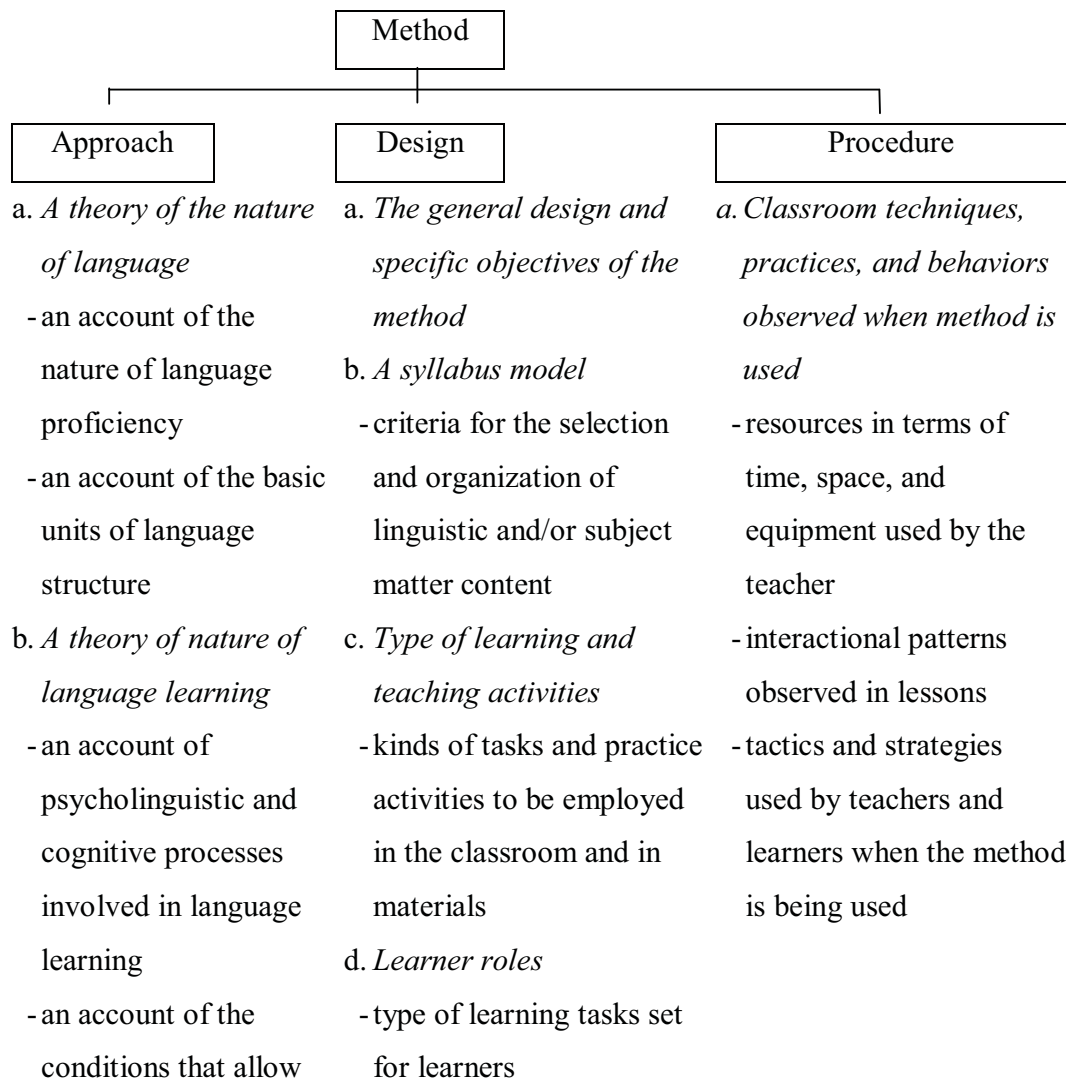
The third level is technique. It is “implementation which actually takes place in a classroom. It is a particular trick, strategy, or contrivance used to accomplish an immediate objective. Technique must be consistent with a method, and therefore in harmony with an approach as well” (Anthony, 1963: 96). Thus, technique encompasses the actual moment-to-moment practices and behaviors that operate in teaching a language according to a particular method. In other words, technique is classroom practices done by the teacher when presenting a language program. This is the way the classroom activities are integrated into lessons and used as the basis for teaching and learning.

In response to Anthony’s conceptualization, Richards and Rodgers (1987: 146) have proposed a modification to the conceptualization by using method as an umbrella term for the specification as interrelation of theory and practice. They modify Anthony’s terminology and propose the terms approach, design, and procedure. Their three terms are used to label three interrelated elements of organization upon which language teaching practices are founded.

In Richard and Rodgers’ concept approach is the same as Anthony’s. They define approach as “assumptions, beliefs and theories about the nature of language and the nature of language learning which operate as axiomatic contrasts or reference points and provide a

theoretical foundation for what language teachers ultimately do with learners in classroom” (Richards and Rodgers, 1978: 146). Meanwhile, design “specifies the relationship between theories of language and theories of learning to both the form and function of instructional materials and activities in instructional setting” (Richards and Rodgers, 1987: 146). The third level in the system is procedure. It “comprises the classroom techniques and practices which are consequences of particular approaches and designs” (Anthony, 1987:146). These three level-approach, design, and procedure form an interdependent system. The ideal methodological development proceeds from approach to design, to procedure. The elements and sub-elements that constitute a method are summarized as follows.

Figure 8: Richards and Rodgers’ Diagram of Method, Approach, Design and Procedure



for successful use of
these processes

- degree of control learners have over the content of learning
- pattern of learner grouping that are recommended or implied
- degree to which learners influence the learning of others
- The view of the learner as a processor, performer, initiator, problem solver, etc.

e. *Teacher roles*

- types of functions teacher fulfill
- degree of teacher influence over learning
- degree to which the teachers and learners
- types of interaction between teachers and learners

f. *The role of instructional materials*

- primary function of materials
- the form of materials take (e.g. textbook, audiovisual)
- relation materials to other input

- assumption made about
teachers and learners

Relevant to the above description on approach, method, and technique, Celce-Murcia (2004: 9) gives her summary stating that an approach is general (e.g. cognitive approach), that a method is specific set of procedures more or less compatible with an approach (e.g. the silent way method), and that a technique is a very specific type of learning activity used in one or more methods (e.g. using colored rods of varying lengths to facilitate language practice in silent way). Meanwhile, Brown (2001: pp. 15-16) provides new reformulation of the terms as follows:

- (1) Methodology: Pedagogical practices in general. All things that are engaging into “how to teach” questions are methodological, whatever the considerations take into accounts.
- (2) Approach: Theoretically well-informed positions, assumptions, thoughts, notions, and beliefs concerning the nature of language, the nature of language learning, and the applicability of both in pedagogical setting, it does mean in classroom practice.
- (3) Method: A generalized set of specification in the classroom for achieving linguistic objectives. Methods main concern is to teachers and learners’ roles and behavior. Besides, the concern of method is to linguistic and subject matter objectives, sequencing, and materials.
- (4) Curriculum/Syllabus: The focal concern of curriculum (commonly used in US system) and syllabus (commonly used in UK system) is linguistic and subject matter objectives, sequencing, and materials. The purpose is to meet the needs and fulfill the challenges to defined group/class in particular context/situation.
- (5) Technique: Any exercise, activities, and tasks in the classroom to meet the objectives or goal of learning.

2.3. Foreign Language Teaching Method

Foreign language teaching methods are just like fashions. They come into existence, used, and replaced. Albert Marekwardt (1972) in Brown (2004: 52) saw these “changing winds and shifting sands” as a cyclical pattern in which a new method emerged about every quarter of a century. Each new method emerged as a negative reaction against the old but brought with it some of the positive aspects of the previous practices.

The foreign language teaching methods which emerged in the early history of foreign language teaching methodology were Grammar Translation Method, Reading Method, Direct Method, Situational Language Teaching, Audiolingual Method, and Cognitive Code Learning. The decade of the seventies was historically significant for the era of the innovative methods (the “designer” methods) which tried to invent a new method which enabled language practitioners today to incorporate certain elements thereof in the current communicative, interactive, eclectic approach to language teaching. Such methods include Community Language Learning, Silent Way, Total Physical Response, Natural Approach, and Suggestopedia. Amid the popularity of the designer methods in the 1970’s, some very significant foundations for future growth of foreign language teaching methodology were laid. It began with the work of council of Europe (Van Ek and Alexander, 1975), that is, the Notional Functional Syllabus (NFS). This was followed by some interpretations of ‘Notional’ Syllabuses (Wilkins, 1976). It is important to note that as a syllabus, NFS was clearly a precursor to Communicative Language Teaching or Communicative Approach.

The late 1980’s and 1990’s witnessed the development of approaches that highlighted the communicative properties of language. Beyond the grammatical and discourse elements in communication, scholars are focusing on the nature of social, cultural, and pragmatic features of language. They are trying to get learners develop linguistic fluency, not merely accuracy. They are concerned with ways to facilitate lifelong language learning among the learners and treat them as partners in a cooperative work. They also come to an understanding that the focus of teaching is on the learner, while the teacher’s role is that of an inquirer, observer, facilitator and creator of ‘rich’ learning environments. Learner-centered instruction then became popular.

There exist a number of interpretations of CLT since it is a cat-all term. There are many possible versions of CLT and this term may continue to capture current language teaching

approaches. Closely associated to CLT, there are several concepts that have become popular, such as whole language education, content-centered education, interactive learning, active learning, task-based learning, competency-based instruction, etc. The whole language education is a label that has been used to describe cooperative learning, participatory learning, student-centered learning, focus on the community of learners, focus on the social nature of language, use of authentic, natural language, meaning-centered language, integration of four skills (Brown, 2004 : 82). Content-centered education is a label that has been used to describe immersion model, theme-based model, sheltered model, and adjunct model (Snow in Celce-Murcia, 2001). All these represent the latest fashions in language teaching and can be viewed as current teaching approached within a CLT frame work (Brown 2004: 40).

2.3.1. Genre-Based Approach

Genre-based approach is designed based on Constructivism, especially Vygotsky's ideas. It was Derewianka (1990) and Butt et al. (2001) who designed this method. This method is firstly popularized as Curriculum Cycle which is very influential in school settings in New South Wales, Australia, as well as in Singapore. This is a simple model for developing complete lesson units (cycles) around text types/genres to be taught, and has as its ultimate aims of helping learners to gain literacy independently through mastery of text types and genres. Each lesson unit (cycle) has as its central focus on a chosen text type or genre, and consists of a fixed sequence of stages. The descriptions of the cycle in Derewianka (1990) and Butt et al. (2001) vary in minor ways, but four phases essential for developing control of a genre may be identified, namely: Context Exploration, Text Exploration based on Model Texts, Joint Construction of a Text, and Individual Application.

Every cycle begins with context exploration, 'context' referring to the possible contexts of situation in which the chosen text-type or genre may be used. This phase resembles the pre-listening/reading/speaking/writing phase that has come to be typical in Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), and the activities that may be carried out may resemble to typical pre-activities in skills-based teaching. However, where traditional pre-activities have aims as warming up and activation of mental schema, the main goal of the genre-based Curriculum Cycle is to help students to become aware of and understand some aspects such as: the social purpose of the chosen genre, the contextual factors influencing the production of the texts, and

the texts themselves. Based on Vygotskian principles, another important aim of the context exploration phase, from the teacher's point of view, is to establish the learners' 'actual development' or starting point. (Derewianka, 1990; Butt et al., 2001)

The next stage, text exploration based on Model Texts, is the first of two perhaps distinctive key phases in the Curriculum Cycle that demonstrates how GBA differs from other forms of CLT. The aims of this phase are to familiarize the learners with the target text-type/genre, and to draw attention to organizational and linguistic features commonly found in texts belonging to it. Model texts play a crucial role in this phase, providing, in Vygotsky's terms, the necessary object-regulation. Using such model texts, the pedagogical activities to make explicit the features of the text-type are carried out. These may include a range of established 'communicative activities', such as the re-assembling of 'jigsaw' texts or information gap exercises, but the tasks are deliberately constructed in such a way as to highlight the salient lexical and grammatical features.

Thus, the tasks aim to be implicitly analytical, and not just to facilitate interaction as an end in itself. Of course, more explicitly analytical work is also possible: for example, students may be asked to 'hunt' for and highlight all instances of a specific grammatical form. Direct teaching by the instructor is also an option, in order to make the features obvious to the learners. How the formal features work to help the text-type achieve its purposes are also discussed or explored. The teacher plays a key role in others-regulation throughout this phase. (Derewianka, 1990; Butt et al., 2001)

Others-regulation continues and takes centre-stage in the next stage, the joint construction. Here, referring to the model texts, and making use of the knowledge and awareness gained from the exploration of the text, the students work with the teacher to construct their own texts (spoken or written) in the text-type/genre. This can take some forms of activity such as teacher-fronted whole-class co-construction of a single text on the board, small-group or pair construction with the teacher helping each group or pair by turn, or teacher conferencing with individual students.

In the case of writing, as with process approaches, the texts may go through a few rounds of drafting, editing, and re-drafting. The model texts continue to provide object-regulation, while others-regulation comes from not only the teacher but also from other students, as more expert peers guide others. What is to be noted in both the text exploration and joint construction phases

is that while there is much oral interaction taking place, its nature and intention is different from that of most forms of CLT. Where the interactive activities in CLT are often designed to simulate real life interaction, directed at providing opportunities for talking in the language, the talk in GBA is about using language and is focused on a collaborative effort to learn to accomplish a purpose in the language.

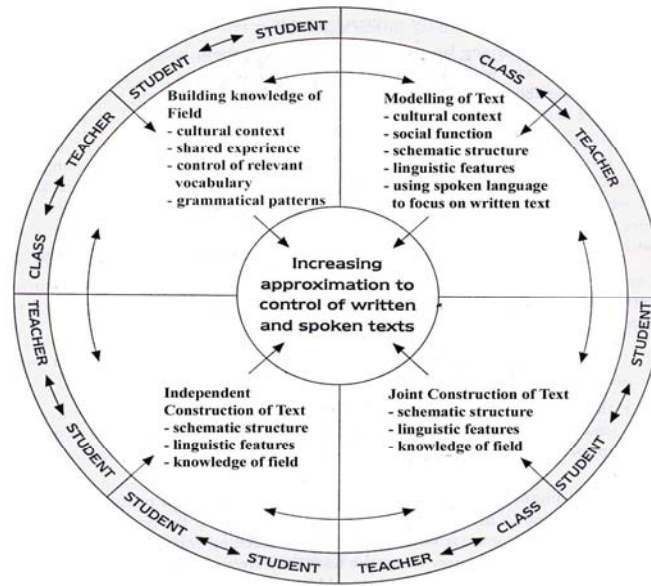
The last stage in the Cycle, individual application, as the name suggests, requires learners to work individually/independently, for example, in the case of writing, to produce individual essays. Ideally, this is carried out only after the students have successfully produced a jointly constructed text or understanding of a text. This phase then provides the opportunity for self-regulation, the crucial final stage in Vygotsky's model of learning. What each learner produces can be further recycled through further others-regulation (e.g. peer editing, teacher feedback), until the learner attains a desired level of attainment. (Derewianka, 1990; Butt et al., 2001)

At the practical level, the goal of language education is to facilitate learners' ability to create or produce texts (written and oral). The types of text (genres) developed in this curriculum include transactional conversations (to get something done), interpersonal conversations (to establish and maintain social relations), short functional texts (announcements, greeting cards etc.), monologues and essays of certain genres. In other words, these are the communicative competence to be developed. With regards to the literacy levels, senior high school graduates are expected handle the university level of text or are able to access knowledge typically obtained at tertiary education. For this reason, the text types given for junior high school level are procedure, descriptive, recount, narrative, and report and for senior high school level are descriptive, report, news item, narrative, discussion, explanation, exposition, and review. Based on Well's taxonomy (1987), the junior high school literacy level is the functional level (using English for life survival such as carrying out transactional exchanges, reading for fun, reading popular science or teenagers' encyclopedia, etc. and the literacy level for senior high school is the informational level (using English to carry out more extended and interpersonal conversations, to deal with texts to access knowledge at university level, for self study. (see Agustien, 2006)

The National Curriculum Board determines to implement GBA for classroom procedure since this is the most suitable approach to handle competency-based curriculum. GBA as discussed previously is materialized in the two learning cycles and four in which joint construction and scaffolding talk play important roles. The first cycle integrates the development

of speaking and listening skills whereas the second cycle is aimed at developing the ability to use written language. The cycles are depicted in the diagram below.

Figure 9: Learning Cycle in Genre-Based Instruction



(Hammond 1992: 17)

In planning the lessons, teachers need to go around the cycle twice. In the first cycle, they start with Building Knowledge of the Field (BKF) where teachers and students build cultural context, share experiences, discuss vocabulary, grammatical patterns and so on. All of these are geared around the types of spoken texts and topics they are going to deal with at the second stage. The second stage is Modeling of Text (MT) where students listen to statements of short functional texts, conversations, and monologues that are geared around a certain communicative purpose. The third stage is Joint Construction of Text (JCT). At this stage they try to develop spoken texts with their peers and with the help from the teachers. They need to demonstrate their speaking ability and to show confidence to speak. The final stage is Independent Construction of Text (ICT). At this stage, students are expected to be able to speak spontaneously or to carry out monologues that are aimed at giving directions or showing ways to do things such as how to make a kite, how to make a paper cap, and so on. Thus, the first cycle integrates the development of speaking and listening skills.

The second cycle is aimed at developing the ability to use written language. The teachers and students go through all the four stages once more. However, at the stage of MT students are exposed to written texts. Here students develop reading skills, followed by joint construction in writing texts, and finally they write texts independently. Like the strategies employed in the first cycle, activities in this cycle are also geared around the same communicative purpose. Students read short functional texts and procedural texts, and then they write texts similar to what they have read. In this way, the integration of the four skills is created by the communicative purpose(s) of texts. Students speak what they have heard, read what they have talked about, and write what they have read.

To carry out activities at all stages, teachers can use some ingredients from various teaching methods/techniques popularized in foreign language teaching methodology such as Grammar Translation Method, Direct Method, Reading Method, Situational Language Teaching, Community Language Learning, Communicative Language Teaching, and other types of active, collaborative learning as proposed by Mel Silberman (1999). These are still applicable and relevant to GBA. The most important thing is that every classroom activity has to be aimed at providing learning experiences to use language in order to achieve communicative competence.

2.3.2. Inquiry-Based Instruction

a. Background

Teaching method is one of teaching components which is very important in the teaching learning process. A good method enables both teachers and students to carry out their tasks effectively. To achieve the Content Standard as addressed by the curriculum which covers competency standard and basic competencies students should go through the effective learning cycle. Educational Ministry Regulation number 41, the year of 2007 about the Process Standard states that every teacher should make Lesson Plans to foster the teaching and learning process to be interactive, inspiring, joyful, challenging, and motivating the students to participate actively, and giving enough opportunities to them to be innovative, creative and self reliance according to their talents, motivations, and physical as well as psychological development. This activity is conducted systematically through exploration, elaboration, and conformation processes. By

considering the nature of this teaching learning process, we (module team) agree to call this teaching method Inquiry-Based Instruction.

Inquiry-Based Instruction is actually not new in educational field, especially in the teaching of science. This type of method is often referred to as Learning Cycle developed in 1967 by Karplus and Thier for the *Science Curriculum Improvement Study* (SCIS). Historically, it was first created by Karplus in late '50's-early '60's, and then fully conceptualized by Atkin and Karplus in 1962 as “Guided Discovery” and used in SCIS elementary science program. In 1967, Karplus and Their first named the Learning Cycle and the component phases. This inquiry based teaching approach is based on three distinct phases of instruction: (1) exploration provides students with firsthand experiences with science phenomena; (2) *concept introduction* allows students to build science ideas through interaction with peers, texts, and teachers; and (3) *concept application* asks students to apply these science ideas to new situations or new problems.

Since the introduction of Learning Cycle by Karplus and Their (1967), there have been several versions with somewhat different numbers of cycles. The most popular version is the 5-E model that was proposed by Roger Bybee in 1997, which comprises of Engage, Explore, Explain, Elaborate, and Evaluate.

Engagement	Object, event or question used to engage students. Connections facilitated between what students know and can do.
Exploration	Objects and phenomena are explored. Hands-on activities, with guidance.
Explanation	Students explain their understanding of concepts and processes. New concepts and skills are introduced as conceptual clarity and cohesion are sought.
Elaboration	Activities allow students to apply concepts in contexts, and build on or extend understanding and skill.
Evaluation	Students assess their knowledge, skills and abilities. Activities permit evaluation of student development and lesson effectiveness.

Scholars in the field such as Lawson, Abraham & Renner (1989), Cavallo, & Merrick (2001); McComas (1992) believe that Learning Cycle approach can result in greater achievement in

science, better retention of concepts, improved attitudes toward science and science learning, improved reasoning ability, and superior process skills than would be the case with traditional instructional approaches.

b. Learning Principles

Learning cycle as pedagogical frameworks has been designed based on conceptual reconstruction (Karplus, 1979). The learning cycle is designed to adapt instruction to help students: (1) become aware of their prior knowledge; (2) foster cooperative learning and a safe positive learning environment; (3) compare new alternatives to their prior knowledge; (4) connect it to what they already know; (5) construct their own "new" knowledge, and (6) apply the new knowledge in ways that are different from the situation in which it was learned. (Sunal, 2012: 11).

This learning cycle has been effectively used with students at all levels to accomplish these purposes since this approach helps students apply knowledge gained in the classroom to new areas or to new situations, because students (1) are more aware of their own reasoning; (2) can recognize shortcomings of their conceptions as a result of being encouraged to try them out; (3) can apply procedures successful in other areas; (4) can search more effectively for new patterns, and (5) can apply what they learn more often in new settings (Sunal, 2012: 12).

Exploration phase is an initial effort to build knowledge through increased understanding of a phenomenon (American Dictionary). In the learning cycle, exploration is employed to expand and deepen students' knowledge by implementing active learning strategies. A popular term to describe this activity is "explorative learning." This concept reminds us of the statement of Lao Tsu, a Chinese philosopher who said "I hear and I forget. I see and I remember. I do and I understand. "(Mel Silberman. 1999). Explorative learning focuses on how knowledge is transferred, understanding, and interpretation; thus there should be involvement of students to broaden, deepen, or compile information on the initiative. In this case, students develop and validate the information as input for learning activities (Heimo H. Adelsberger, 2000).

In elaboration phase the teacher should introduce a competing "scientific" conception to the students prior knowledge. This cycle should help students organize their information from the Exploration Phase. When planning the elaboration part of the lesson teachers make decisions on the following questions: (1) how can the *Exploration experiences be developed to focus on*

the basic idea or skill to be taught? (2) How is the idea or skill *best explained*? (3) How should the idea or skill be modeled or demonstrated? (4) What strategies or techniques should be used to make sure all students understand it? (5) What *student practice* is needed using the new knowledge? (Sunal, 2012: 13).

Elaboration phase in the learning cycle is more teacher guided. The teacher provides students with clear explanations and examples or models. Explanation can be given in a variety of ways including: discussion of findings from the exploration activities, lecture, multimedia presentations, computer simulation, viewing a videotape, explaining sections of a textbook, and focused student activities. Students need to see and practice clear examples or models of what the new ideas or skills represent so they may easily compare this new idea with their prior knowledge. Sometimes this consists of demonstrating knowledge or skill through analogies or using working models. It also could involve taking the students through a step-by-step process. (Sunal, 2012: 14).

The Confirmation phase is the last part of the learning cycle. The goal is to help students finish restructuring old knowledge structures, applying and transferring the new idea to new situations. This learning phase will require some time since the teacher must provide the practice necessary for accomplishing transfer into long-term memory. Here, the teacher should act as the mediator between the students' prior knowledge and the scientific view of the new idea. Several types of practice include manipulative activities, paper-and-pencil problems, question-and-answer discussions, games, computer simulations.

In practice, student can be guided first by the teacher so that they can receive feedback (either positive or negative) which tells them when they are correct or wrong. Without such guidance, students might lead to errors or misconceptions. In order for an idea or skill to be remembered and used automatically from the long-term memory, sufficient application and transfer is needed. After students perform the new skill or use the new idea in the classroom context, they are ready to transfer the new ideas to different situations and times. This phase can also be followed by a brief summary of the lesson. The summary should include sequence the important ideas and events experienced in the lesson. Students can be asked to summarize or the teacher can give the summary.

c. Classroom Implementation

Learning Cycle that was design by Karplus (1967) is currently recommended to be employed in Indonesian schools. Indonesian Government Regulation No. 19 of 2005 gives mandate on National Education Standards and one of the standards is the standard process. This process standard applies to primary and secondary education in formal, either on the package system and the semester credit system. The standard covers the process of planning the learning process, the implementation of the learning process, assessment of learning outcomes, and supervision of the learning process for the implementation of the learning process effective and efficient. Meanwhile the process standard is under Educational Ministry Regulation number 41, the year of 2007. It states that every teacher should make Lesson Plans to foster the teaching and learning process to be interactive, inspiring, joyful, challenging, and motivating the students to participate actively, and giving enough opportunities to them to be innovative, creative and self reliance according to their talents, motivations, and physical as well as psychological development. This activity is conducted systematically through exploration, elaboration, and conformation processes.

Exploration phase is similar to the phase of Building knowledge of Text and Modeling of Text of the Genre-based Instruction. In this phase, teachers and students build cultural context, share experiences, discuss vocabulary and grammatical patterns, etc. All of these are geared around the types of texts and topics they are going to deal with at the next phase. The teacher explores the students' knowledge of the text covering the form, function, and message. This may include review on the students' knowledge of language within the text studied (covering phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics), the generic structure of the text, the social function of the text, as well as the content or message. Thus, students develop and validate the thorough information about the text studied as input for the next learning activities.

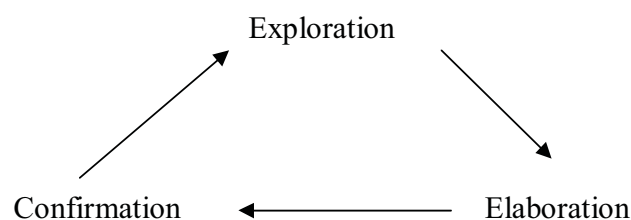
Elaboration stage is similar to Join Construction of Text in Genre-based Instruction. At this stage students try to develop texts (spoken or written) with their peers and with the teachers' help. They need to demonstrate their speaking or writing ability. This is the learning cycle in which students work together with other students and with the teacher so as to gain the language skills (i.e. speaking, reading, and writing). In reading skill, for example, the students have the capability to answer questions about the content of text, to identify the main idea, or detail

information. In writing and speaking skill, they can produce (orally and in written form) text similar to the one discussed in the initial phase. All activities are under the teachers' guidance.

Confirmation phase is similar to Individual Construction of Text in Genre-Based Instruction. Here the students may work by themselves. The teachers' roles are as facilitators, giving feedback. They may analyze the errors and mistakes the students make in their oral as well as written production of the text. The teachers are supposed to positive reinforcement so that the students develop their language skills.

To carry out activities in all stages, teachers can use various techniques taken from different teaching methods popularized in foreign language teaching methodology such as Grammar Translation Method, Direct Method, Reading Method, Situational Language Teaching, Community Language Learning, Suggestopedia, Communicative Language Teaching, and other types of active, collaborative learning as proposed by Mel Silberman (1999). These are still applicable and relevant to Inquiry-Based Instruction. The most important thing is that every classroom activity has to be aimed at providing learning experiences to use language in order to achieve communicative competence.

Figure 10: Learning Stages in Inquiry-based Instruction



2.3.3. Cooperative Language Learning (Coop. LL)

a. Background

Since the mid 1980s, discussions of effective language instruction have shift from an emphasis on teacher-centered to learner-centered classroom and from transmission-oriented to

participatory or constructivist knowledge development. With that shift has come into the emergence of some foreign language teaching methods such as task-based teaching and cooperative learning. Cooperative Language Learning (Coop. LL) is part of a more general instructional approach known as Collaborative Learning. It is “an approach to teaching that makes maximum use of cooperative activities involving pairs and small groups of learners in the Classroom” (Richards and Rodgers, 2004: 192). Olsen and Kagan (1999: 8) define Coop. LL as “group learning activity organized so that learning is dependent on the socially structured exchange of information between learners in groups and in which each learner is held accountable for his or her own learning and is motivated to increase the learning of others”. The impetus of its emergence is the need for student-centered model of classroom learning.

In Coop. LL, group activities are the major mode of learning. Such activities are used to increase the amount of students’ participation in the Coop. LL classrooms. They are carefully planned to maximize students’ interactions and to facilitate students’ contributions to catch other’s learning. They also provide comfortable environments in which students can practice giving output and negotiating meaning.

b. The Benefits of Coop. LL

A lot of studies have investigated the effects of cooperation on students’ achievement and most of the results are extremely favorable, since Coop. LL creates a more positive affective climate in the classroom, while it also individualizes instruction and raises student motivation. Some of the benefits of Coop. LL are presented below:

(1) Academic Achievement

Achievement-related studies have been reported in Olsen and Kagan (1997: 6) such as those by Johnson and Johnson (1987) indicates that Coop. LL promotes higher achievement than competitive learning across all age levels, subject areas, and all tasks. Other studies reported in 1989 by the same writer indicate that there are 349 studies involving subjects in public schools (53%), college (41%), adults (5%) and preschool (1%). The result shows that participants in Coop. LL, on average, score at about 3/5 a standard deviation above students in competitive learning, still other more studies also reported favorable result on Coop. LL.

(2) Reducing Anxiety

Generally students do not want to take a risk in the classroom of being humiliated by others, they do not want to appear foolish, for example, when teachers ask questions which only a few student can answer. Such debilitating anxiety will be reduced when the possibility of giving correct answer is increased that is when students have the opportunity to discuss the question with others. Cooperative learning provides such opportunity to students. When people are anxious, but allowed to affiliate, their anxiety level is reduced. (Crandall, 1999: 233).

(3) Promoting Interaction

Coop. LL permits students to take active roles in classroom. Teachers function as facilitators, this condition supports students who are take risks or suffer the frustration of not having good language competence to express their ideas, feeling and emotions. In cooperative classrooms they can learn together, rely on each other so that they will feel secured enough to express themselves. They have opportunities to practice or rehearse their task before they are asked to share it with larger group. (Crandall, 1999: 233)

Coop. LL increases the amount of time for interaction among students; the quality of students is also greatly improved. Cooperative group encourages task-oriented communication, since students' main focus is to complete the task or to solve the problem. The information sharing and discussion process help students improve themselves linguistically or scientifically. Most students can benefit from the opportunities they have for talk, practice, experience, or retention on of new information. (Coelho, 1997: 38)

(4) Increasing Self-Confidence and Self-Esteem

Several studies on cooperative learning that include measures of students self-esteem indicate favorable results. The students' self-esteem improved through cooperative learning. They assume that students in cooperative groups will feel more liked by their classmates because of the increased opportunity to interact. When the students feel they are making significant contributions to the group process and these contributions are well accepted by the group members, they are more likely to feel successful academically.

The positive interdependence in cooperative learning can also improve students' self confidence, especially those who have adequate language competence. Coop. LL provides students with free-risk environment in which the student feel free to express themselves in public as well as in participating in classroom discussions. Two situations which anxiety are likely to increase and self confidence is most threatened for most language learners. (Coelho, 1997: 44)

c. Underlying Principles

The learning principles which underlie Coop. LL come from the socio-psychological learning theories of and Jean Piaget (1973) and Vygotsky (1978), both of whom stress the critical role of social interaction in learning. According to Piaget, (1973: 23) the fundamental basis of learning was discovery; "to understand is to discover, or reconstruct by rediscovery; and such conditions must be complied with if in the future individuals are to be formed who are capable of production and creativity and not simply repetition." Understanding is built up step by step through active involvement. For Piaget, knowledge construction takes place when new knowledge is actively assimilated and accommodated into existing knowledge.

According to Vygotsky, (1987) learning is first inter-psychological (social) before it is intra-psychological (psychological) in nature; in other words, it begins by being object-regulated, and then is others-regulated, before it is self-regulated. Object-regulation refers to the role played by concrete manifestations of culture in the environment that function as sign systems that mediate learning. The learners' starting point is thus social. One's potential development, however, cannot be manifested, if learning stops at object-regulation. The key to such a manifestation is the role played by significant others in mediating learning (the stage of others-regulation). And for the potential development manifested by what the learner is able to do with the help of others to be transformed eventually into actual development; self-regulation is vital. This is the stage in which the learners process and manipulate by themselves the knowledge and understanding gained; they begin to be capable of working independently.

The use of cooperative learning will be effective for classroom activities since cooperative group work allows language learners the opportunity to do the following things:

- (1) Students can generate more ideas and be exposed to different points of view.
- (2) Students can learn from and teach one another in a supportive environment.
- (3) Students can realize that their talk helps them to understand material better.

- (4) Students can gain confidence while learning as a result of peer support and encouragement.
- (5) Students have more comprehensible input through peer interactions.
- (6) Students have better listening and speaking skills as a result of responding and acting on what has been said.
- (7) Students have longer conversational turns than in the whole-class teaching situation.
- (8) Students have access to a more varied and complex use of language. (Mc Donell, 1997: 59-61)

As stated earlier, a central premise of Coop. LL is that learners develop a foreign language by conversing in socially or pedagogically structured situations. Cooperative learning requires social interactions and negotiation of meaning among group member engaged in the tasks. All group members have both something to contribute to and something to learn from the other members. It is more than just group activities. It is well structured in which the learners require both to gain and contribute to the success of learning.

d. Classroom Activities

Cooperative learning is an ideal environment for students to learn to understand and use a new language. Language will be acquired naturally as students are encouraged to listen to others and express themselves while working interactively in groups communication, both oral and written, is necessary for successful interaction. A language will be learned by the need and the desire to communicate with others. What follows is the type of structures that can be used in collaborative learning, summarized from Olsen and Kagan (1997) and Coelho (1997) as follows:

(1) Three-steps Interview

This consists of three structures. The simple procedure is as follows:

- Step 1: Students form pairs within their group of four and conduct a one-way interview; one is interviewer and the other is interviewee.
- Step 2: Students reverse the roles-the interviewers become interviewees.
- Step 3: Each student share with the team member (within the group of four) what was learned during the interviews.

Such procedure ensures that each student will talk, listen, and summarize for the team. This can also be combined with Numbered Heads together. Thus the fours are called on to summarize the team's interviews for the whole Coop. LClass. (Olsen and Kagan, 1997:17; Coelho, 1997:130; Olsen, 1992: 80)

(2) Numbered Heads

This is a simple four-step Coop. LClass structure. The steps are as follows:

Step 1: Students number off within teams or groups. If students are in groups of four, every student will be either, 1, 2, 3, or 4.

Step 2: The teacher asks a question, usually a high consensus question.

Step 3: Students put their heads together to make sure everyone on the team knows the answer.

Step 4: The teacher calls a number (from one to four) and only student with that number can raise their hands if they know the answer, as in traditional Classroom.

Numbered Heads meets the criteria of being a structure since it permits students to have social interaction in the Classroom, so that each student in the group knows the answer addressed by the teacher. Higher achievers share their answers with those with lower achievements; positive interdependence is built in this situation. Thus, it motivates each other's learning. (Olsen and Kagan, 1997: 18; Olsen, 1997: 88)

(3) Roundtable

In round table each group has only one answer sheet and uses only one pen or pencil. They must all agree on the answers before writing on the worksheet and they take turns in writing the answers. The procedure is as follows. (1) one student makes a contribution and (2) he/she passes the paper and pen to the student on his or her left side (3) each student makes contributions in turn. When this is done orally, this structure is called Round Robin. Both round table and round robin can be used to introduce a new topic or theme, list key words or concepts from a lesson or reading, or just to listen up practice (Olsen and Kagan, 1997:18; Olsen, 1997: 88).

(4) Think-Pair-Share

This structure proceeds as follows: (1) teacher poses a question (usually a low consensus question); (2) students think of a response; (3) students use interview procedure to share the answers (Olsen and Kagan, 1997:19; Olsen, 1997:88).

(5) Solve-Pair Share

The procedure of this structure is as follows: (1) teacher poses a problem (a low or a high-consensus item); (2) students work out solution individually (a checker may be needed to ensure everyone stays on task); (3) Students explain how they solved the problem in three-Step Interview or Round Robin Structures (Olsen and Kagan, 1997:20; Olsen, 1997:88).

(6) STAD (Student Teams Achievement Divisions)

This structure comprises of five major components: class presentation, teams, quizzes, individual improvement scoring, and term recognition. The procedure of STAD is as follows:

- (a) Teacher teaches the lesson using direct teaching methods. He prepares a quiz on the very lesson material and worksheets based on the quiz;
- (b) The teacher introduces team assignments, explains group scoring, and starts team practice on worksheets. To make sure that each member on the team will make 100 percent on the quiz students can use Group Discussion, Pairs Check, or just informal discussion. When students have questions, they can ask teammates before asking the teacher. Teammates explain the answers;
- (c) Review and Continue team practice. Teacher reviews the lesson; students then review in pairs with worksheets. In order to ensure that every teammate knows the answer, students can change partners;
- (d) Individual quiz; (5) Improvement scoring, that is, teacher bases scores on improvement from pre to post test scores. This applies to either individual or group situations. (Olsen and Kagan, 1997:20; Mc Donell, 1997:182)

(7) Jigsaw

Jigsaw is a widely practiced teaching that is similar to group-to-group exchange with one important difference: every single student teaching something (source of information) the procedures is as follows:

- (a) Teacher chooses learning material that can be broken into parts;
- (b) The teacher gives out different assignment (part of the material) to different groups of students. Each group is assigned to read, discuss, and learn the material given to them;
- (c) After the study period, the teacher forms 'jigsaw learning' groups. Such groups contain a representative of every study group in the class. The member of each group then forms jigsaw learning groups with students from other groups. In this group everyone has learned or studies different segments or parts of the whole materials;
- (d) Members of the jigsaw group teach each other what they have learned;
- (e) The teacher finally reconvenes the full class for review and the remaining questions to ensure accurate understanding. (Silberman, 2000: 111-112; Olsen and Kagan, 1997: 22-23)

2.4. Summary

The conceptualization presented in this section demonstrates that any language teaching method can be described in terms of its approach, design, and procedure. The concepts presented here are intended to give view to readers so that they are not confused of the various terms related to language teaching method such as approach, method, technique, procedure, and design. Approach assumptions, beliefs and theories about the nature of language and the nature of language learning.

Foreign language teaching method is just like fashion. In 1940's and 1950's scholars in the fields adopted Behaviorism in the teaching practices, especially the *mim-mem*. The 1960's witnessed Chomsky's generative grammar that had influenced the teaching field. This gave emphases on mental power in learning. Cognitive Code Learning became basic practices in the classroom. The spirited seventies with the designer methods brought affective factors to some experimental language teaching methods. They gave humanistic touch in language teaching. The late 1970's and early 1980's witnessed the beginnings of the Communicative Approach. NFS was a precursor to its emergence and language teaching had to include factors such as notion and function. Finally the late 1980's and 1990's witnessed the development of approaches that

lightened the communicative properties of language. Classroom practices were characterized by authenticity, real world simulation, and meaningful task. Nowadays, there come into existence several approaches that are associated to CLT, such as Cooperative Language Learning,

Genre-Based Instruction where teaching and learning is based on the result of genre analysis and which focuses on the understanding and production of selected genres of texts has been around with us since 1970s and was first popularized as teaching technique for writing skill (the modification of process approach). Currently, this model has become increasingly influential in mainstream ELT from primary to tertiary education. This model has been adopted as teaching method at secondary education. The classroom implementation of GBA seems to adopt the two mainstreams, the product and the process approach in a model text is analyzed on the basis of grammatical and text features then is followed by guided writing in a joint construction stage and free-writing stage. For this purpose, Hammond's wheel model of a teaching-learning cycle with three stages is employed.

Genre-Based Instruction which is currently recommended to be employed in Indonesian schools is closely linked to Learning Cycle designed by Karplus (1967). The process standard under Educational Ministry Regulation number 41, the year of 2007 states that every teacher should make Lesson Plans to foster the teaching and learning process to be interactive, inspiring, joyful, challenging, and motivating the students to participate actively, and giving enough opportunities to them to be innovative, creative and self reliance according to their talents, motivations, and physical as well as psychological development. This activity is conducted systematically through exploration, elaboration, and conformation processes.

Cooperative learning is relevant to Inquiry-Based Instruction. This type of classroom practices and management provides a culturally appropriate learning environment. Collaborative learning activities help to drive active learning. Students also enjoy the warm, conducive, and free risk environment that make them grow independently. This type of learning can also be fun, but it is not just fun. Actually, many techniques present students with unusual challenges that require much hand work.

2.5. Exercise

A. Give definition to the following terminology. Use dictionary of linguistics or applied linguistics

- | | |
|----------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. Approach | 6. Method |
| 2. Technique | 7. Design |
| 3. Audiolingual method | 8. Mimmem technique |
| 4. Genre-based Instruction | 9. Inquiry-Based Instruction |
| 5. Learning Cycle | 10. Cooperative Learning |

B. Choose the best answer from A, B, C, or D

1. The following teaching methods emerged in the early history of foreign language teaching methodology, EXCEPT

- | | |
|-------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| a. Grammar Translation Method | c. Reading Method |
| b. Direct Method | d. Community Language Learning |

2. The following methods are categorized as having a close association with Communicative Language Teaching, EXCEPT

- | | |
|---------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| a. Task-Based Language Teaching | c. Cooperative Language Learning |
| b. Content-Based Instruction | d. Natural Approach |

3. The linguistic insight which provides significant foundations for the growth of Communicative Language Teaching is

- | | |
|---|-----------------------------|
| a. The Notional Functional Syllabus (NFS) | c. The Grammatical Syllabus |
| b. The Thematic Syllabus | d. The Structural Syllabus |

4. According to Edward Anthony, an “approach” in language teaching refers to

a set of assumptions/theories dealing with the nature of language and language learning

b. an overall plan for the orderly presentation of language material

c. guide lines for teaching procedures

d. the implementation which actually takes place in a classroom.

5. According to Edward Anthony, “technique” in language teaching refers to . . .

a set of assumptions/theories dealing with the nature of language and language learning.

b. an overall plan for the orderly presentation of language material

c. guide lines for teaching procedures

d. the implementation which actually takes place in a classroom

6. As a teaching procedure, Genre-based Approach begins with . . .

a. the whole text as the unit in focus

b. the sentence as the unit in focus

c. the paragraph as the unit in focus

d. the essay as the unit in focus

7. According to Derewianka, a text . . .

a. may be long or short, written or spoken

b. should be long, either written or spoken

c. Should be long and written

d. may be short or long but should be spoken

8. The following examples are types of English texts EXCEPT . . .

a. narrative

b. recount

c. retelling story

d. report

9. Vygotsky’s ideas on learning have been operationalized in Genre-based ELT through the notion of the Curriculum Cycle, proposed by . . .

a. Chomsky

b. Vygotsky

c. Derewianka

d. Halliday

10. Inquiry-Based Instruction is closely linked to Learning Cycle developed in 1967 by ... for the *Science Curriculum Improvement Study* (SCIS).

- a. Mel Silberman
- b. Karplus and Their
- c. McComas
- d. Abraham & Renner

11. Three distinct stages of instruction in Karplus's Learning Cycle includes:

- a. Exploration, elaboration, confirmation
- b. Exploration, concept introduction, and concept application
- c. Exploration, explanation, evaluation
- d. Engagement, exploration, elaboration

12. Three distinct stages of instruction recommended in the process standard of teaching in Indonesia include:

- a. Exploration, elaboration, confirmation
- b. Exploration, concept introduction, and concept application
- c. Exploration, explanation, evaluation
- d. Engagement, exploration, elaboration

13. The typical of learning in Cooperative Language learning has the following features, EXCEPT ...

- a. positive interdependence among students
- b. it gives emphasis on small group interaction
- c. it improves individual and group accountability
- d. it improves the students' dependency on one another

14. What follows is the type of structures or content-free ways to organize social (student-student) interactions that can be used in collaborative learning, EXCEPT

- a. Three-steps Interview
- b. STAD (Student Teams Achievement Divisions)
- c. Numbered Heads
- d. mime

15. The use of cooperative learning will be effective for classroom activities since cooperative group work allows language learners the opportunity to do the following things, EXCEPT . . .

- a. students can generate more ideas and be exposed to different points of view
- b. students can learn from and teach one another in a supportive environment
- c. students can realize that their talk helps them to understand material better
- d. students can lose their confidence when learning with their peers

KEY

- | | | |
|------|-------|-------|
| 1. D | 6. A | 11. B |
| 2. D | 7. A | 12. A |
| 3. A | 8. C | 13. D |
| 4. A | 9. C | 14. D |
| 5. D | 10. B | 15. D |

Check your answer with and score your right answer. Use the formula below to find out your achievement level of this chapter in this module.

$\text{Level of achievement} = \frac{\text{Score of the right answer}}{\text{Total score}} \times 100\%$
--

Meaning of level of achievement: 90 – 100% = excellent

80 – 89% = good

70 – 79% = fair

< 70% = bad

References

- Abraham, M. R. (1997). *The Learning Cycle Approach to Science Instruction: Research Matters- to the Science Teacher No. 9701*.
- Abraham, M. R., & Renner, J. W. (1986). The sequence of Learning Cycle activities in high school chemistry. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 23(2), 121-143.
- Agustien, H.I.R. 2006. Text-Based Curriculum and Genre Approach. A plenary paper presented at UPI National Seminar, 27 February 2006.
- Anthony, Edward M. 1963. "Approach, Method, and Technique". *English Learning* 17: 63-67. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.
- Brown, H. Douglas. 2001. *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*. New York: Prentice Hall.
- Brown, H. Douglas. 2004. *Teaching by Principles: An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy*. London: Longman.
- Bybee, R.W. (1997). *Achieving scientific literacy: From purposes to practices*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Butt, D., Fahey, R., Feez, S., Spinks, S., & Yallop, C. (2001). *Using Functional Grammar: An Explorer's Guide* (2nd ed.). Sydney: NCELTR.
- Celce Murcia, Marrienne (Ed). 2002. *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language*. Boston, MA: Heinle and Heinle Thomson Learning.
- Celce-Murcia, Marianne and Lois McIntosh (3rd Edition) (Eds.). 2004. *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language*. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.
- Coelho, Elizabeth. 1997. "Jigsaw: Integrating Language and Content". In Kessler, Carolyn (Ed) 1977. *Cooperative Language Learning*.
- Crandall, Jo Ann. 1997. "Cooperative Language Learning and Affective Factors". In Arnold, Jane (Ed.) 1997. *Affective Factors in Language Learning*. Cambridge: CUP.
- Depdiknas. 2005. Peraturan Pemerintah Republik Indonesia Nomor 19 Tahun 2005 tentang Standar Nasional Pendidikan. Jakarta: Depdiknas Republik Indonesia.

- Gerber, B.L., Cavallo, A.M.L., & Marek, E.A. (2001). Relationship among informal learning environments, teaching procedures, and scientific reasoning abilities. *International Journal of Science Education*
- Hammond et. al. 1992. *English for Special Purposes: A handbook for Teachers of Adult Literacy*. Sydney: NCELTR.
- McDonell, Wendy. 1997. "Language and Cognitive Development Through Cooperative Group Work." In Kessler, Carolyn (Ed.). 1997. *Cooperative Language Learning*.
- Mel Silberman. 1999. *Active learning: Strategies to Teach Any Subject*. Allyn and Bacon: Needham Heights, Massachusetts
- Olsen, Roger E. W. B. 1997. "Cooperative Learning and Social Studies". In Kessler, Carolyn (Ed.). 1997. *Cooperative Language Learning*.
- Piaget, J. 1955. *The Language and Thought of the Child*. Ohio: World Publishing Company.
- Richards, Jack. C . 1987. "Listening Comprehension: Approach, Design, Procedure." in Long, Michael H. and Jack C. Richards (Eds.). *Methodology in TESOL: A Book of Readings*. 161-176.
- Sunal, Dennis W. "Learning Meaning Through Conceptual Reconstruction: A Learning and Teaching Strategy for Secondary Students. dsunal@bamaed.ua.eduastlc.ua.edu/teacherresources/secstratforlearning.htm. Downloaded on December 25 2012.
- Van Ek, J.A. and Alexander, L.G. 1975. *The Threshold Level English*. London: Longman
- Wilkins, D.A. 1976. *Notional Syllabus*. Oxford: Oxford U.P.

CHAPTER 3

PRINCIPLES OF ENGLISH INSTRUCTIONAL DESIGN

3.1. Introduction

In order to teach English effectively and successfully, an English teacher should design English lesson plans. English teaching-learning process will be effective if all components of English lesson plans have internal relevance. Besides, English instruction will be successful if the teachers and students are proactive and the situation or condition of teaching and learning is conducive.

3.2. Current Curriculum Implemented in Indonesia

Curriculum is “a plan for learning” (Taba in Morrison, 1993: 83). This definition focuses more on the process of designing or planning and resulting curriculum products such as units of instructions. In line with Taba’s definition, Oliva (in Morrison, 1993:83) defines curriculum as a plan or program for all the experiences which the learner encounters under the direction of school.

The recent curriculum of the secondary school level in Indonesia is the school Level-based curriculum or in Indonesian it is popularly known as *Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan (KTSP)*. The essence of the curriculum is that the curriculum is developed and implemented by each school unit. *KTSP* is developed based on the condition of each school, the school characteristics, socio-cultural environment, and the learner characteristics. Mulyasa (2008:21) states that *KTSP* is one of curriculum reforms in which each unit/level of education has an autonomy to develop its own curriculum in accordance with its own potencies, social needs, environment, strength, weakness, opportunity, and threats in the efforts of developing the quality, efficiency, and propagation of education. It is hoped that principals, teachers, school

committee and education board are more familiar, accustomed, and closer to the curriculum designed by themselves.

The “2013 curriculum”, a means of integrating values systems, knowledge, and skills, has orientation on developing the learners’ competencies, the changing of teaching-learning methodology towards teaching-learning process which gives priorities on the learning experiences through observing, inquiring, associating, and communicating so as to enhance the values of competitiveness and build prime characters (*Kemendikbud*, 2012: 10). To achieve all of these, the teaching methodology involves not only exploration, elaboration, confirmation, but also observation, inquiry, analysis, reasoning, description, inference, evaluation, and “creation” (*Kemendikbud*, 2012: 25).

The (English) teaching-learning materials of the “2013 curriculum” should be relevant to competencies needed by the learners and job markets. Essential teaching-learning materials have to contain the “core” materials which are suitable with the learner’s backgrounds and needs. The (English) teaching-learning process is conducted as student-centered learning and contextual learning (*Kemendikbud*, 2012: 25).

3.3. Designing English Syllabus

The points of departure in syllabus design are the analysis of English language, the learners, and belief about language learning. English can be analyzed into its components (sounds, phonemes, morphemes, words, phrases, clauses, sentences, paragraphs, and discourses), language macro skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing skill) and micro skills, language functions such as introducing, greeting, informing, asking directions, giving advice, etc., language notions (e.g. time, equality, cause, existence, ownership, duration, size, etc.), language aspects (structure, pronunciation, and vocabulary), language use (mother tongue or first language, second language, and foreign language), and language varieties (standard, non-standard, formal, informal, spoken, written language, casual style, intimate style, frozen style, etc.),

Information about learners is crucial to be taken into consideration, in order that the teaching materials given can be meaningful and relevant. The important points which should be paid attention by syllabus designers are kinds of learners: whether they are young/children or

adult learners, their academic and experience background, their motivation in learning English (intrinsic or extrinsic motivation, instrumental or integrative motivation), their demographic background which concerns the location and its environment where they live and study; their socioeconomic background whether they belong to the have, *borguise*, or low class; and their family background (how many brothers and sisters they have, the learner is the only child, or the oldest or the youngest etc.). Their language learning strategies and learning styles are also determining factors for designing syllabus. Other important aspect is the type language learner (concrete, analytical, communicative, authority-oriented, autonomous learner).

The last important aspect for syllabus design is the belief about language learning. Hutchinson and Waters (1998: 40-43) consider language learning as habit formation, rule-governed activity, and problem solving task. Behaviorists argue that language learning is a mechanical process of habit formation and proceeds by means of the frequent reinforcement of stimulus-response sequence. Chomsky asserts that human mind was able to cope with an infinite range of possible situations and thinking must be rule-governed behavior and language learning is a process in individual experiences are used by the mind in novel situations to predict what is likely to happen. Cognitivists consider learning language as problem-solving tasks. They argue that language learning is a process in which the learners actively try to make sense of data and it takes place when the learners manage to impose some sort of meaningful interpretation.

In designing syllabus for English teaching, it has to focus on learners' needs (learning/academic needs and target/job needs), potencies, and environment. The teaching-learning materials must also be relevant, various, integrated, sustainable, and holistic. The syllabus designed should also consider the balance between local, national, and even global needs or interests (Muslich, 2008: 11). This is in line with what is proposed by Rajan (2003:3) that good instructional materials don not teach, but encourage students to learn. They work like **MAGIC (Motivating and Meaningful, Authentic and Appropriate, Graphic and Graded, Interesting, Interactive, and Integrated, Contextual and Creative)**. *Motivating* means that materials should be able to motivate the language learners to learn English. *Meaningful* has the notion that the materials are full of meaning and have sense. *Authentic* means that the materials can provide the use of English in real-world like. *Appropriate* materials are the ones that are suitable with the learners' needs and learners' levels. *Graphic* means that, if it is possible, the English instructional materials are presented in the forms of graphic so that they are more

interesting and easily understood by English learners. **Graded** means that the materials should be arranged systematically so that they are learnable (psychological consideration). **Interesting** teaching materials are those which can make the learners interested in learning them. This can be done by, for example, making attractive and colorful cover, if they are printed material, designing interesting lay out. **Interactive** means that instructional materials can generate interaction between the learners and the teacher and among learners whether individually or in group. **Integrated** means that the materials can develop the four language skills and cover building blocks of English language, language aspects (vocabulary, pronunciation, and structure), language functions, language notions, and language use. **Contextual** materials are those which are suitable with learners' environment, potency, and characteristics. Contextual materials should also be suitable with the current situation when the students learn English and the students' learning styles.

According to Tomlinson (1998: 17), styles in language learning which need to be catered in language learning materials include:

- (1) **visual** (e.g. the language learner prefers to written English or the printed materials)
- (2) **Auditory** (e.g. the language learner prefers to hear the English language: non-printed materials, especially cassettes and CD-ROMs).
- (3) **kinesthetic** (e.g. the language learner prefers to do something physically, such as following instructions, playing drama, role playing)
- (4) **studial** (e.g. the language learner likes to pay attention to the linguistic features of the language and wants to be correct, supply language data, texts, discourses to be analyzed),
- (5) **Experiential** (e.g. the language learners use the language as means of communication rather than learning its formal correct grammar).
- (6) **analytic** (e.g. the language learner prefers to focus on discrete bits of the language and learn them one by one),
- (7) **global** (e.g. the language learner is happy to respond to the whole chunks of language at time and pick up whatever he/she can)
- (8) **Dependent** (e.g. the language learner prefers to learn from a teacher and from a book).

(9) Independent (e.g. the learner is happy to learn from their own experience and use autonomous learning strategies—supply self-access materials).

Furthermore, Tomlinson (1998: 7-21) argues that good English instructional materials should be able to (1) achieve impact through novelty, variety, attractive presentation, and appealing content. (2) help learners to feel at ease, namely materials with lots of white space, texts and illustrations that the learners can relate to their own culture, and ‘voice’ which is active, relaxed, and supportive. (3) develop learners’ self-confidence; when they are relaxed and self-confident, they can learn better and faster. (4) be perceived by English learners as relevant and useful (read: English for Specific Purposes Materials). (5) require and facilitate learner self-investment, because language learners profit most if they invest interest, effort, and attention in the learning activity. This facilitates the learners’ self-discovery. (6) make language learners ready to acquire the points being taught. (7) expose the learners to language in authentic use through the advice they give, the instructions for their activities, and the spoken and written texts they include. (8) provide the learners with opportunities to use the target language to achieve communicative purposes. Communicative purposes or interaction can be achieved through information or opinion gap activities, post-listening and post-reading activities, creative writing and creative speaking activities, and formal instruction given in the target language. (9) take into account that learners differ in language learning style and learning strategy. (10) maximize learning potentials by encouraging intellectual, aesthetic, and emotional involvement which stimulates both right and left brain activities through mechanical drills, rule learning, simple transformation activities.

Hutchinson and Waters (1994:107) also state that good English materials do not teach, but encourage learners to learn. Good English instructional materials, therefore, should contain interesting texts, enjoyable activities which engage the learners’ thinking capacities, and opportunities for learners to use their existing knowledge and skills, and content which both learner and teacher can cope with.

In a narrow scope, learning situation is another important aspect that must be taken into consideration. According to Cunningsworth (1995:136), every teaching-learning situation is unique due to some factors such as: (1) the dynamics of the classroom, (2) the personalities involved, (3) the constraints imposed by the syllabus, (4) the availability of resources, and (5) the expectation and motivation of the learners.

In order to be able to reach what is specified in competence standard, specifically basic competence and indicators, developing English syllabus is a vital importance. According to *Depdiknas* (2008: 14), the components of a syllabus are competence standard, basic competence or sub-competence, indicator, main materials, instructional activities, evaluation, time allocation, and learning sources. One important and supporting thing that cannot be forgotten is teaching media/teaching aids. In other words, syllabus deals the questions: what competence must be reached by the learners, how to reach the competence, and how to know whether or not the learners have reached the competence.

3.4. Principle of Designing English Syllabus

Muslich (2008: 105) states that the principles of designing syllabus in KTSP are (1) scientific, (2) relevant, (3) systematic, (4) consistent, (5) adequate, (6) recent and contextual, (7) holistic, and (8) flexible. Syllabus is scientific which means that all materials and teaching-learning activities are true and scientific. Relevant syllabus concerns with the scope, learnability, teachability, selection, and gradation of the materials. The materials are suitable with the learners' development level physically, socially, emotionally, and spiritually.

Syllabus has some characteristics. It is systematic which means that its components are interrelated functionally to reach the competence. Being systematic also means that there exists a consistent relation of competence standard, basic competence, indicators, teaching-learning materials, learning experiences, teaching-learning media, and evaluation system. Syllabus is adequate when its components are sufficient to reach the basic competence. Being recent and contextual imply that the components of the syllabus follow the recent development of science, technology, arts, and events in the real world. Syllabus is holistic when it covers the three domains of competence; cognitive, affective, and psychomotor domain. Flexibility means that all components of the syllabus can accommodate the learners coming from different backgrounds (socio-economically, geographically, and demographically) and the dynamics of school and society. Concerning the flexibility of syllabus, it is important for the English syllabus designer to be aware that learners have their own learning styles, learning strategies, and learner types.

3.5. Principle of English Learning

The learning principles in *KTSP* are derived from UNESCO. UNESCO formulates four pillars of learning; learning to know, learning to do, learning to live together, and learning to be. In a narrow sense, learning to know is related to language acquisition, mastery, and use. In broad sense, learning to know is an endeavor to gain, deepen, use or apply new science and technology. This can be done by reading the printed materials, learning by heart, problem solving, discussing with others, assessing internet, and so on. Learning to do is learning to master and develop language skills and competencies in order to function optimally in job places or markets. Learning to live together is learning to cooperate, interact, and communicate with various (group of) people. In global era, human beings not only interact with various ethnics who have their own education, culture, religion, custom, tradition and expertise, but also live and cooperate together. In this concern, it is very important for having cross cultural understanding or intercultural communication to avoid cultural shocks. The complexity and the fast development of life call for learning to be. Human beings need to develop their whole aspects of personality regarding their physical, social, moral, intellectual, emotional, and spiritual aspect. The global life calls for human beings to be excellent and superior.

Related to English language learning, Hutchinson and Waters (1994: 128-130) outline some basic principles of language learning;

(1) Language learning is a developmental process.

Language learners use their existing knowledge to make new information comprehensible. The learners' existing state of knowledge is a vital element in the success or failure of language learning and hence good teachers should establish and exploit what the learners already know,

(2) Language learning is an active process.

It is not enough for language learners just to have the necessary language knowledge; to make things meaningful they need to use they knowledge.

(3) Language learning is a decision-making process.

Language learners are decision-makers for deciding what language knowledge they learn, how it relates to their existing knowledge, which information is/is not relevant, which information is important/unimportant, etc.

(4) Language learning is not just a matter of linguistic knowledge.

Teaching-learning language should match the learners' conceptual/cognitive capacities and the learners' linguistic level.

(5) Language learning is not the learners' first experience with language.

Language learners know what communication is and how it is used. Learners' knowledge of communication should actively be exploited in language learning, for example by having them to predict contents or topics before reading and listening.

(6) Language learning is an emotional experience.

This concerns with the development of positive emotions as opposed to the negative ones, for example: (a) using pair or group work to build on social relationship, (b) giving learners time to think, (c) putting less emphasis on the product and more on the process, (d) valuing attitude as much as aptitude and ability, (e) making interest, fun, and variety primary considerations in materials and teaching-learning methodology.

3.6. Steps in Designing/Planning English Lesson

Professional English teachers need satisfaction in conducting their profession. One of the important determining factors to achieve this is designing/planning English lesson before carrying out teaching activities. The success or failure of their teaching-learning activities is influenced by their lesson plan.

Lesson plan/course design or in Indonesian widely known as ***Rencana Pelaksanaan Pembelajaran (RPP)*** is an instructional plan describing learning objectives, teaching-learning materials, teaching-learning methods and techniques, teaching-learning media, learning sources, and some means of assessments. Brown (1994: 396-398) proposes the essential elements of a lesson plan such as goals, objectives, materials and equipments, procedures, evaluation, and extra-class work. Goal is an overall purpose to be accomplished by the end of the class period. Objective is the explicit statement of what the learners can gain from the lesson.

Good planning tactics always indicate the importance of materials and the equipment that can support or facilitate the teachers and the learners in teaching and learning the materials. Procedure includes: (a) an opening statement as a "warm up", (b) a set of activities and techniques that are appropriate for whole class work, small group and pair work, teacher talk and student talk, and (c) closure. Evaluation is set to determine whether or not the objectives have

been accomplished. In addition, extra-class work functions to deepen the learners' language knowledge and enhance the learners' language skills.

To be able to design an English lesson well, English teachers are required to: (1) study and understand thoroughly competence standard and basic competence, (2) formulate the indicators that must be fulfilled by the learners, (3) formulate learning objectives, (4) select and grade good teaching-learning materials, (5) determine teaching-learning methodology, (6) choose appropriate teaching technique and media, (7) conduct test and evaluation, (8) determine time allocation, and (9) inform the learning sources to the learners.

In studying and understanding competence standard and basic competence, English teachers should be aware that there is a relation between them, and there is correlation among them with other lessons (Muslich, 2008: 106). Indicator is an indication of the basic competence achievement by the learners. Learning objective is the most specific, measurable level of learning. Indicator and learning objective can be measured in relation to cognitive, affective, and psychomotor domain. The type of learning is categorized by the level of complexity, and its domain levels.

Some details of the levels in cognitive domain are presented by Gibbs (1989) compiled by Bunyi (1995: 137) in the form of a list of action verbs which state learning objective.

- (1) Knowledge : *state, define, list, name, write, recall, repeat, recognize, label, reproduce, recite, outline, arrange, match, memorize, order, relate.*
- (2) Comprehension : *identify, justify, select, indicate, recognize, report, restate, review, sort, translate, illustrate, represent, formulate, explain, contrast, classify, interpret, paraphrase, summarize, describe, discuss, express.*
- (3) Application: *predict, demonstrate, instruct, compute, calculate, perform, prepare, practice, apply, choose, schedule, sketch, employ, use.*
- (4) Analysis: *analyze, differenced, separate, compare, contrast, solve, appraise, categorize, criticize, discriminate, distinguish, deduce.*
- (5) Synthesis : *combine, compose, construct, restate, argue, organize, relate, generalize, conclude, propose, plan, prepare, set up, synthesize, and design.*
- (6) Evaluation : *estimate, predict, score, judge, value, determine, support, defend, criticize, select.*

Winecoff (cited Krathwohl, *et al.*, 1974) classifies affective domain into five levels: (1) reception (awareness, willingness to receive, selected attention) (2) response (acquiescence, satisfaction), (3) value (acceptance of value, preference for a value, commitment to a value), (4) organization of value (conceptualizing value, organizing value systems), and (5) characterization of value. Action verbs which are commonly used in formulating objectives of affective domain include *cooperate, disagree, dispute, shows concern, like, dislike, show interest in, join, phrase, share, participate in, engage, consider, priorities, offer, care about, believe, affirm*.

According to Harrow (1971) quoted by Winecoff (1989: 74), psychomotoric domain has six levels: (1) reflect movement, (2) basic/fundamental movement, (3) perceptual abilities, (4) physical abilities, (5) skilled movement, and (6) non-discursive communication. Psychomotoric learning, according Scholl of Education in Mississippi University (2001: 1), is categorized into five skills:

- (1) *Imitation*, repeating action that has been demonstrated/explained and imitation can be in the form of *trial and error action* that can be responded accurately.
- (2) *Manipulation*, imitating skill which is full of self-confidence and proficiency.
- (3) *Precision*, gaining skill, proficiency, and accurate performance spending efficient energy.
- (4) *Articulation*, gaining developed skill that can be adapted to certain situation and condition.
- (5) *Naturalization*, conducting experiments, creating new action, manipulating materials beyond comprehension, competence, and skill developed.

The following are action verbs that can be used to state psychomotoric learning objectives:

<i>Imitation</i>	<i>Manipulation</i>	<i>Precision</i>	<i>Articulation</i>	<i>Naturalization</i>
<i>begin</i>	<i>Acquire</i>	<i>achieve</i>	<i>adapt</i>	<i>Arrange</i>
<i>assemble</i>	<i>Assemble</i>	<i>accomplish</i>	<i>alter</i>	<i>Combine</i>
<i>attempt</i>	<i>Complete</i>	<i>advance</i>	<i>change</i>	<i>Compose</i>
<i>carry out</i>	<i>Conduct</i>	<i>automate</i>	<i>excel</i>	<i>Construct</i>
<i>copy</i>	<i>Do</i>	<i>exceed</i>	<i>rearrange</i>	<i>Create</i>
<i>calibrate</i>	<i>Execute</i>	<i>excel</i>	<i>reorganize</i>	<i>Design</i>

<i>construct</i>	<i>Improve</i>	<i>master</i>	<i>revise</i>	<i>Refine</i>
<i>dissect</i>	<i>Maintain</i>	<i>reach</i>	<i>surpass</i>	<i>Originate</i>
<i>duplicate</i>	<i>Make</i>	<i>refine</i>	<i>transcend</i>	<i>Transcend</i>
<i>flow</i>	<i>Manipulate</i>	<i>succeed</i>		
<i>move</i>	<i>Pace</i>	<i>transcend</i>		
<i>practice</i>	<i>Perform</i>			
<i>proceed</i>	<i>Produce</i>			
<i>repeat</i>	<i>Progress</i>			
<i>reproduce</i>	<i>Use</i>			
<i>respond</i>				
<i>organize</i>				
<i>sketch</i>				
<i>start</i>				
<i>Try</i>				
<i>volunteer</i>				

In selecting good materials, the English teacher should also consider both external and internal factors. The external factors deal with the learning objective, learners' level (beginner, intermediate, or advance learners), intensive or non-intensive course, type of school (general or vocational school), and the learners' language background. The internal factors concern with the type of language (dialect, register, style, and medium), language form (which, and how many), didactic criteria (teachability), and psychological criteria (learnability).

In grading course content, some principles can be applied.

1. from the most interesting to the least interesting.
2. from the easiest to the most difficult.
3. from the most similar to L1 to the most different to L1.
4. from the most general/basic to the most detail.
5. from the simplest to the most complex.
6. from the most explicit to the most implicit items, etc.

Teaching-learning methodology is concerned with adopting appropriate approach/strategy/methods, techniques, and media for teaching and learning English. It is also concerned with the planning of learning activities, learning experience, and learning tasks (Richards, 1997: 11). It should be kept in mind that English teaching-learning process should be conducted to master both expressive and receptive skills. In the teaching of genres both in Junior and Senior High School in Indonesia, the teaching-learning cycles are Building Knowledge of Field (BKOF), Modeling of Text (MOT), Joint Construction of Text (JCOT), and Independent Construction of Text (ICOT) (Hammond, *et al.*, 1992: 19-22).

Hammond, *et al.* state that BKOF is the point at which overall knowledge of the social and cultural contexts of the topic is built and developed. At this stage, discussion of socio-cultural similarities and differences occur so that understanding of the purpose of various genres can be developed. MOT involves introducing the learners a model of the genre they will be reading or writing. This also involves preparing the learner for reading and writing by focusing on the genre, discussing the social function of the genre and the purpose intended by the reader or writer, and analyzing characteristics, schematic structure, and grammatical patterns.

The aim of JCOT is for the teacher to work with the learners to construct a similar text. The teacher provides guidance and explicit support through questions and elicitations. ICOT occurs only after group or pair construction has shown that the learners have gained control of the field, and if it is necessary to recycle some of the tasks and activities, for example further modeling of text construction or analysis of grammatical patterns.

Testing and evaluation are based the indicators that have been formulated. This can be done by tests and non-tests orally and/or written form, observing the learners' performance, attitudes, scoring the learners' tasks, product, portfolios, and the learners' self-evaluation. Evaluation is a series of systematic and continual activities to describe, analyze, and interpret the data about teaching-learning process and achievement of the learners which provides meaningful information for making decisions (Muslich, 2008: 107).

Time allocation is based on the effective time for learning and time for learning in a week by considering the number of basic competence, the scope, learnability and teachability of the materials. Time allocation stated in the syllabus is the estimation of time needed by the learners to master basic competence.

Learning sources can be references, readers, real objects used in English teaching-learning process, live talk of the native speakers (if possible), cassettes, videos, CD-ROMs, dictionaries, grammar books, workbooks, newspapers, magazines, food packages, stories, advertisements, poems, etc. (Tomlinson, 1998: 2). In short, language learning sources refer to anything which is used by the teacher or learner to facilitate language learning.

The following is the most common format of lesson plan for English teaching, though variations will be found.

LESSON PLAN

Education Level :

Lesson :.....

Grade/ Semester :.....

Time Allotment :.....

Genre :

- A. Standard Competency :.....
- B. Basic Competency :.....
- C. Indicators:
 - 1. Cognitive:.....
 - 2. Affective:.....
 - 3. Psychomotor:.....
- D. Learning Objective :.....
- E. Teaching-learning Technique:.....
- F. Teaching-learning Material:.....
- G. Teaching-learning Aids/ Media:.....
- H. Teaching-learning Activities:
 - 1. Opening
 - 2. Core Teaching-learning Activities:
 - a. Exploration (BKOF, MOT)

b. Elaboration/Learning Cell (JCOT)

c. Confirmation (ICOT)

3. Closing

I. Teaching–learning Sources

J. Evaluation:

1. Test Items

2. Key Answers

3. Scoring Rubric

Surakarta,2011

Approved by

Headmaster of SMP/SMA.....

English Teacher

.....

.....

3.7. Summary

Designing English lesson plan is an important task for English teachers. This determines the effective and successful English teaching-learning process. In doing the task, they need to study and have thorough understanding of good English instructional materials, the components and principles of designing English syllabus, the principles of teaching and learning English, and the learners' types, learning strategies and learning styles.

3.8. Exercise

1. What is the essence of School Level-based Curriculum?
2. Display the advantages of School Level-based Curriculum.
3. What aspects should be considered in designing English Syllabus?
4. Explain the notion of good instructional materials.
5. Why should English teaching materials be contextual and creative?
6. What factors can make learning situation unique?
7. What are the components of English syllabus?
8. Mention and explain the principles of designing English syllabus.
9. Relate the four pillars of learning derived from UNESCO and learning English.
10. Why is *RPP* important for English teachers?
11. What should English teachers do to be able to design a good *RPP*?
12. Explain the notion of teaching-learning methodology in *KTSP*.
13. Why are learning sources important for learners?
14. Give 10 examples of English learning sources.
15. Relate the exploration, elaboration, confirmation as inquiry-based teaching and learning of English and the procedures of teaching-learning genre.

Key

1. School Level-based Curriculum is the operational curriculum designed and implemented by each school unit/level.
2. The advantages of this curriculum are (a) giving autonomy to each unit/level of education, (b) by implementing this curriculum, the principals, teachers, school committee, and education boards are more familiar, accustomed, and closer to the curriculum designed by themselves.
3. The aspects that should be considered in designing English syllabus are (a) analysis of the language (its components. skill and micro skills, aspects, functions, notions, use, varieties, etc.), (b) information about the learners (their kinds, motivation, academic and experience, socioeconomic and demographic background, learning strategies, and learning styles). (c) beliefs about language learning (language learning as habit formation, as ruled-governed activity, as problem solving tasks)

4. Good materials don't teach but encourage learners to learn English. Such as materials work like MAGIC (Motivating and Meaningful, Authentic and Appropriate, Graphic and Graded, Interesting, interactive, and Integrated, Contextual and Creative).
5. They should be contextual because the English materials should be suitable with the learners' potency, environment, and characteristics, and they must be suitable with the current situation. They should be creative because these materials should be able to open the learners' new horizon, inspirations, ideas, etc.
6. Factors that make learning situation unique are:
- (a) the dynamic of the classroom
 - (b) the personalities involved
 - (c) the constraints imposed by the syllabus
 - (d) the availability of resources
 - (e) the expectation and motivation of the learner.
7. The components of English syllabus are competency standard, basic competency, indicators, learning objectives, main materials, instructional activities, evaluation, time allocation, learning sources.
8. The principles of designing English syllabus are:
- (a) scientific: all materials and teaching activities are true and scientific,
 - (b) relevant: the materials are suitable with the learners' development levels physically, socially, emotionally, and spiritually
 - (c) systematic: the components of the syllabus are related each other functionally to reach the competency
 - (d) consistent: consistent relation among competency standard, basic competency, indicators, learning objectives, instructional materials, instructional activities, teaching media, and evaluation system
 - (e) adequate: the components of the syllabus are adequate the basic competency
 - (f) recent and contextual: the components of the syllabus consider the recent development of science, technology, arts, and events in the real world
 - (g) holistic: the syllabus covers cognitive, affective, and psychomotoric domain
 - (h) flexible: all syllabus components can accommodate the learners coming from their

own backgrounds socioeconomically, geographically, demographically, and the dynamics of school and society.

9. The relation between the four pillars of learning derived from UNESCO and English learning
 - (a) learning to know is related to language acquisition, language mastery, and language use
 - (b) learning to do is related to learning to master and develop the four language skills and competencies in order to function optimally in job paces and market
 - (c) learning to live together is learning to cooperate, interact with various (group of) people
 - (d) learning to be is learning to develop the whole aspects of personality to be excellent and superior.
10. For English teacher *RPP* is important because it determines the success or failure of English teaching-learning process.
11. To be able to design good RPP English teachers need to study and understand thoroughly competency standard and basic competency, formulate the indicators and learning objectives, select and grade good teaching materials, determine teaching-learning methodology, choose appropriate teaching techniques and media, conducts tests and evaluation, determine time allocation, and inform the learning sources to the learners/
12. Teaching methodology is concerned with adopting appropriate approach/strategy/methods, techniques, and media for teaching-learning English, and also planning learning activities, learning tasks, and learning experiences.
13. Because they can facilitate their language learning.
14. Ten examples of learning sources are references, readers, real things, live talk of native speakers, cassettes, videos, CD-ROMs, dictionaries, grammar books, workbooks.
15. Exploration deals with Building Knowledge of Field (BKOF) and Modeling of Text (MOT) Elaboration concerns with Join Construction of Text (JCOT) Confirmation is similar to Individual Construction of Text (ICOT)

References

- Agustien, H.I.R. (2006). *Text-based Curriculum and Genre Approach*. A plenary paper presented at UPI National Seminar, 27 February 2006.
- Alkin, Maarvin C. (1985). *A Guide for Evaluation Decision Makers*. London: SAGE Publications, Inc.
- Bachman, Lyle F. and Adrian S. Palmer. (1996). *Language Testing in Practice: Designing and Developing Useful Language Tests*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Balaban, Nancy. (1995). *Seeing the Child, Knowing the Person*. In Ayers, W. "To Become a Teacher," Teachers College Press.
- Barkley, Cross and Major. (2005). *Collaborative Learning Techniques*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Bhatia, V. K. (1993). *Analyzing Genre: Language Use in Professional Setting*. London: Longman.
- Bloom, Benjamin S., Madaus G. F., and Hastings, J. Thomas. (1981). *Evaluation to Improve Learning*. USA: McGraw-Hill, Inc.
- Butt, D., Fahey, R., Feez, S., Spinks, S., and Yallop, C. (2001). *Using Functional Grammar: An Explorer's Guide*. 2nd ed. Sydney: NCELTR.
- Bruner, J. (1983). *Child's Talk: Learning to Use Language*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Brown, H. Douglas. (2004). *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*. London: Longman.
- Brown, H. Douglas. (1994). *Teaching by Principles: An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall Regents.
- Bunyi, Brace W. (1995). "Course Design" in *Teach Your Best: A Handbook for University Lecturers*. Matiru, Mwangi, and Schelete (eds.).
- Byram, M. (2004). *Genre and genre-based teaching*. The Routledge Encyclopedia of Language Teaching and Learning (pp. 234-237). London: Routledge.

- Celce-Murcia, M., Z. Dornyei, S. Thurrell. (1995). *Communicative Competence: A Pedagogically Motivated Model with Content Specifications*. In *Issues in Applied Linguistics*, 6/2: 5-35.
- Cunningsworth, Alan. (1995). *Choosing Your Coursebook*. Oxford: The Bath Press.
- Depdiknas. (2005). *Peraturan Pemerintah Republik Indonesia Nomor 19 Tahun 2005 tentang Standar Nasional Pendidikan*. Jakarta: Depdiknas Republik Indonesia.
- Depdiknas. (2008). *Panduan Penyusunan Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan Jenjang Pendidikan Dasar dan Menengah*. Jakarta: Depdiknas.
- Fees, Susan and Helen Joyce. (2002). *Text-based Syllabus Design*. Sydney: McQuarie University/AMES.
- Gronlund, Norman E. (1993). *How to Make Achievement Tests and assessments*. Fifth Edition. USA: Allyn and Bacon.
- Halliday, M.A.K., dan R. Hasan (1985). *Language Context and Text: Aspects of Language in a Social –Semiotic Perspective*. Victoria: Deakin University Press.
- Hammond, et al. (1992). *English for Special Purposes: A handbook for Teachers of Adult Literacy*. Sydney: NCELTR.
- Heaton, J. B. (1975). *Writing English Language Tests: A Practical Guide for Teachers of English as a Second or Foreign Language*. London: Longman Group Limited.
- Hein, George E. (1999). “*Constructivist Learning Theory: The Museum and the Needs of People*”. Paper presented at CECA (International Committee of Museum Educators) Conference at Lesley College Massachusetts USA (15-22 October 1999).
- Hutchinson, Tom and Waters, Alan. (1994). *English for Specific Purposes: A learning-centred approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hyland, K. (2002). *Genre in primary classrooms: The New South Wales (NSW) K-6 syllabus*. In C. N. Candlin & D. R. Hall (Eds.), *Teaching and researching* (pp. 96-103). Harlow, Essex, UK: Longman.
- Hyon, S. (1996). *Genre in three traditions: Implications for ESL*. *TESOL Quarterly*, 30/4: 693-717.

- Idi, Abdullah. (2007). *Pengembangan Kurikulum: Teori dan Praktek*. Yogyakarta: Ar-Ruzz Media.
- Kay, H & T. Dudley-Evans. (1998). *Genre: What Teachers Think*. *ELT Journal* 52(4): 308-14.
- Kemendikbud. (2012). *Bahan Uji Publik Kurikulum 2013*. Jakarta: Kemendikbud.
- Majid, Abdul. 2009. *Perencanaan Pembelajaran*. Bandung: PT Remaja Rosdakarya.
- Mel Silberman. 1999. *Active learning: Strategies to Teach Any Subject*. Allyn and Bacon: Needham Heights, Massachusetts.
- Montague, Earl J. (1987). *Fundamentals of Secondary Classroom Instruction*. Columbus, Ohio: Merrill Publishing Company.
- Morrison, George. (1993). *Contemporary Curriculum K-8*. USA: A Division of Simon and Schuster.
- Mullyasa, E. (2007). *Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan*. Bandung: Remaja Rosdakarya.
- Muslich, Mansur. (2008). *KTSP (Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan) : Dasar Pemahaman dan Pengembangan*. Jakarta: PT Bumi Aksara.
- Nunan, David. (1997). *Syllabus Design*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Paltridge, B. (1996). *Genre, Text Type, and the Language Learning Classroom*. *ELT Journal*, 50/3: 237-243.
- Piaget, J. (1973). *Logic and Psychology (translation, W. Mays)*. NY: Basic Books.
- Richards, Jack C. (1997). *The Language Teaching Matrix*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J., Platt, J., and weber, H. (1985). *Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics*. Harlow: Longman Group Limited.
- Schimer, Suzan. (2000). *Assessment Strategies for Elementary Physical Education*. USA: Human Kinetics.

- Swales, J. M. (1990). *Genre Analysis: English in Academic and Research Settings*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Tomlinson, Brian. (1998). *Materials Development in Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Vygotsky, L. (1978). *Mind in Society*. Cambridge MA: Harvard University Press.
- Wells, B. (1987). *Apprenticeship in Literacy*. In *Interchange* 18,1/2: 109-123.
- Winecoff, Larry. (1989). *Curriculum Development and Instructional Planning*. Jakarta: P2LPTK

CHAPTER 4

LANGUAGE TEACHING MEDIA

4.1. Introduction

Tools, resources and didactic materials can be considered as “anything that can be used to facilitate the learning of a language” (Tomlinson, 2001). Tomlinson (2001) has outlined different criteria for classifying didactic materials in the following categories:

- a) Instructional. It means that they inform learners about the language. The resources contain instructional materials needed by the user to use the language.
- b) Experiential. They provide exposure to the language use. The user is given opportunity to have experience on using the language.
- c) Elicitative. They stimulate the user to use the language.
- d) Exploratory. They seek discoveries and alternatives about language use.

Based on the production, learning resources can also be distinguished according to the following criteria:

- a) Printed and Visual Materials
- b) Audio Recorded Materials
- c) Video Recorded Materials
- d) Multimedia

Three-stage principle must be considered when a teacher is planning to use any media: exploration, elaboration and confirmation. The exploration is the stage when students are activated before they would be exposed to the particular medium. The elaboration stage is a further stage in which they have close access to the input provided by the source and the last stage, confirmation, concludes the whole processes of using language and information gained in the previous actions.

In the exploration stage, students are guided to prepare for the contents of the medium, the terms of theme, the linguistics and also the skills. This step bridges their experiences gained in the previous learning processes with the activities they are going to conduct in the next steps.

In the elaboration stage, after looking at, listening to, watching and reading particular resources, they should be given a great number of opportunities to explore all aspects of the medium. The teacher should guide them to exploit all thematic, linguistic and skills-related benefits of this step in a very active and productive way.

The confirmation stage serves for transfer and consolidation. Everything learnt from the previous stages will be applied for complex language production. This step can be used as an introduction to a new medium at the same time. Thus, the process of learning supported by various tools can be seen as a continuous one.

Another principle in the use of teaching media is that there is no single medium becoming panachea. It means that there is no dominant source that can solve all the problems in language teaching. Each medium has its significant role in the classroom. This is the role of the teacher that can employ the tool in an appropriate way. Only the teacher who knows in what condition he or she can use each tool or resource, and how to integrate them in the teaching learning process to perform effective teaching. Thus, in some situations, a traditional media can do better than the most recently invented technical device. The teacher, therefore, should consider, before using new technology, that the new ones have to be used when there is no other tool that could offer a better outcome in the particular learning period. Appropriate application of all possible tools can guarantee effectiveness in the long run.

4.2. Techniques of Using Visuals Materials

In communication, we use visual as the source that helps us interact with others. Techniques based on visuals and visualization are useful for the stimulus and the main source in language learning. This technique can be in

the form of the most natural source, i.e. the non-verbal aspect of human interaction. Therefore, the prime source of learning is not only verbal language but also the non-verbal behavior of teachers, the culture of native people of the target language and fellow-students. We can find many visual materials for assisting us in teaching English. The followings are the types of visual that can be used in teaching.

- a. **Board.** The means of education in visual form can be various. Many kinds of boards (blackboard, white board, flannel board, flip chart) can be used in a static and an interactive way at the same time. Various forms of text, table and image can help the students use them cooperatively with friends and interactively with the teacher. Posters or any smooth surface placed on the floor in the middle of the classroom can be used in the same way.
- b. **Printed Materials.** Other traditional means of visual presentation are the print resources including text-books, workbooks, dictionaries published for language educational purposes. This category can be equipped with books, magazines, newspapers, brochures and other printed material issued to members of a particular community or target language.
- c. **Flashcard.** Flashcards can be in the form of picture combined with text such as words, phrases, sentences in particular target language specific data. The data can be dates, names of important people, places, events and time. Charts, tables, posters and maps can also provide a visual impact for language learning and linguistic performance at the same time.
- d. **OHP.** OHP (Overhead Projector) is the form of projected visual. It offers opportunity for students to be involved in placing traces of their linguistic performance on the projecting surface spontaneously. The teacher does not need extremely expensive and sophisticated equipment to work with OHP. A further advantage of the good old OHP is that the educational potential of the so called shading technique. This technique is done by the use of silhouettes of various objects placed on the projecting surface. It can encourage students guess, predict, and describe the vision. In this case the students are encouraged to verbalize their opinion.

- e. **Diorama.** Diorama may contain models of places, events and various situations that can provide a resourceful stimulus for students- especially in the functionally oriented language teaching context. It can be used to investigate details, use the information gained and share their findings in a meaningful context. The value of diorama in language teaching is that they present a visual stimulus in three dimensions. Students can also be involved in producing them. The language teaching procedure with diorama can include the production of stage as well as the stage of exploitation of the complex impression and input they offer. The teacher can ask the students to explore their language focusing on any language learning related topic or event.
- f. **Realia.** Realia are objects that are representative for the target language culture like helmet, packages, boxes, containers of goods; and objects of universal use, like shopping baskets, toy-telephones, etc. the other category of realia may also belong to puppets, card-games or board-games. The latter are special because some of these can be produced by the students themselves. A very popular with young teenagers activity, is the development of board-games that can be the end-product of a learning procedure for some students and the source of learning for others. Thus one has already reached the stage when visualization is not only a technique to enhance visual reception but it can be an approach to encourage students to visualize the concept they get by having an input transmitted to them either via the target language or related to the target language culture. Thus activities when students have to mime stories or react to an input in a non-verbal way, or when a story is illustrated by them in drawings are the productive aspects of visualization. Thus visualization is a kind of test of students' achievement and it can provide a further input for others.

Based on the three-stage principle, there are some activities that can be conducted with the use of visual media.

1. Exploration Stage: Activities before looking at the visuals

- a. Guessing. Before looking at the visual, the students can be guided to guess the topic of the picture based on some key words or utterances, some text related to the picture, some sounds or music or a limited visual impression such as the students view only some part of the picture.
 - b. Prediction. Before looking at the visual, the students can be guided to make a prediction on the rest of the picture based on some key words or utterances, some text related to the picture, some sounds or music or a limited visual impression such as the students view only some part of the picture.
2. Elaboration Stage : Activities done while students see the visuals.
- a. Collecting words and phrases related to the pictures. The teacher can guide the students to collect the words, phrases or expressions that reflect the pictures.
 - b. Elaborating vocabulary. This activity can be done by the use of dictionary. Teacher can also provide some terms for stimulating the students.
 - c. Paraphrasing. The students can work in pairs or in group. They paraphrase the sentences or expressions by the assistance of the teacher. This activity can improve the students ability to use various types of sentence.
 - d. Matching. This activity is done by matching the pictures with the words, the data, the events and the parts of text.
 - e. Labeling pictures. The students can label pictures with words, phrases, sentences or data. The students create their own labels. This labeling can be done in pair or in group. The teacher can guide the students to do labeling.
 - f. Multiple choice exercises. Teacher can provide a multiple choice quiz. The students not only choose the correct answers but also give reasons to their answers.

- g. Collecting pieces of information. The students can collect information drawn from pictures. They combine those pieces of information into integrated and meaningful composition.
 - h. Gap-filling. The teacher provides a text with gaps. The text is related to pictures. By observing the pictures, the students find the words or phrases to fill the gap.
 - i. Completion of text. The teacher provides incomplete text. The students observe the pictures and complete the text based on the pictures they observed.
 - j. Sequencing. Based on the pictures, the students are supposed to compose words, phrase or information in sequence. It can be a chronological events, procedural steps or classified parts.
 - k. Answering questions. The students should answer the questions based on the pictures. The questions may be yes-or-no or WH-questions.
 - l. Choosing True-or-false. Provided with some statements, the students should state whether the statements are true or false and give the reasons of their answer.
3. Confirmation stage: Exercises are done as a follow-up action. The activity can also be used as confirmation. The students do not necessarily see the visuals any more. However, the pictures become the predetermination of the activity. The followings are some activities that can be done during confirmation stage.
- a. Discussion. The issues discussed are raised up from the picture.
 - b. Story telling. After the students understand the pictures and have sufficient vocabulary terms, they are guided to create and act out a story.
 - c. Writing drama script. Based on the pictures, the teacher can assign the students to write drama script to be performed in class.
 - d. Acting. The teacher can ask the students to do role-plays, simulations, drama or producing film based on the pictures.

- e. Writing a letter. Based on the pictures, the teacher can assign the students to write a letter to friend or parent.
- f. Writing an article or report. Based on the pictures, the teacher can assign the students to write a report for a newspaper or magazine.
- g. Posting or Commenting on Weblog. Based on the pictures, the teacher can assign the students to write comment or post on a collaborative weblog.
- h. Creating comics. Based on the pictures, the teacher can assign the students to make comics. It can be done by adding Callout on the pictures.
- i. Writing advertisements. Based on the pictures, the teacher can assign the students to make an advertisement. The activities can also be done vice versa. The teacher starts from a text or statements and assigns students to draw pictures.
- j. Drawing Picture. The teacher can dictate the students. The students draw a picture based on the teacher direction.
- k. Illustrating. The teacher can read a story or play music. The students, listening to the teacher, draw an illustration of the story or the music.
- l. Creating maps, plans, chart or diagram. It is done to demonstrate any information that the students get from text, audio, video or real observation.

4.3. Techniques of Using Audio Materials

The natural demonstration made by the teacher is the major source for the students acquiring and developing their listening skills. Although the expression is in the mother tongue, parents and the closest community, i.e. the family plays an important role in providing language patterns that are firstly acquired through auditory.

While hearing is a perception which one receives in the passive way, i.e. one is the receptor of sequences of sounds, listening is actually active in

nature. It is a series of activities that is targeted at gaining information depending on identified needs and interest (Byrne, 1976; Poór, 2001; Underwood, 1989).

One can easily comprehend most information sent in their first language (mother tongue) with ease. The message being communicated can be understood because the input is made comprehensible by the situation and context (Krashen, 1987). Strategies of listening comprehension are built on the notion of comprehensible input. When listening, one follows either the so called bottom-up approach or the top-down one (White 1998). One refers to bottom-up approach when one builds up his or her listening strategy on understanding the primary constructing elements of language – individual sounds, syllabi and words – first and then gradually arrives at comprehending all message as a whole. The top-down approach would indicate the opposite of the previously mentioned strategy. It means that one approaches the understanding of the message from a holistic point of view that is very much supported by the awareness of the theme of discourse and the context in which the message is communicated through.

In the foreign language teaching and learning, the role of life human presentation who speaks the target language as a native one has always been extremely important. Their contribution to language education can be substituted by using audio-technologies.

Radio, tape player and mp3 player have been used as authentic resources for language learning since the development of Direct Method and Audio-Lingual Method. Audio resources can differently be used depending on the target audience. One can use materials recorded or broadcast for language learning purposes and authentic media that have been targeted at native speakers or people living in the target language country.

The so-called published materials broadcast structured and graded language bearing students of various levels of linguistic competence in mind. Even the content can be selected and graded regarding the objectives. They often convey target-language-culture-related information. Scriptwriters of

published materials have all the language educational objectives and principles in their mind. Materials of this kind are often recorded in studios equipped with technologies of high standards so that disturbing noises would be avoided. Published audios are often accompanied by activity books.

The language of authentic recordings or radio broadcasts is not structured or graded. These media are scripted and edited based on the principles of journalism, drama, commercials, etc. rather than on that of the didactics. Majority of these resources can be fully comprehended mainly by people sharing the understanding of the contemporary reality of the target language culture.

There are further three categories to be mentioned that range between these two extreme ones. Some publishers produce teaching materials that are developed from authentic (mainly) radio broadcasts accompanied by teachers' books and workbooks to help teachers and learners downgrade the message conveyed by unstructured language.

The supplementary (mainly) print materials open up the cultural perspectives of the authentic resources, too. These can be labeled as authentic audios republished for language teaching and learning purposes.

When visiting target language countries and/or meeting people represented the target language cultures, one can record interviews or other genres of audio-production to use with learners. When making resources of this kind one has particular classroom needs and students in mind. If one has not found any published or authentic material to cover the topic one needs to present, producing a recording on one's own is the way out. Worksheets and any supplementary material can be produced on the teacher's own initiative, too. People whose voice is recorded do not necessarily structure and grade their language. They talk the way they normally do. These audios can be specified as authentic resources recorded for language teaching purposes.

National radios and publishers of educational materials often produce recordings for schools in their own countries. Audio-recordings to contribute to teaching any subject area in schools in the target language country are

scripted and recorded bearing the subject-specific didactic principles in mind, but they do not pay much attention to structuring and grading the language. Materials of this kind can be used in language classes, too. Though, one has to adjust the accompanying worksheets to the standards and needs of students. These educational authentic resources can promote cross-curricular language education with much success. Whatever type of audio-recording one uses, there is a great number of techniques to apply in order to make an active use of them. The process of applying audio-materials for receptive purposes

1. Exploration Stage: Activities before listening to the audio materials
 - a. Guessing. Before listening to the audio materials, the students can be guided to guess the topic of the materials based on some key words or utterances, some text related to the materials, some sounds or music or a limited impression such as the students listen only some part of the audio materials.
 - b. Prediction. Before listening to the audio materials, the students can be guided to make a prediction on the rest of the record based on some key words or utterances, some text related to the materials, some sounds or music or a limited impression such as the students listen only some part of the audio materials.
2. Elaboration Stage : Activities done while listening to the audio record.
 - a. Collecting words and phrases related to the audio record. The teacher can guide the students to collect the words, phrases or expressions that reflect the audio record.
 - b. Elaborating vocabulary. This activity can be done by the use of dictionary. Teacher can also provide some terms for stimulating the students.
 - c. Paraphrasing. The students can work in pairs or in group. They paraphrase the sentences or expressions by the assistance of the teacher. This activity can improve the students ability to use various types of sentence.

- d. Matching. This activity is done by matching the pictures with the words, the data, the events and the parts of text based on audio record.
- e. Labeling the picture. The students can label the picture with the words, phrases, sentences or data based on the audio record. The students create their own label. This labeling can be done in pair or in group. The teacher can guide the students to do labeling.
- f. Multiple choice exercises. Teacher can provide the multiple choice quiz based on the audio record. The students not only choose the correct answer but also give reason to their answer.
- g. Collecting pieces of information. The students can collect information drawn from the audio. They combine those pieces of information into integrated and meaningful composition.
- h. Gap-filling. The teacher provides a text with gaps. The text is related to the audio record. By listening to the record, the students find the words or phrases to fill the gap.
- i. Completion of text. The teacher provides incomplete text. The students listen to the audio and complete the text based on the audio they listened.
- j. Sequencing. Based on the audio, the students are supposed to compose words, phrase or information in sequence. It can be a chronological events, procedural steps or classified parts.
- k. Answering questions. The students should answer the questions based on the audio. The questions may be yes-or-no or Wh-questions.
- l. Choosing True-or-false. Provided with some statements, the students should state whether the statements are true or false and give the reasons of their answer.
- m. Filling in charts or tables. The students should fill in the chart or table based on the audio record they listened.

3. Confirmation stage: Exercises are done as a follow-up action. The activity can also be used as confirmation. The students do not necessarily see the record any more. However, the audio resources become the predetermination of the activity. The followings are some activities that can be done during confirmation stage.
 - a. Discussion. The issues discussed are raised up from the audio record.
 - b. Story telling. After the students understand the audio record and have sufficient vocabulary terms, they are guided to create and act out a story.
 - c. Writing drama script. Based on the audio, the teacher can assign the students to write drama script to be performed in class.
 - d. Acting. The teacher can ask the students to do role-plays, simulations, drama or producing film based on the pictures.
 - e. Writing a letter. Based on the audio, the teacher can assign the students to write a letter to friend or parent.
 - f. Writing an article or report. Based on the audio, the teacher can assign the students to write a report for a newspaper or magazine.
 - g. Posting or Commenting on Weblog. Based on the audio, the teacher can assign the students to write comment or post on a collaborative weblog.
 - h. Creating comics. Based on the audio, the teacher can assign the students to make comics. The teacher can provide the pictures based on the audio record, and the students can add callout on the pictures.
 - i. Writing advertisements. Based on the audio, the teacher can assign the students to make an advertisement.

The activities can also be done vice versa. The teacher starts from a text or statements and assigns students to make audio record as a project.

- j. News Report. The teacher can provide a text on the hot news. The students are assigned to read the news as the reporter of a radio broadcast.
- k. Lecturing. The students are assigned to be a teacher who is giving a lecture and being recorded. The lecture can be about a topic or about the procedure of making something.
- l. Creating and singing song lyric. The teacher provide instrumental music or karaoke, the students are assigned to create lyric for that music. Then, they sing that song and record them.

Music can also stimulate the students in language learning. Using musical recordings teacher can help students to a relaxed condition in learning. It is usually implemented in Suggestopedia.

Further application can be communication inspired by the music played in the background. The theme of the drama can be outlined by the visions students get when listening to the music in a relaxed state (Pohl, 1999). Thus, music promotes creating stories that can be acted out, visualized by pictures drawn by students and then written up (Katchen, 1995; Taylor, 1992).

Language labs and tapes can be used to drill the students by using Audio-Lingual Method. Although language labs function cannot fully imitate everyday reality of language use but it is worth to automation.

Students' responses can be recorded in any of these exercises provided one wants to create a basis for comparison for the sake of learners' self-evaluation. Thus, language lab application has shown a way towards recording students' oral performances for feedback purposes. It has led us to audio-production as a way of audio-related activities in language education. Another purpose of recording students' performances is to create audio-projects. The activity that leads to the production of audio-projects is project work.

Project work is a series of carefully planned and negotiated, multi-skill activities that are carried out in a co-operative, creative atmosphere with the aim to produce something tangible that has got a real function in real life. A project is the end-product of the previously described series of activities. Being tangible and looking similar to things that have got real functions in real life are very significant criteria of projects. In the context of audio-project work this end-product can resemble the characteristics of various genres of radio programs such as news, weather forecasts, sports broadcasts, quizzes, advertisements or commercials, traffic information, portraits of people, radio plays and soap operas. Another option is to record 'audio-letters' to friends abroad. This latter product is rather frequently used in the so called 'shoe-box' projects, i.e. class-to-class or school-to-school exchange projects.

What are the aims of project work?

1. Helping students attain communicative competence;
2. Encouraging spontaneous expression orally and in writing;
3. Reinforcing the students' linguistic abilities;
4. Developing their own learning capacity;
5. Increasing the students' ability to read basic literary, technical or daily-use texts;
6. Helping the students using English by exchanging ideas, feelings and information with speakers of other languages;
7. Contributing to the integral and social development of the students by means of an active methodology, based mainly on group work;
8. Contributing to learners' intellectual development; (Carmona,1989)

There are many values of project work. The materials will be more complex and situational. Therefore, a project-oriented language teaching tends to have the following characteristics.

1. It is student-centered, not syllabus-centered;
2. It focuses on topics or themes rather than on specific language;

3. It is skill-based, not structure-based;
4. It doubts the monopoly of verbal skills in the success of learning;
5. It reforms the traditional student-teacher relationship;
6. It is based on hierarchy;
7. It effects on student-student relationship because it creates a cooperative atmosphere rather than a competitive one;
8. It concerns on motivation as it is personal;
9. It encourages learning through doing and develops the sense of achievement as the end-product is important;
10. It encourages independent investigation;
11. It integrates language skills with other skills in a cross-curricular context. (Poór, 2001).

The process of creating audio-projects:

1. Planning
 - a. Making an agreement on the schedule of activities
 - b. Input in linguistic and cross-curricular terms
2. Producing
 - a. Initiating project work, introducing the idea.
 - b. Discussing the actual topics and possible formats of the end-product.
 - c. Defining objectives.
 - d. Forming groups.
 - e. Planning in groups
 - f. Counseling with the teacher
 - g. Collecting data, information, materials and resources to use
 - h. Group discussion
 - 1) Counseling with the teacher
 - 2) Confirming and modifying the plan
 - i. Producing the project
3. Evaluating
 - a. Group discussion and counseling with the teacher

- b. Presentation: using the project for something in a real context
- c. Reflection

The evaluation of project work is the trial of the product that is the project itself. When one listens to the audio-recording created through a series of learning activities, one expects it to function in the way any radio-program would do in real life. A weather forecast produced by students can act as a starting point for a role play aiming at negotiating and planning a weekend for example.

4.4. Techniques of Using Video Materials

In the history of the development of language teaching methods, Direct and Audio-Lingual Methods were followed by Audio-Visual Method as an outcome of research inquiring how effective teaching and learning can be depending on the resources used. If the input is given by audio-visual means, i.e. seeing and hearing is involved, 50% of the information gained will be stored in the long term memory. The efficiency can be increased up to 70 % if the audio-visual imputes accompanied by students' oral production. Originally sound-slides, 'book-cassettes', sound-films and educational television were used. The best practice of applying traditional audio-visual means has been implemented by contemporary teachers who use videotapes, DVDs and any other audio-visual digital sources (like Flash-presentations) to facilitate language learning.

Integrating videos to be in the language teaching procedures is the same as integrating audios. Authentic videos or authentic videos republished for language teaching purposes, private authentic videos recorded for language teaching purposes or educational authentic videos and videos published for language teaching.

The possible technical solutions of using video for language teaching are by:

1. Freezing the frame.
2. Turning off the sound (the students only see the picture)
3. Turning off the image (the students only hear the sound)
4. Using slow motions

5. Using speeded-up motions

The following is the process of using video-materials in language teaching.

1. Exploration Stage: Activities before watching the video
 - a. Guessing. Before watching the video, the students can be guided to guess the topic of the materials based on some key words or utterances, some text related to the materials, some sounds or music or a limited impression such as the students watch only some part of the video.
 - b. Prediction. Before watching the video, the students can be guided to make a prediction on the rest of the video based on some key words or utterances, some text related to the materials, some sounds or music or a limited impression such as the students watch only some part of the video.
2. Elaboration Stage : Activities done while watching the video
 - a. Collecting words and phrases related to the video. The teacher can guide the students to collect the words, phrases or expressions that reflect the video.
 - b. Elaborating vocabulary. This activity can be done by the use of dictionary. Teacher can also provide some terms for stimulating the students.
 - c. Paraphrasing. The students can work in pairs or in group. They paraphrase the sentences or expressions by the assistance of the teacher. This activity can improve the students ability to use various types of sentence.
 - d. Matching. This activity is done by matching the video captures with the words, the data, the events and the parts of text based on video.
 - e. Labeling the video capture. The students can label the video captures with the words, phrases, sentences or data based on the

audio record. The students create their own labels. This labeling can be done in pair or in group. The teacher can guide the students to do labeling.

- f. Multiple choice exercises. Teacher can provide the multiple choice quiz based on the video. The students not only choose the correct answers but also give reasons to their answers.
 - g. Collecting pieces of information. The students can collect information drawn from the video. They combine those pieces of information into integrated and meaningful composition.
 - h. Gap-filling. The teacher provides a text with gaps. The text is related to the video. By watching the video, the students find the words or phrases to fill the gap.
 - i. Completion of text. The teacher provides incomplete text. The students watch the video and complete the text based on the video they watch.
 - j. Sequencing. Based on the video, the students are supposed to compose words, phrases or information in sequence. It can be a chronological events, procedural steps or classified parts.
 - k. Answering questions. The students should answer the questions based on the video. The questions may be yes-or-no or WH-questions.
 - l. Choosing True-or-false. Provided with some statements, the students should state whether the statements are true or false and give the reasons of their answer.
 - m. Filling in charts or tables. The students should fill in the chart or table based on the video.
3. Confirmation stage: Exercises are done as a follow-up action. The activity can also be used as confirmation. The students do not necessarily see the video any more. However, the video resources

become the predetermination of the activity. The followings are some activities that can be done during confirmation stage.

- a. Discussion. The issues discussed are raised up from the video record.
- b. Story telling. After the students understand the video and have sufficient vocabulary terms, they are guided to create and act out a story.
- c. Writing drama script. Based on the video, the teacher can assign the students to write a drama script to be performed in the class.
- d. Acting. The teacher can ask the students to do role-plays, simulations, drama or producing film based on the video.
- e. Writing a letter. Based on the video, the teacher can assign the students to write a letter to friend or parent.
- f. Writing an article or report. Based on the video, the teacher can assign the students to write a report for a newspaper or magazine.
- g. Posting or Commenting on Weblog. Based on the video, the teacher can assign the students to write comment or post on a collaborative weblog.
- h. Creating comics. Based on the audio, the teacher can assign the students to make comics. The teacher can provide the pictures based on the video or video capture, and the students can add callout on the pictures.
- i. Writing advertisements. Based on the video, the teacher can assign the students to make an advertisement. The activities can also be done vice versa. The teacher starts from a text or statements and assigns students to make video record as a project.
- j. News Report. The teacher can provide a text on the hot news. The students are assigned to read the news as the reporter of a TV broadcast.

- k. Lecturing. The students are assigned to be a teacher who is giving a lecture and being recorded. The lecture can be about a topic or about the procedure of making something.
- l. Creating and singing song lyric. The teacher provide instrumental music or karaoke, the students are assigned to create lyric for that music. Then, they sing that song and record them. They can also make video clip on it.

The advantage of video-technology is that one can record students' performance, too. As mentioned previously regarding audio-production, recordings can be used for feedback – self-evaluation – purposes and in project work, too. As far as video-project work is concerned, it can aim at the production of television programs such as news, weather forecasts, sports 'transmissions', quizzes, advertisements and commercials, traffic information, portraits of people, 'feature films', soap operas, TV-sketches, situational comedies, documentary films (introducing places, traditions, past events, nature, etc.), fashion shows, puppet shows, bedtime stories, video-clips, promotion videos (introducing the work and life of an institution or a company. Further genres could be video guides of a town or of an institution like a school; video documentation of family, school and community events; 'video letters' to friends abroad. It is usually role plays and isolated pronunciation exercises that can be recorded with the aim of peer-, teacher and self-evaluation. Various procedures have been elaborated to support this idea. (Lonergan, 1984, Poór, 1997)

The process of using the video-feedback technique with role-plays

- 1. Preparatory stage: before the role play
 - a. Setting the objectives and deciding on timing, time-frame, topic, forms
 - b. Planning
 - c. Implementing lead-in (bridging) activities
- 2. Active stage: while students act out the role play
 - a. Setting tasks

- b. Learners prepare for the role play
 - c. Acting out the role play and recording it with a camera
3. Follow-up stage: after the role play
 4. Feedback: analysis and evaluation of learners' performance by the learners involved, their peers and the teacher by replaying the video-recording
 5. Reflection on the whole process by the learners and their teacher

The followings are the criteria for the feedback and evaluation of recorded role-plays.

Peer-evaluation Rubric (A)

Aspect to be evaluated	Need improvement	Fair	Good
His/her self confidence			
His/her pronunciation			
His/her intonation			
His/her ability to identify the role			
His/her word choice			
His/her grammar			

Self-evaluation Rubric (B)

Aspect to be evaluated	Need improvement	Fair	Good
My self confidence			
My pronunciation			
My intonation			
My ability to identify the role			
My word choice			
My grammar			

4.5. Information and Communication Technologies

Contemporary digital technology offers unlimited chance for self-directed learning. Computer-operated information and communication technologies, usually called as Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) in language learning term, are based on the principles of autonomous learning.

Many things can be done with software targeted at language teaching and learning; resources such as databases, dictionaries and encyclopedia; tools for productive use like word processing and data processing programs (Legenhausen, 1996). Commonly, CALL occurs in the form of multimedia, electronic dictionaries and web-pages. Various international web pages can inspire students communicate to each other by using the internet. They can send e-mail messages, chat, broadcast, and implement video conference.

Using paltalk in (<http://www.paltalk.com/id/>), the students are given chance for encouraging them to enter video-chat, audio-chat, and instant message. Topical chat-rooms also offer a lot of perspectives for teacher where a theme can be initiated for discussion among the students. The story can be outlined and problem can be spotted. Furthermore, students guided with the story and negotiate the solution. This chat-room-specific application leads us to the world of virtual reality.

There are various multimedia programs that offer chance for self-correction and self-evaluation. They can be sources for analytic or achievement tests. Built-in microphones and web cameras on the computer also help some multimedia integrate the practicing of pronunciation and elementary units for interaction in a proportional way that resembles language lab applications to some extent. Internet-based digital technology offers the chance for on-line audio-communication and video-interaction with the help of Skype, ICQ, MSN and other kinds of applications. The majority of the formerly named software mostly offers the chance for communication connecting two parties. If teachers want to involve more learner-communities in real-time communication, video-conferencing can be the mode of creating real situations for language learning. The exploitation of internet-based on-line communication adds new values to

education because it can extend the limits of the classrooms and other student-communities can be invited. Thus, the term of 'virtual classroom' has also occurred in the profession. 'Virtual classrooms' do not only afford new information gained from set sources and peers in other classes, schools, towns, countries and even continents, but also create a rigid basis for creative types of learning such as project work.

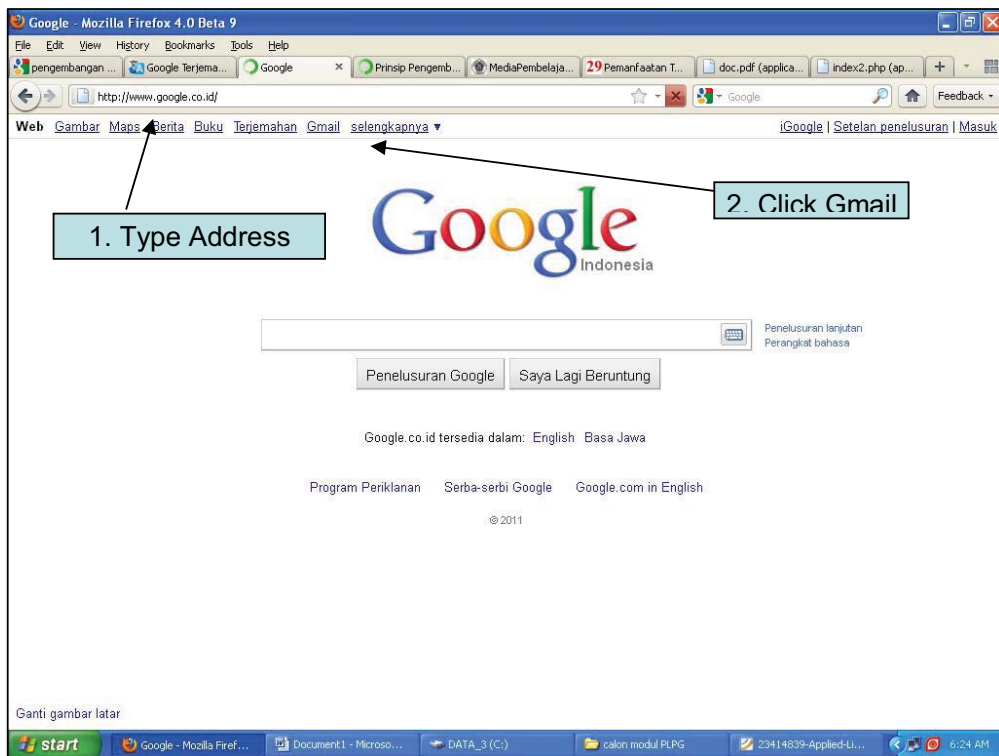
The developments of project work give us the opportunity to involve our students in designing and producing multimedia and/or web pages. Activities of this kind offer language learning opportunity while creating the programs that often act as source of learning for other people. In the end, it can be the case in numerous projects for school-to-school co-operation.

Some internet resources and devices should be mastered by the teachers for improving their activities in the class. The teachers should have email address, know how to search resources, install software and use the multimedia. Their ability in using information technology can help them enrich their knowledge, create various materials and use various techniques.

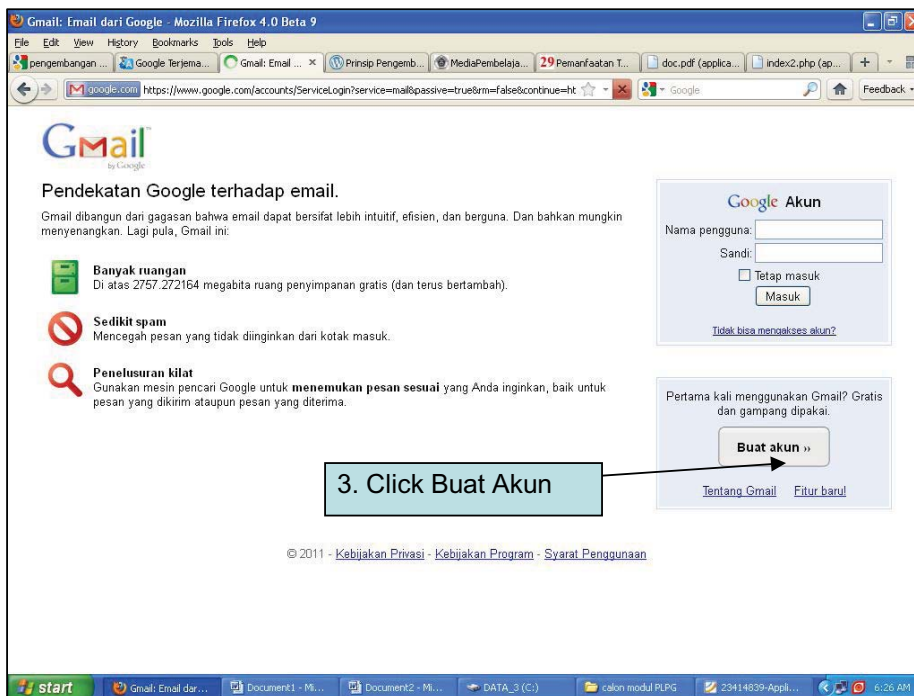
4.6. Making Email account using Google

The followings are the steps of creating account using Google:

1. Open your web browser and type "google.com" in the address bar. Press the enter key.
2. Click the "Gmail" link on the top left of the Google homepage. This will direct you to the Gmail homepage.



3. Click "create an account" on the bottom right of the Gmail page.



4. Fill out the user-specific information fields. Your name, country of residence and desired email address are required to create an account.

Buat Akun

Akun Google memberi Anda akses ke layanan Gmail maupun [layanan Google lainnya](#). Jika Anda sudah punya Akun Google, silakan [masuk log di sini](#).

Memulai dengan Gmail

Nama Depan:

Nama Belakang:

Nama Login Yang Diinginkan: @gmail.com
Contoh: JSmith, John.Smith
[cek ketersediaan!](#)

Buat sandi: [Kerumitan Sandi](#)
Panjangnya minimum 8 karakter.

Masukkan kembali sandi:

☐ Tetap masuk
☒ Aktifkan Riwayat Web [Selengkapnya](#)

Pertanyaan Rahasia:

5. Read the terms of service, program policy, and the privacy policy.
Click "I accept. Create my account." to complete your registration.

Pertanyaan Rahasia:

Jika Anda lupa sandi Anda kami akan meminta jawaban untuk pertanyaan rahasia Anda. [Selengkapnya](#)

Jawaban:

Email pemulihan:
Alamat ini digunakan untuk mengautentikasi account Anda jika Anda mengalami masalah atau lupa sandi Anda. Jika Anda tidak memiliki alamat email lain, Anda boleh mengosongkan isian ini. [Selengkapnya](#)

Lokasi:

Verifikasi Kata: Ketik karakter yang Anda lihat pada gambar di bawah ini.

 [Tidak peka huruf besar/kecil](#)

Persyaratan Layanan: Periksa kembali informasi yang Anda masukkan untuk Akun Google di atas (gantilah bila ada yang tidak cocok), dan bacalah Persyaratan Layanan berikut.
[Versi Cetak](#)
Syarat-Syarat Layanan Google
Selamat Datang di Google!
1. Hubungan Anda dengan Google
Dengan mengklik 'Saya menerima' di bawah ini, Anda menyetujui [TPersyaratan Layanan](#) tersebut dan juga [Kebijakan Program](#) serta [Kebijakan Privasi](#).

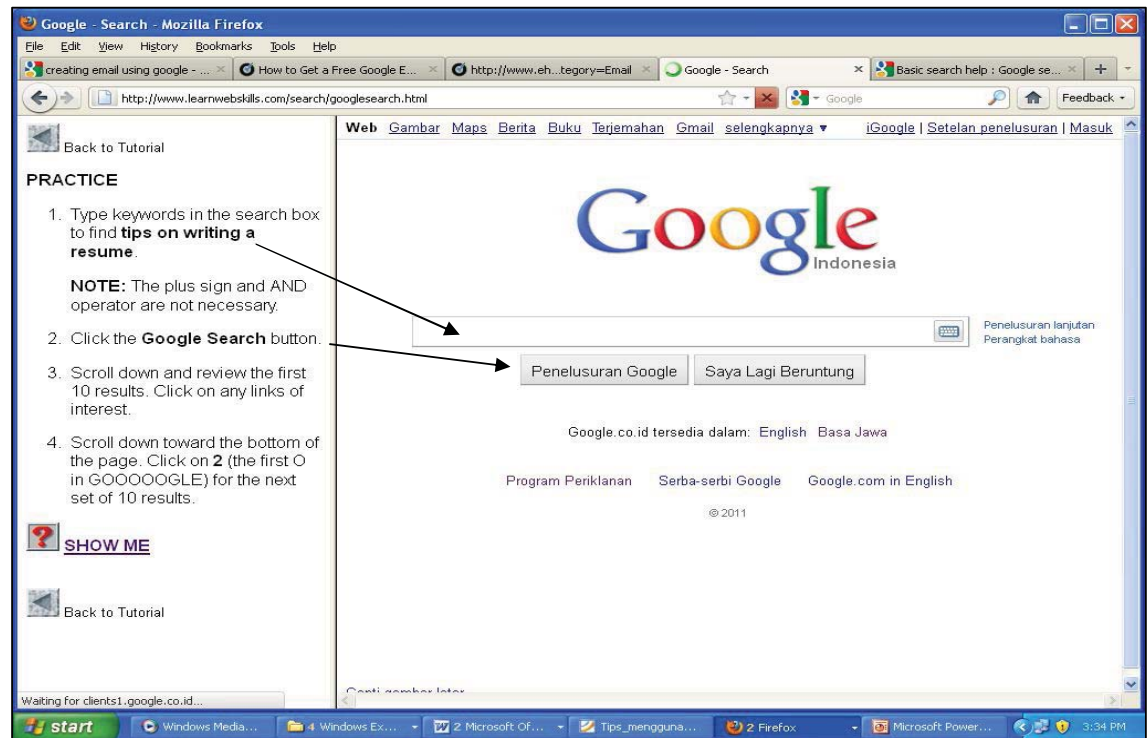
5. Click this menu → [Saya menerima. Buat akun saya.](#)

There are many uses of email from an assignment to more complex projects. It is especially for improving students' writing skills. The followings are some activities that the teacher can use email as the media:

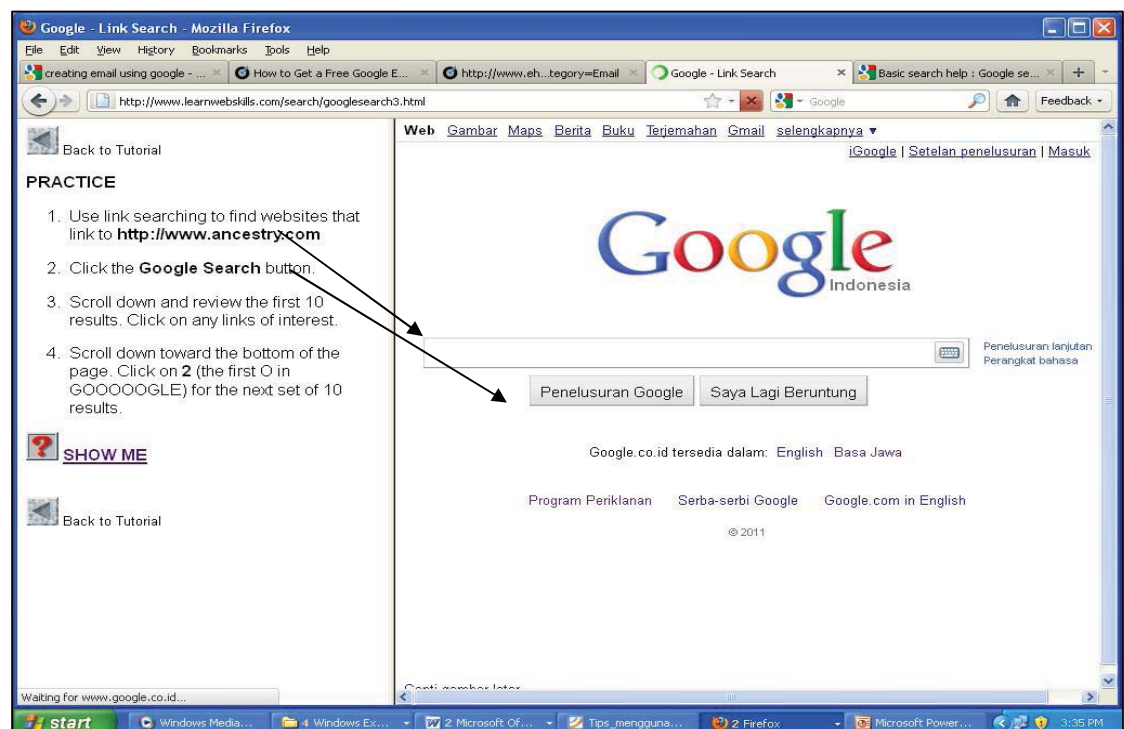
1. The teacher asks the students to submit the classwork as the attachment in email. The teacher can mark the student works and return them by email.
2. The teacher can send summary of each meeting and questions that should be answered by the students periodically.
3. Teacher can email newsletter on a topic about the materials and the students are supposed to discuss the topic. It is valuable to keep in touch with the students during holiday.
4. Students can email the teacher the queries about the topic going to be discussed so the teacher can give priority to the topic that is considered to be difficult by the students.
5. To avoid the condition that the students are shy to question in the class, teacher can give opportunity for students to use email for consulting the problems. If the teacher finds that a topic is difficult according to the majority of the students, teacher can make a remedy on it.
6. In writing, email can be used as collaborative tool. For example, the teacher email a writing project to some students, considered as one group, with one email. Each student can write and send the writing to all member of the group by using 'reply all'. The teacher can monitor the way the students collaborate from the email.
7. Key pals. A key pal is similar to a pen pal. First of all, the teacher must find out the English teacher abroad by using email or English teacher forum. Furthermore, he asked the collaborative teacher to make a project for the students on key pal. After the project is agreed, the teacher can share the students email addresses to the collaborative teacher to be informed to his/her students for communication.

4.7. Using Google for Searching Resources

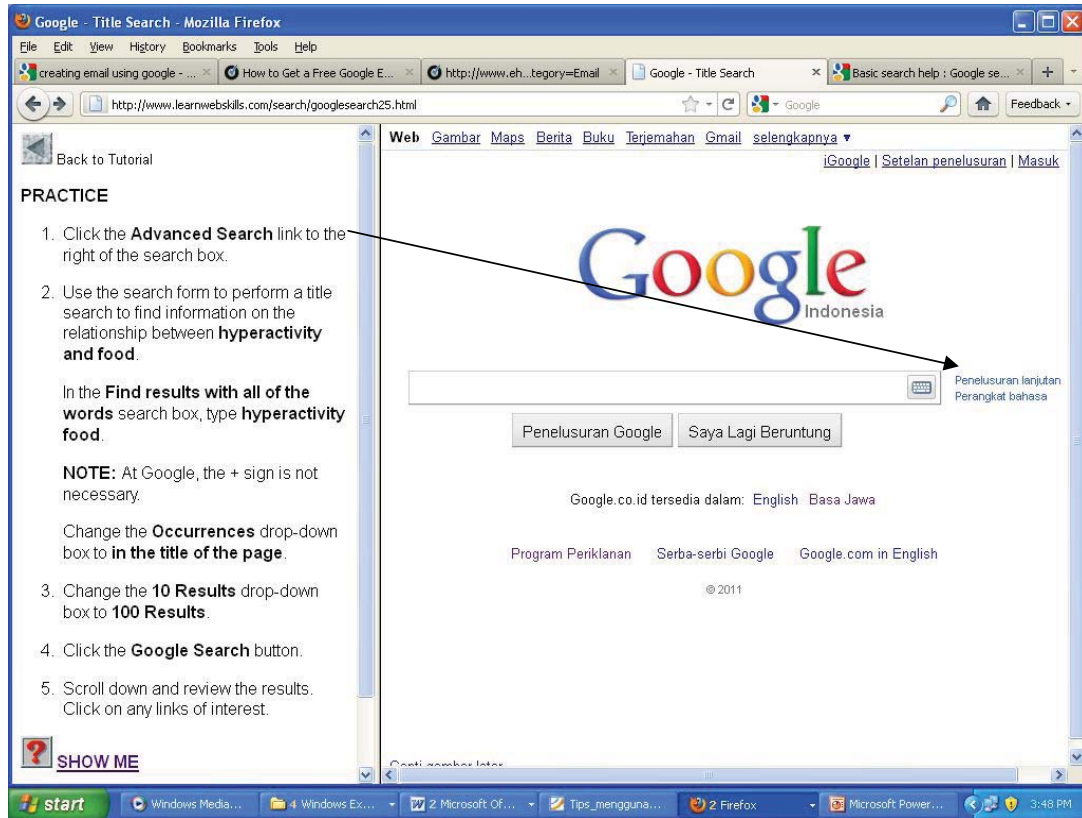
1. Practice Searching



2. Practice Link Searching



3. Practice Title Searching



Each search engine has different way to search number of web pages and interpret the search criteria. Web pages or sites that appear at the top of a result list do not do by chance. The appearance of those pages is a combination of the condition that those pages are the most popular ones covering this topic and those whose owners have paid to appear near the top of the list when certain words are searched for. It should be remembered that search engines only look for the words we tell them to look for. The more specific the search criteria, the more likely the results will include something useful.

The following pieces of basic advice can help us find what we want quickly:

1. The more words in your search criteria, the smaller the number of result.
2. Do not bother with capital letters and small words such as the, in, and, etc, since most search engines ignore them.

3. If you cannot find something you want in the first 30-50 results, rethink your search criteria. Maybe add or remove words.
4. Local versions of search engines are programmed to prioritize results from your country. For example, since you are based in Indonesia try using <http://www.google.co.id> or <http://id.search.yahoo.com>

Once you have mastered the basics, further techniques can be added to improve your search results:

1. Placing the + symbol in front of a word means that this word must be on the web page for it to be included in the result.
2. Placing – symbol in front of a word means that no web pages with this word must be included in the results.
3. Placing an OR between two words means the web pages must include either one of these words or both.
4. placing a phrase inside double quotation marks tells the search engine to look for this exact phrase.

Here are few more tips that are unique to Google, the most popular of the search engines.

1. Placing the ~ symbol in front of a word means Google should search for this word and synonyms of this word, e.g. *nuclear~power* produces results for nuclear power, nuclear energy and nuclear electricity.
2. You can limit your search to a single website instead of the entire Web. Your search criteria should be followed by site: then the address of the website, e.g. “*nuclear power*”*site:www.bbc.co.uk* will search term nuclear power , but only in the BBC’s website.
3. Google has feature that allows you limit your search to online glossaries. You enter *define:* followed by the word you want to know the meaning of, e.g. *define:nuclear power* produces a short list of definitions of nuclear power taken from specialized websites.
4. Google news, <http://news.google.com>, searches only websites of new-gathering organizations such as newspapers and TV companies. Its homepage is generated automatically, and you can enter search criteria

to find exactly what you are looking for. Because Google News only covers a very small part of the web, it is able to list articles that are very recent, sometimes only a few hours old.

4.8. Finding Multimedia

Multimedia on the web consists of images –such as photographs and diagrams- audio and video. The latter ranges from clips of longer recordings to complete radio program songs and TV programs or movies. It means that while it is often possible to find a text that exactly matches your needs, finding audio or video clips that fit closely is not guaranteed.

Images

Most search engines have special tools for finding images. At the homepage of each search engine, click on the link images or use one of these address:

Google images: <http://www.google.com/imghp>

Yahoo images: <http://search.yahoo.com/images>

MSN images: <http://search.msn.com/images>

When you search, instead of a list of web pages, you get a set of pictures that meet your criteria. If the results do not include what you were looking for, try modifying your search criteria.

Audio and Video

The web can expand the range of listening materials you have available to your learner in terms of content, length, accent, speed of speech and regional type of English.

There are some audio files which you can download, save and keep. The audio and video can be downloaded when there is computer connected with the internet.

Broadband internet connections can cope with online video easily. However, lower connections will struggle to download the information quickly enough, so video is best avoided. Audio clips, however, require less bandwidth and are usually accessible with the slower, dial-up type of connection.

The two common programs used to access streaming audio and video are RealPlayer (<http://real.com>) and Windows Media Player (included in Windows installation).

To search video clips one can use <http://video.search.yahoo.com>, <http://www.altavista.com/video> and <http://video.google.com>.

4.9. Creating Blog

Blog is very useful for the teacher especially in making collaboration and sharing information on what they have done in teaching.

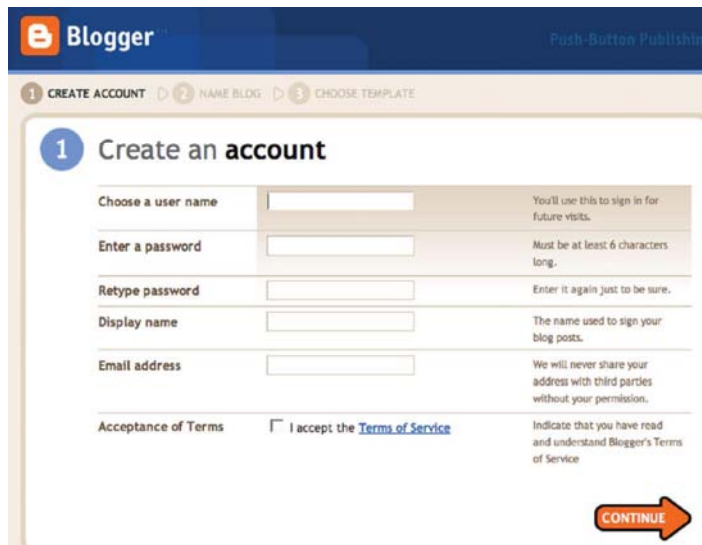
1. Starting of Creating weblog.

- a. Visit <http://www.blogger.com>
- b. Find "What's a Blog?". Clicking on "Take a Quick Tour." will lead you to the basics of blogging.
- c. After finishing the tour, you're ready to create your own Blog. Click on "Create Your Blog Now."



2. Creating an account

- a. Your username can't have spaces, but letter and numbers are good because it has to be unique.
- b. Use any email address.
- c. Write down your Username and Password
- d. Click the orange "Continue" arrow.



The screenshot shows the Blogger 'Create an account' form. At the top, the Blogger logo and 'Push-Button Publishing' are visible. Below the logo, a progress bar shows three steps: 1. CREATE ACCOUNT (active), 2. NAME BLOG, and 3. CHOOSE TEMPLATE. The main heading is '1 Create an account'. The form contains several input fields with corresponding instructions:

Field	Instruction
Choose a user name	You'll use this to sign in for future visits.
Enter a password	Must be at least 6 characters long.
Retype password	Enter it again just to be sure.
Display name	The name used to sign your blog posts.
Email address	We will never share your address with third parties without your permission.

Below the input fields, there is a checkbox for 'Acceptance of Terms' with the text 'I accept the [Terms of Service](#)'. To the right of this, it says 'Indicate that you have read and understand Blogger's Terms of Service'. At the bottom right of the form is an orange arrow button labeled 'CONTINUE'.

3. Naming the blog

- a. Give your blog a title.
- b. Give your blog an address. You can use the login you just created.
- c. This is the address where your blog will be found on the Net.
- d. Don't use any spaces, apostrophes, colons, spaces or other special characters.
- e. Type the letters you see for word verification.
- f. Click the orange "Continue" arrow.

The screenshot shows the Blogger 'Name your blog' setup screen. At the top, there's a blue header with the Blogger logo and 'Push-Button Publishing'. Below the header, a progress bar indicates three steps: 1. CREATE ACCOUNT, 2. NAME BLOG (current step), and 3. CHOOSE TEMPLATE. The main content area is titled '2 Name your blog'. It contains three input fields: 'Blog title' with a placeholder 'Enter a title for your blog.', 'Blog address (URL)' with a placeholder 'http://.blogspot.com' and a note 'You and others will use this to read and link to your blog.', and 'Word Verification' with a distorted image of the word 'syzwxcyr' and a note 'Type the characters you see in the picture below.'. Below these fields is an 'OR' separator and an 'Advanced Setup' link with a note 'Want to host your blog somewhere else? Try [Advanced Blog Setup](#). This will allow you to host your blog somewhere other than Blogspot.'. At the bottom right is an orange 'CONTINUE' button with a right-pointing arrow.

4. Choosing a template

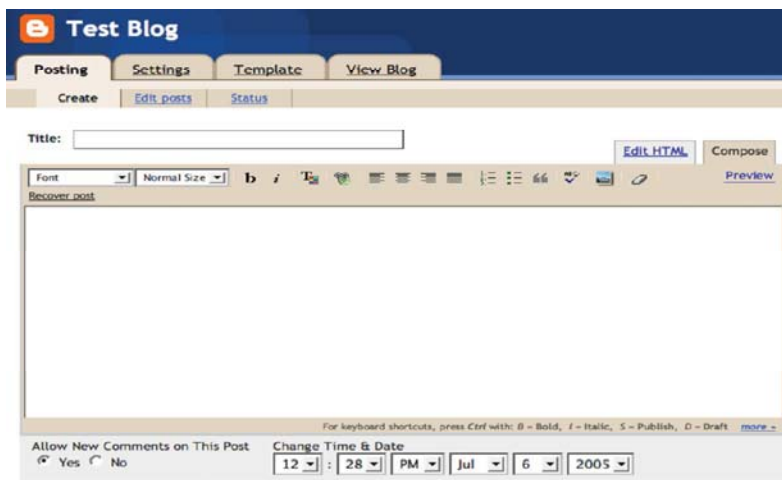
- Scroll down to look at the possible styles.
- Click on Preview to see what they look like.
- Choose one you like by clicking the radio button.
- Click the orange "Continue" arrow.

The screenshot shows the Blogger 'Choose a template' screen. At the top, the same blue header is present. The progress bar now shows step 3, 'CHOOSE TEMPLATE', as the current step. The main content area is titled '3 Choose a template'. It displays four template preview cards. The first two are 'Minimal' and 'Minimal Black', both created by Douglas Bowman. The other two are 'Minimal Blue' and 'Minimal Green'. Each card has a 'preview template' link. To the right of the templates, there's a text box that says 'Choose a custom look for your blog. You can easily **change** the template later, or even create your own custom template design once your blog is set up.'. At the bottom right is an orange 'CONTINUE' button with a right-pointing arrow.

5. Posting on the blog

- Fill in a title for your first post.
- Type whatever you like. (We might post about the article you read for homework!)
- Play around with the editing tools. Notice you can change fonts, styles, colors, etc.
- You can spell check too. (Please do!)

- e. You can also make a link to another Web site. Highlight the text. Then choose the chain link button. Type in the Web address you want to link to. Simple!
- f. If you have an image on your computer or on the Internet, you can link to that too.
- g. When finished, click on the orange "Publish Post" button.



4.10 Websites Supporting English Language Teaching

There are some useful websites for teachers to access. It does not mean that these websites are the best sites to be accessed but only the examples of websites that offer materials that are useful for English language teaching activities.

1. The websites that provide or link you to audio materials
 - a. http://www.eslpod.com/website/index_new.html
 - b. <http://www.breakingnewsenglish.com/>
 - c. <http://eslnews.org.nz/>
 - d. <http://esl.culips.com/>
2. The websites that provide or link you to reading materials

- a. <http://www.eslreading.org/>
- b. <http://www.eslfast.com/#A>
- c. <http://www.rong-chang.com/qa2/>
- d. http://www.mightybook.com/free_to_read.html

3. The websites that provide or link you to video materials

- a. <http://www.englishmedialab.com/>
- b. <http://www.online-languages.info/english/video.php>
- c. <http://www.english-online.org.uk/begvideocourse/begvideo10.htm>

4. The websites for collaborative writing

- a. <http://titanpad.com/>
- b. www.bitstrips.com
- c. www.storybird.com
- d. <http://www.mixedink.com>

5. The websites for teacher references and enrichment

- a. <http://www.usingenglish.com/>
- b. <http://eltj.oxfordjournals.org/>
- c. <http://iteslj.org/>

4.11. Exercise

A. Questions and tasks

1. State the advantages and disadvantages of using visual, audio and video media.
2. What skills can they be used for?
3. Mention some techniques of using the visual in teaching.
4. Mention some techniques of using the video in teaching.
5. What can computer be used for in English Language Teaching?
6. What techniques can we use in teaching English using email?
7. What skills can we develop with titanpad? How do we use this site?

B. Search the information using Search Engine

1. What U.S. President was born in a town named Caldwell?
2. What are the two species of elephants?
3. Who played in the 1979 World Series?
4. From what place did the Ebola virus get its name?
5. What is the address of the Empire State Building?
6. What is North Carolina's state bird?
7. When did Dr. Seuss win the Pulitzer Prize?
8. Who invented the paper clip?
9. What was "Lady Bird" Johnson's maiden name?
10. What country had the largest recorded earthquake?

References

- Tomlinson, B. (2001): Materials Development. In Carter, R. & Nunan, D. (eds): Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Byrne, D. (1988): Teaching Writing Skills. London: Longman.
- Underwood, M. (1989): Teaching Listening. London: Longman.
- Póór Z. (2001): Nyelvpedagógiai technológia. Budapest: Nemzeti Tankönyvkiadó.
- Krashen, S. (1987): Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition. Hemel Hempstead: Prentice-Hall International.
- White, G. (1998): Listening. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Katchen, J. E. (1995): Tell It with Music. TESOL Journal. 4/3. 28.
- Taylor L. (1992): Musical Icebreaker. Practical English Teaching. June. 54.
- Fernández Carmona, R.–Sebastiá De La Concepción, M.–Montanes
- Brunet, E. (1989): Developing Project Work In The English Classroom. English Teaching Forum. 29/3.
- Legenhausen, L. (1996): Computers in the Foreign Language Classroom. Graz: European Centre for Modern Languages

CHAPTER 5

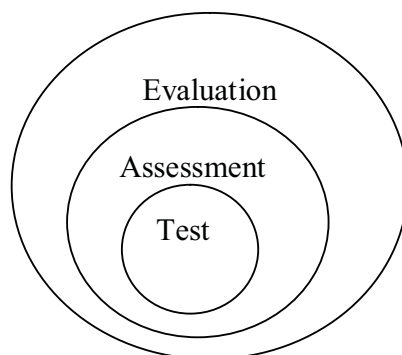
LANGUAGE LEARNING EVALUATION

5.1. Introduction

The guideline of the competency test in the Teacher Education and Professional Development program— PLPG, states that teachers should be able to do evaluation of learning achievement (Diknas: 2010). Evaluation has broader sense and function than assessment and test. In other words, assessment and test are the subsets of evaluation. Evaluation is a procedure or method of knowing whether or not the teaching and learning process have been done by the teachers effectively and properly; whether the indicators, the materials, the learning strategies and media, the assessment procedures, and test items are in agreement with the competencies, the learners, and the learning situation. The data used to evaluate the quality of teaching and learning process are usually taken from the result of observation, interview, test and assessment in the classroom.

Assessment, according to Brown (2003: 4) is an ongoing process that encompasses a much wider domain. If a teacher thinks that it is not enough for him or her to take the students' scores only from the test (mid-semester or semester test), and the teacher needs to consider the students' participation, motivation, presentation, performance, paper, port-folio, presence, homework, etc in determining the final scores, at that time the teacher does an assessment. Thus, compared with the meaning of test, assessment has broader scope. According to Brown (2003: 3) test is a method of measuring a person's ability, knowledge, or performance in a given domain. Test is a *method* as for conducting a test a teacher should follows a *systematic procedure* such as planning the test, usually in the form of table of specification or test specification; constructing test items properly; trying the items out to guarantee the test's reliability; administering the test; scoring the test objectively, and evaluating the quality of the test. Test is *for measuring one's ability, knowledge, and performance* means that it is used to measure one's abilities or competencies. It is impossible for the teacher to measure all of the students' abilities. The ones

measured are only samples of so many possible abilities, and hence both the abilities or competencies and the test items must be representative. In representing the students' abilities the teacher is usually helped by numbers such as 1 to 10, 1 to 100, or 1 to 4; or category system such as *excellent, good, fair, poor, and very poor* or *A, B, C, D, E, or pass-fail* etc. The relation of test, assessment, and evaluation can be visualized in the following figure.



The diagram above shows that evaluation has the broadest scope in which assessment and test are the sub-sets of evaluation. The data for evaluation are usually taken from the results of assessment and test, but if necessary, a teacher can take other data by using other techniques, such as questionnaire and interview. The data should then be analyzed and the results are used for repairing the learning process, e.g. in the forms of remedy or enrichment.

5.2. Methods of Assessment

As stated previously that test is a part of assessment which means that it is one of the way the teacher assesses the students' abilities.

1. Uses of Tests

According Brown (2003: 43-47), the uses of test can be differentiated into 5 types, but they can be summarized into 3 major types:

- a. A general proficiency test

General proficiency test indicates what a student is capable of doing now (as the result of his accumulative learning experiences). It is usually a screening test which is used for many different purposes, such as:

- 1) To determine the readiness of a learning program. It is to separate those who are prepared for an academic program from those who are not. It commonly has a single cut-off point: 'pass' or 'fail'.
- 2) To classify individuals in appropriate language classes. It is used to distinguish the *degrees of proficiency* of which results are then used as a basis for selecting the treatments for the learners.
- 3) To diagnose the student's strengths and weaknesses. The results of this test will provide a *performance profile* which shows the relative strengths and weaknesses in the various areas tested.

b. Aptitude Test

An aptitude test serves to indicate an individual's facility for acquiring specific skills. It is usually a screening test which is used to predict future performance. At the time of testing, examinees may have a little knowledge of the language that will be studied, and the test is employed to measure their potencies.

c. Achievement Test

An achievement test indicates the extent to which an individual has mastered skills or information acquired in a formal learning situation. It is generally used to:

- 1) measure the extent of student achievement of the learning competencies.
- 2) evaluate the effectiveness of instruction. The achievement test is also used to assess the degree of success of the teaching and learning process.

2. Three Qualities of Test

According to Brown (2003: 17–37), the qualities of a test includes its practicality, reliability and validity. Reliability covers students-related reliability, rater reliability, test administration reliability, and test reliability. Validity covers content-related evidence, criterion-related reliability, construction-related evidence, consequential validity, and face validity. Thus a good test must possess those three qualities. The discussion in this part will not cover all the sub-parts proposed by Brown.

a. Validity

Validity means test's ability to measure what must be measured, or ability to test what must be tested. To be able to measure what must be measured, a test concerns with what to test, how to test, and how far the test results can be related to the real abilities of the students. In other words, validity covers three matters: content validity, face validity, and concurrent validity (Harris: 1996).

1) Content Validity

Content validity is the test ability to measure the abilities/competencies/indicators which must be mastered by students. Therefore the proposed items, questions, or tasks should represent the ability of the test to measure their abilities/competencies/indicators.

2) Empirical Validity

Empirical validity is the actual effectiveness of a test to determine how test scores can be related to some independent outside criteria. According to Harris (1996: 20), there are two kinds of empirical validity: predictive and concurrent validity. Predictive validity is the ability of the score of screening test or selection test to be correlated with the student's score of the first semester. Brown (2003: 24) stated that a test has concurrent validity if its results supported by other concurrent performances beyond the assessment itself. Concurrent validity is the ability of test scores to be correlated with the concurrent performance of the students. For example, if they get good score on speaking test, then he must be proficient in speaking in the real world.

3) Face Validity

Face validity, according to Harris (1996:21) is the way the test looks – to the examinees, test administrators, educators, and the like. Gronlund (in Brown 2003: 26) states that face validity is the extent to which students view the assessment as fair, relevant, and useful for improving learning.

b. Reliability

Reliability simply means the stability of the test score. A test cannot measure anything well unless it measures consistently. For example, (1) if we tested a group on Tuesday instead of Monday; (2) if we gave two parallel tests to the same group on Monday and on Tuesday, (3) if we scored a test on Tuesday instead of Monday; (4) if two scorers are involved; and approximately the same results are obtained, it means that our test is reliable.

c. Practicality

Practicality means usability of a test. Practicality of a test involves three aspects; (1) Economical in time and financial, (2) Easy for administrating and scoring, (3) Easy for interpreting.

5.3. Language Learning Assessment

In designing the assessment of language skills, teachers usually consider two things: the competencies written in the curriculum and the principles of language skills assessment. They then construct the items or tasks of the assessment based on the indicators they have made in the lesson plan. In this part, the discussion of assessments for language skills is also based on those two principles.

1. Assessing Listening Comprehension

In general, listening comprehension assessment is aimed at measuring the student's ability to decode sample of speeches. To decode means to understand and respond properly the stimuli which are usually provided orally.

a. Competency

The basic competencies of listening comprehension taken from the curriculum (Content Standard) of BSNP that must be achieved by the students of high school usually cover three abilities:

- (1) Students can understand and response the meaning of oral interpersonal (for socialization) and transactional (to get things done) texts.

(2) Students can understand and response short functional texts.

(3) Students can understand and response monolog of long functional texts.

In designing the test, the teacher should select the texts which in agreement with the competencies above, and consider the principles of assessing listening skills. The chosen texts can be dialogues of interpersonal and transactional speeches, oral announcement, invitation, advertisement, or monolog of long functional texts.

b. Principles of Listening Comprehension Assessment

Listening comprehension assessment involves two main aspects: language aspects and contents understanding, which Brown (2003) formulates them respectively as micro-skill and macro-skill. The following items are the formulations of micro and macro skills proposed by Brown.

Micro skills

- (1) Discriminate among the distinctive sounds of English.
- (2) Retain chunks of language of different lengths in short-term memory.
- (3) Recognize English stress patterns, word in stressed and unstressed positions, rhythmic structure, intonation contours, in their role in signaling information.
- (4) Recognize reduced forms of words
- (5) Distinguish word boundaries, recognize a core of words, and interpret word order patterns and their significance
- (6) Process speech at different rates of delivery.
- (7) Process speech containing pauses, errors, corrections, and other performance variables.
- (8) Recognize grammatical word classes (nouns, verbs, etc), systems (e.g. tense, agreement, pluralization), pattern rules and elliptical forms.
- (9) Detect sentence constituent and distinguish between major and minor constituents.
- (10) Recognize that a particular meaning may be expressed in different grammatical forms
- (11) Recognize cohesive devices in spoken discourse

Macro Skills

- (1) Recognize the communicative functions of utterance, according to situation, participants, and goals.
- (2) Infer situation, participants, and goals using real-world knowledge.
- (3) From events ideas and so on, described, predict outcomes, infer links and connection between events, deduce causes and effect, and detect such relation as main idea, supporting idea, new information, given information, generalization, and exemplification.
- (4) Distinguish between literal and implied meanings.
- (5) Use facial, kinesics, body language, and other non verbal clues to decipher meaning.
- (6) Develop and use a battery of listening strategies, such as detecting key words, guessing the meaning of words from context, appealing for help, and signaling comprehension or lacking thereof.

Teachers can consider both micro and macro skills in all types of texts stated in the basic competencies above. If the teachers start the items or tasks from the micro skills followed by macro skills, for example, they do bottom-up approach, whilst the opposite is called top-down approach. The following illustrations are the examples of items of distinctive sounds or auditory discrimination. Auditory discrimination test is aimed at measuring ability to discriminate between phonetically similar but phonemically separate sounds in English language. Here, the teacher works with two similar words in pair which are different in only one phoneme, for example, the different between /i/ and /I/ in the following pairs:

sleep	slip
deep	dip
reach	rich
sheep	ship
seat	sit

The other examples are the contrast between:

tick	thick
low	law
sit	shit
pig	big
etc.	

The teacher may pronounce the words randomly from the two columns and the students identify them. The teacher may vary the items by putting the words in the context, such as:

The teacher pronounces:

“The children saw a big sheep at the cage”

The students read:

- A. It was a large boat
- B. It was a large animal

The dialog below is an example of transactional speech. If the teacher focuses on ordering and commanding utterance, he can make the questions on both micro and macro-skills as follows.

(The students hear)

Mother: “Adi, is there any homework?”

Adi : “Yes, mom. Mathematics”

Mother: “Ok, quit that game”

Adi : “Some few more minutes, mom.”

Mother: “Shut down the computer and do your homework, now!”

The example of word memorization exercise is in the following sample.

(The students hear)

The word ‘quit’ has a close meaning to one of the following words.

(The student read)

- | | |
|--------------------|-----------------|
| <i>A. Turn off</i> | <i>C. Stop</i> |
| <i>B. Turn on</i> | <i>D. Start</i> |

The example of communicative function is as the following item

(The students hear)

What does mother ask Ardi to do?

(The students read)

- A. Start doing the homework in the computer*
- B. Turn on the computer and do the mathematic homework*
- C. Stop the game and do the homework*
- D. Do the homework first and then play the game*

The stimuli of listening assessment are usually presented orally, so the use of mechanical devices, such as recorder or language laboratory is better. The use of mechanical devices is better than the stimuli delivered orally for some reasons; (1) they provide best guarantee of high test reliability. In this case the stimuli are presented uniformly. (2) In the country where native speakers of English are not available, the use of recording will manipulate their absence, and (3) frequently, they are able to manipulate the speech situations.

The questions proposed in the test are usually about the accuracy in understanding the content of the speech, the interpretation of grammatical forms, the prediction of the next events, the inferences of setting of place, time, situation, the tone of the speakers, the course, the people involved, etc. There are some suggestions in presenting the questions:

- (1) Both the stimulus and answer choices should sound as much informal as spoken English (except in the simulated lectures).
- (2) The oral stimulus should include only high-frequency lexical item.
- (3) To minimize the reading factor, printed answer choices should be brief.

2. Assessing Speaking

Speaking is a complex skill requiring simultaneous use of different abilities, because, here, speakers (learners) need to employ vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, intonation, and organization of content of speech at the same time. No skill is so difficult to assess as speaking ability.

a. Competencies

The basic competencies written in the curriculum of high school state that students have be able to express:

- (1) meaning of interpersonal (for socialization) and transactional (to get things done) intends.
- (2) meaning through short functional texts
- (3) meaning through monolog of long functional texts

In conducting a speaking assessment, teachers should cover all competencies above. In this case, the teachers should provide stimulants in order that the students can perform the oral abilities, such like making dialogues of interpersonal and transactional speeches, e.g.

thanking, apologizing, introducing, requesting, etc; making a sort of short functional texts, like announcement, advertisement, invitation; and conveying a monolog of long functional texts, like procedure, description, recount, report, etc.

b. Principle of Speaking Assessment

Brown (2003) provides formulation of micro and macro-skill for assessing speaking skills, but Harris (1996) proposes some simpler aspects to be measured as the following items:

- (1) Pronunciation – including segmental and supra-segmental features
- (2) Grammar – the employment of syntactical structure
- (3) Vocabulary – the diction (choices of words)
- (4) Fluency
- (5) Comprehension – understandability of the speech

The aspects proposed by Harris are sufficient if the speaking assessment is just for asking the students to deliver monolog of long functional texts, but if it is to assess interpersonal and transactional speeches in the form of dialogues, some other aspects should be added like politeness strategy, naturalness of the expression, gesture, etc. The following items are the example of stimulants that can be provided by the teachers in order that the students can perform interpersonal or transactional intends, short functional texts, and monolog of recount text orally.

Stimulant 1:

(This test can be done by students in pair)

The teacher says: “In this test, you will have to express an apology. You have five minutes for the preparation of your apology based on the scenario written on this paper”.

The student read

You are pretended to be a secretary of the student council board and the vice school principal. Next week there will be a meeting for welcoming new students. The secretary cannot come to attend that meeting. The secretary comes to the vice principal to get a permission and make an apology, and the vice school principal shows a positive response.

Stimulant 2:

The teacher says: “Look at the advertisement below and you will be the first person, and you are the second. The first person: pretend you are buying a car. Call up and ask about the ad in the paper. The second person: look at the ad below and answer the questions asked by your partner.

Toyota Alphard '09, 6 cyl standard, good eng, body, and paint. New brakes, trans, \$1050 or best offer. 488-3063

Stimulant 3:

The teacher says: “You have to make an announcement orally. You have five minutes to prepare that announcement. Read the sentences on this paper.”

The student reads:

Next month there will be an event of welcoming new students in this school. To anticipate that moment, there will be a meeting of students' council board (pengurus OSIS). You may determine the day, date, time, and place for your announcement.

Stimulant 4:

The teacher says: “Well, yesterday one of your friends was punished because he was frequently late to come to school. He said that it was because of traffic jam. You have five minutes to arrange your recount text, and then you should deliver the text orally. The following questions will help you making that text”

The student reads a series of questions:

(1) What happened yesterday so your friend was punished; (2) Why was he punished?; (3) According to your friend what were the reasons of his frequent coming late to school?; (4) Why can't he avoid the causes?; What did he feel when he was punished?; Will he come late again?; What efforts will he take in order not to be late again. (If it is impossible for your students to arrange their own recount text based on the stimulant, you may ask you students to read the text, and then invite them to retell that text)

As for speaking assessment, the most obvious problem faced by the teacher is in the scoring. The teachers will get difficulty in maintaining the score reliability, because they are scoring the students' performance while the students are conveying their speech. The following scale may help them to provide test reliability.

Rating Sheet

Name:

No:

Score:

Pronunciation

- 5 Pronunciation is like that of native speakers of English
- 4 Always intelligible, though some foreign accents are found
- 3 Necessitate concentrated listening and occasionally lead to misunderstanding
- 2. Very hard to understand because of pronunciation problems
- 1 Pronunciation problems so severe as to make the speech unintelligible

Grammar

- 5 Makes few (if any) occasionally errors on grammar and word order
- 4 Occasionally makes grammatical errors
- 3 Makes frequent grammatical errors
- 2 Grammar makes comprehension difficult
- 1 Grammar errors make the speech unintelligible

Vocabulary

- 5
- 4
- Etc

Another type of speaking assessment can be in the form of an interview which has some variations, for example: Sentence repetition, Reading passage, Sentence conversion, Responding stimuli, etc. The rating basis should be prepared in advanced before the test conducted.

Although paper and pencil test of speaking can be used to check the ability to do technical knowledge on pronunciation such as rhyme of words, putting notation on words stress, the validity of this test is often questioned.

3. Assessing Reading comprehension

In general, the assessment of reading comprehension is used to measure the students' ability to decode written texts.

- a. The basic Competencies of reading comprehension taken from the curriculum (Content Standard) of BSNP cover two abilities:

- (1) Students can understand and respond written short functional texts.
- (2) Students can understand and respond written monolog of long functional texts.

The texts that should be selected by the teacher are the written texts of short functional texts, such as announcement, invitation, advertisement, and the monolog of long functional text like description, recount, narrative, hortatory, discussion, etc.

- b. Principles of Reading Comprehension Assessment

Like the assessments of other language skills, Brown (2003) also proposes micro and macro skills for assessing reading. Other aspects to be measured are proposed by Harris (1996) including the following items:

- 1) Language and graphic symbols

- (a) Understanding vocabularies and their meanings.
- (b) Understanding the grammatical patterns.
- (c) Understanding the graphic symbols (punctuation, capitalization, italicization, etc.).

- 2) Ideas

- (a) Identifying the writer's purpose and central idea.
- (b) Understanding the subordinate ideas which support the main ideas.
- (c) Drawing conclusion and inferences.

- 3) Tone and Style

- (a) Understanding the author's attitude toward the subject and understanding the tone of writing.
- (b) Identifying the methods and stylistic devices by which the author conveys his ideas.

In designing the assessment, the teacher should make adjustment in formulating the questions or tasks for the students. If the competencies to be achieved by the students concern with short functional texts and monolog of long functional texts, the area to be measured can be on vocabularies, grammar interpretation, punctuation interpretation, purpose of the author or social function of the text, organization of ideas or generic structure, and so forth. Related to the type of assessment, written test in the form of objective items such like multiple choice, matching, true/false, supply type item will be the most objective one. The reasons are that objective type items for reading comprehension assessment provide greater test validity and reliability than other forms, such like essay questions, or making summary.

The following items are the examples of reading test in the area of short functional text.

Example 1: Supply type

Lowest Rates Out Of State (Unassisted Calls)

	8 AM-5 PM Mon.thru Fri		5 PM-11 PM Sun.thru Fri 8 AM – 11 PM Holidays		11 PM– 8 AM Every Night 8 AM – 11 PM Sat. 8 AM – 5 PM Sun	
	One- Minute Rate	Each Additional Minute	One- Minute Rate	Each Additional Minute	One-Minute Rate	Each Additional Minute
Anchorage	.80	.62	.56	.44	.36	.28
Denver	.50	.34	.33	.23	.20	.14
Washington, D.C	.54	.38	.36	.25	.22	.16
Atlanta	.52	.36	.34	.24	.21	.15
Honolulu	.71	.53	.50	.38	.32	.24
New Orleans	.52	.36	.34	.24	.21	.15
Baltimore	.5	.38	.36	.25	.22	.16
Detroit	.54	.38	.36	.25	.22	.16
Las Vegas	.46	.32	.30	.21	.19	.13
New York City	.54	.38	.36	.25	.22	.16

1. When is the least expensive time of day to make a long distance telephone call?
2. What is the difference in the rate between a call placed to New York City on Monday morning at 10 a.m. and a call placed at 7:30 a.m.?
3. How much would a three minute call to Anchorage, Alaska be if you placed the call at 4 p.m. on a Friday afternoon?

4. If you placed the call at the same time on Christmas, how much would it be?
5. On Sunday at the same time, how much would it be?

Another example below is the example of short functional text.

Read the following Housing Ads and answer the questions.

- | | |
|--|--|
| <p>1. \$200 mo. Lg. kit
Adults, no pets
nr. downtown</p> | <p>2. Studio \$125.
New cpt. Yd.
Kids OK</p> |
| <p>3. \$150. 1 BR
Nr. Trans. Htd
No pets</p> | <p>4. \$195. 2 BR
Utils. Furn.
Pvt. Pking. Kids OK</p> |
| <p>5. \$250 sm
House
yd. cpt. Drps
no pets</p> | <p>6. Beach apt. 1 BR
Pvt. Yd
6 mo lease</p> |

1. Which apartments will you look at if you have children?
2. Which apartments will you look at if you have a dog?
3. Which apartment will you look at if you like to cook?
4. Which apartment will you look at if you want to live near the ocean?
5. Which apartment will you look at if you don't have a car?
6. Which apartment will you look at if you want to spend less than \$200 a month on rent and you have no furniture?

The example of long functional text can be seen in another part of this book

4. Assessing Writing

The significance of writing assessment is to measure the students' ability to express their ideas and thought through written texts

a. Competency

The basic competencies that must be achieved by the students are as follows:

- (1) Students can express meaning through written short functional texts.

(2) Students can express meaning through written monolog of long functional texts.

As in speaking, the teacher should provide stimuli in order that the students can communicate their ideas through short functional and monolog of long functional text.

b. The principle of assessing writing

As in other assessment of language skills, Brown proposes micro and macro- skills for writing assessment. Harris (1996) proposes the components of writing ability as follows:

- 1) Content : the substance of the writing, the ideas expressed.
- 2) Form : the organization of the contents.
- 3) Grammar : the employment of the syntactical patterns.
- 4) Style : the choice of structure and lexical items to give a particular flavor for the writing
- 5) Mechanics : the use of the graphic convention.

c. Is objective test type of writing acceptable?

Objective test type can be applied in testing writing. It usually measures the students' ability to recognize formal grammatical uses, style, materials organization, and mechanic. Although it guarantees that the result is reliable but it is generally believed that it is not valid. Although a composition test is commonly valid, the scoring is not so reliable.

To improve reliability of a composition test, the following steps can be taken:

- 1) Arranging several samples of students' compositions.
- 2) Setting writing task that are within the reach of all students.
- 3) Making writing tasks clear and specific, providing full directions.
- 4) Allowing no alternatives.

The most critical problem in composition test is scoring. The following suggestions may be helpful:

- 1) Decide the components to be scored, use rating scale or rubric score.
- 2) If possible, treat the papers anonymously during scoring as it will minimize the nature of the scorers' subjectivities.
- 3) Before marking, scan the papers to decide upon standards (high, high-medium, low medium, low)

- 4) Invite two or more scorers

5.4. The Assessment of the Process and Outcome of Learning English

5.4.1. The Assessment of the Process of Learning English

The assessment of the process of learning English is given in each meeting. What the teacher has to assess is students' participation, for example, whether or not they are absent, they ask for permission to go out or to do another assignment, or they are present, but they do not involve themselves in the process of learning. The students' active participation and creativity in solving the problems in the process of learning is assessed, for example, whether or not they have pretension to ask, they answer if they are given some questions, or they have some idea in solving them. The assessment on the process of learning contributes to the final score of gaining the mastery level of basic competence and some indicators. This assessment can be performed through observation by focusing on the students' participation in the process of learning. It can also be given by authentic proofs of the learning process, such as some notes, conclusion, symbol, etc. or by authentic proofs of the process of doing exercises, such as game, structured and unstructured assignments, etc.

5.4.2. The Assessment of the Outcome of Learning English

In the assessment of the outcome of learning English, the English teachers have to know whether or not the students have had competence through the process of learning English. The competence is categorized into three domains, viz. cognitive, affective, and psychomotor domains. The cognitive and psychomotor domain assessment is given through daily test, mid-semester test, semester test, and final test. Daily test can be given minimally twice in one semester. The assessment must be based on the general objective containing basic competence and specific objectives containing some indicators and the instruments used in this assessment must be oral and written test, and other instruments, such as portfolio, project, etc. The final score is based on the percentage of the assessment given through the daily, mid-semester, semester, and final test, and based on the one using other instruments. Ideally, affective domain assessment should occur in every lesson, providing the teacher with formative evaluation data to use for the evaluation (grading) process (Schimer, 2000). The affective domain assessment can be given by asking the students yes/no questions to answer in a written form, choosing whether the statements

given are true or not true, etc. The competence categorized in the affective domain is not stated in the curriculum, so it is the teacher who has to state it. What are included in it are receiving, responding valuing, organization, and characterization (Bloom, 1981: 305). The verbs the English teacher can use in stating the affective objectives are as follows:

RECEIVING	RESPONDING	VALUING	ORGANIZING	CHARACTERIZING
Differentiate	comply (with)	increase measured proficiency in	Discuss	Revise
Separate	Follow	increase numbers of	theorize (on)	Change
Set apart	command	Relinquish	Abstract	Complete
Share	approve	Specify	Compare	require to be rated high by peers in
Accumulate	volunteer	Assist	Balance	require to be rated high by superiors in
Select	discuss	Subsidize	Organize	require to be rated high by subordinates in
Combine	practice	Help	Define	Avoid
Accept	Play	Support	formulate	Manage
Respond to	applaud	Deny		Resolve
listen (for)	acclaim	Protest		Resist
Control	spend leisure time in	Debate		
	augment	Argue		

The assessment on the process and outcome of learning English provides some interpretation, i.e. whether or not the process and outcome of learning is good. Whether they are good or not, it depends on the average scores the students have.

5.5. Determining English Mastery Level

After giving the assessment of the process and outcome of learning English, the English teachers can determine the students' mastery level. It is the school that has to determine it by considering the following aspects:

- 1) Students' intake
- 2) The complexity of indicators
- 3) Supporting factors (teacher, instruments, etc.)

The criterion used for determining the mastery level of each basic competence is 0% - 100% and the ideal one is 75%. In this case, students can gain the English mastery level if they have the

same score as the criterion of mastery level or more. If the mastery level of English is 70, for example, the qualitative score can be made as follows:

0 - 69 = D

70 - 79 = C

80 - 89 = B

90 - 100 = A

5.6. The Importance of Assessment

After the mastery level of the students is determined, the English teachers can select which students have reached the mastery level of English and which ones have not. Those who have not gained the level are given remedial teaching and those who have gained it are given enrichment teaching.

Remedial teaching is a special form of teaching given to students having some difficulties in some aspects of studying, such as the material they do not master yet, the misinterpretation of the concept, etc. This teaching is specific in terms of the students whom the teacher will help, material, method, and the media of teaching. The material, method, or media can be various for each student. The main activity in remedial teaching is revising the mistakes the students have on the lessons they study. Consequently, it is unnecessary for the teachers to explain the materials or ask them to make a discussion. It is also unnecessary to repeat teaching all the materials which have been given. The teaching should focus on the basic competence and the materials they do not master well. What they can do is giving explanation as necessarily as possible, giving and answering questions, giving exercises, giving tasks, and evaluation. The format of remedial program according to Majid (2009: 239) is as follows:

REMEDY PROGRAM

Subject :
Basic Competence :
Indicator Number :
Material :
Class :
Period :
Date of Daily Test :
Remedy :

Number	Students' Name	Score Before Remedy	Remedy Date	Score After Remedy	Remedy Form	Note

Enrichment teaching is a special teaching given to the students learning the material very quickly. Students who learn materials very quickly are typically able to master the materials quickly too. If English teachers have such students, what they have to do is doing such a way that can improve their learning, or at least, the results of their learning can be continuously constant in the future. Therefore, it is necessary for them to give an enrichment teaching. Through the enrichment teaching, the students can have some opportunities to widen and deepen their knowledge and skills in the field they learn. Some of what the teachers can do in the teaching is asking the students to do the following things:

- (1) Reading other topics or sub-topics which can widen or deepen the ones they are learning
- (2) Doing some exercises
- (3) Guiding their friends who have not gained the mastery level

The format of remedial program according to Majid (2009: 242) is as follows:

ENRICHMENT PROGRAM

Lesson :
Basic Computer :
Indicator Number :
Material :
Class :
Period :
Date of Daily Test :
Enrichment :

Number	Students' Name	Score	Enrichment Date	Enrichment Form	Note

The assessment of the process and outcome of learning English can be used for improving the quality of the English teaching program. What the English teacher can improve are curriculum, objectives, materials, method, media, and tests. English teachers have to know which is worth improving by:

- (1) Analyzing the English curriculum he or she has implemented.

It is to find out whether or not curriculum has been developed based on the principles of curriculum development, such as relevance, effective, efficient, continuity, flexibility, and goal oriented (Idi, 2007).

- (2) Analyzing the objectives of teaching English including basic competence and some indicators. Analyzing these aspects means knowing whether or not the objectives containing basic competence are congruent with the goal stated in the curriculum (Montague, 1987), some of the objectives containing some indicators must be deleted, and some more ones are worth stating.

- (3) Analyzing the English materials he or she has used.

Analyzing them is aimed at knowing whether or not they are relevant with the objectives containing basic competence and some indicators, arranged systematically, and developed based on the approach recommended in a syllabus, etc.

- (4). Analyzing the methods he or she has used.

Analyzing them is aimed at knowing whether or not they are relevant with the objectives containing some indicators, the ones the teacher has used are various, etc.

- (5). Analyzing the media he or she has used.

Analyzing them is aimed at knowing whether or not they are relevant with the objectives containing some indicators, the ones the teacher has used are various, etc.

- (6). Analyzing the tests he or she has administered.

Analyzing them is aimed at knowing whether or not they are relevant with the objectives containing some indicators, they are valid, they are reliable, etc.

What the teacher has to do in improving them are as follows:

- (1) Revising the curriculum or developing it further by using a certain step.
- (2) Revising the syllabus in terms of the objectives containing basic competence and some indicators by using a certain step.
- (3) Developing or modifying the materials by using a certain step.
- (4) Evaluating the available methods of teaching by using a certain step.
- (5) Evaluating the available media of teaching by using a certain step.
- (6) Making or modifying the tests by using a certain step.

To develop and improve their professionalism and expertise as teachers, they can conduct research, especially classroom action research (CAR) which can be conducted by identifying students' problems relating to the teaching and learning. What constitutes problems for CAR might be things most students have experienced, for example, not being active, uncreative, uncommunicative, unable to pronounce English words or sentences correctly, incapable of writing grammatically correct English sentences and using punctuation, incompetent in spelling English words correctly and writing or speaking using appropriate diction, unable to recognize sentence patterns, and having low grade, etc. The problems are, of course, induced by some factors such as the curriculum, materials, methods, techniques, media, test, etc.

Exercises A

1. What do you think of the following instructions?

- a. Find the sentences containing present participial phrases.
- b. Choose the correct sentences by crossing A, B, C, or D!
- c. Create a recount text.

2. What do you think of the following test?

a. Reading test

Read the following text aloud.

Ali : How are you?
Ani : I am fine
Ali : Do you know where John is
going now?
Ani : He is going to the bookstore.

b. Grammar test

Choose the most appropriate alternatives provided by crossing A, B, C, or D.

Would you please ... at my office.

- A. look after
- B. look in
- C. look for
- D. look up

c. Listening test

Choose the following words which correspond to the spoken word by circling the letter corresponding to the correct word.

- A. code
- B. caught
- C. coat
- D. cord

d. Writing test

Answer the following questions.

- 1). What do you have a pain in?
- 2). Whom are you afraid of?

e. Speaking test

Listen to the following sentences, and then repeat them.

- 1). Are you in a hurry to go home?
- 2). What date is it today?

f. Vocabulary test

Choose the most appropriate alternatives provided by crossing A, B, C, or D.

The man under the tree is not my friend.

- A. sitting
- B. sit
- C. sits
- D. to sit

3. What do you think of the following achievement test of speaking?

Choose one of the following topics to produce a text.

- a. How to make a dress
- b. How to improve our English
- c. What do I have experienced in

4. What do you think of the following assessment instruments?

Answer the following questions by circling yes/no.

- a. Do you wish you had more time to devote to reading (yes/no)?
- b. Is it unusual for you to spend a whole afternoon or evening reading
- c. Do you have a collection of your own books, not counting school textbooks?
- d. Have you ever thought about what is the meaning of “beauty” in mathematics?

5. Make an assessment instrument which measures the following learning outcomes.

- a. Given four pictures, students are able to discriminate phoneme correctly.
- b. Listening to the words, students are able to pronounce them correctly.
- c. Reading a descriptive text, students are able to translate it into Indonesian correctly.
- d. Reading some sentences that constitute the first part of the descriptive text organization, students are able to proceed to create a descriptive text in a written form in a correct grammar, diction, punctuation, and text organization.
- e. Read a descriptive text, students are able to read it seriously.

- f. Asked to discuss the content of a descriptive text, students are able to make a discussion until it has finished.
6. If there are some of your students don't achieve their mastery levels of English in terms of not mastering one of the types of text, viz. "explanation", make an evaluation you will give to them in your remedial teaching.

Exercises B

- A. Answer all questions below.
1. Assessing Listening Skill
 - a. In assessing listening, the contents should cover auditory discrimination and auditory comprehension. Differentiate them briefly, give two examples of items each.
 - b. Describe briefly the strengths and weaknesses of the use of language laboratory for listening test.
 2. Assessing Oral Production/speaking Skill
 - a. The most obvious problem in assessing speaking is in maintaining the validity and reliability of the test score. Discuss briefly the way you provide the validity and reliability of the speaking test.
 - b. Observe the following Job Advertisement.

CLERICAL

FORD MOTOR CREDIT CO.

Desires an individual with a min. 2 yrs.

Finance

company exp. for a clerical position.

Excellent benefits. Contact Jim Cirks.

291.665

An equal Opportunity Employer M/F

Based on the ad above, build a conversation of Job Interview between the interviewer and the applicant deal with: the applicant's residence, education, experience, previous job, reason why leaving that job, salary, and future plans.

3. Testing Reading Skill

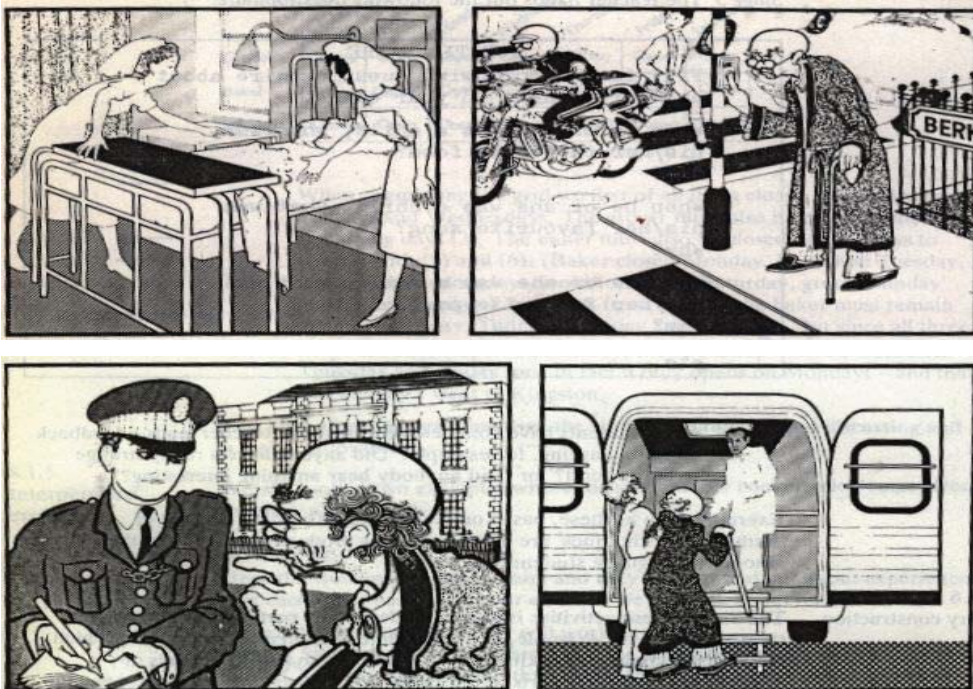
I have a pet. It is a dog, and I call it Brownie. Brownie is a Chinese breed.

It is small, fluffy, and cute. It has got thick brown fur. When I cuddle it, the fur feels soft. Brownie does not like bones. Every day it eats soft food like steamed rice, fish or bread. Every morning I give her milk and bread. When I am at school, Brownie plays with my cat. They get along well, and never fight maybe because Brownies does not bark a lot. It treats the other animals in our house gently, and it never eats shoes. Brownie is really a sweet and friendly animal.

- Based on the text above, make 3 examples of multiple choice test of reading comprehension.
- Discuss briefly the differences between bottom-up and top-down approaches in designing reading test. Which one is suitable for elementary level?

4. Testing Writing Skill

Observe the sequence of the following pictures.



- Provide a direction for writing test that ask your students to write a recount text based on the picture above.
- What aspects of writing do you score?
- Discuss the way you score the student's paper.

References

- Agustien, H.I.R. (2006). *Text-based Curriculum and Genre Approach*. A plenary paper presented at UPI National Seminar, 27 February 2006.
- Alkin, Marvin C. (1985). *A Guide for Evaluation Decision Makers*. London: SAGE Publications, Inc.
- Bachman, Lyle F. and Adrian S. Palmer. (1996). *Language Testing in Practice: Designing and Developing Useful Language Tests*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Balaban, Nancy. (1995). *Seeing the Child, Knowing the Person*. In Ayers, W. "To Become a Teacher," Teachers College Press.
- Barkley, Cross and Major, (2005). *Collaborative Learning Techniques*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Bhatia, V. K. (1993). *Analyzing Genre: Language Use in Professional Setting*. London: Longman.
- Bloom, Benjamin S., Madaus G. F., and Hastings, J. Thomas. (1981). *Evaluation to Improve Learning*. USA: McGraw-Hill, Inc.
- Butt, D., Fahey, R., Feez, S., Spinks, S., and Yallop, C. (2001). *Using Functional Grammar: An Explorer's Guide*. 2nd ed. Sydney: NCELTR.
- Bruner, J. (1983). *Child's Talk: Learning to Use Language*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Brown, H. Douglas. (2004). *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*. London: Longman.
- Brown, H. Douglas. (1994). *Teaching by Principles: An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall Regents.
- Bunyi, Brace W. (1995). "Course Design" in *Teach Your Best: A Handbook for University Lecturers*. Matiru, Mwangi, and Schelete (eds).
- Byram, M. (2004). *Genre and genre-based teaching*. The Routledge Encyclopedia of Language Teaching and Learning (pp. 234-237). London: Routledge.
- Celce-Murcia, M., Z. Dornyei, S. Thurrell. (1995). *Communicative Competence: A Pedagogically Motivated Model with Content Specifications*. In *Issues in Applied Linguistics*, 6/2: 5-35.
- Cunningsworth, Alan. (1995). *Choosing Your Coursebook*. Oxford: The Bath Press.

- Depdiknas. (2005). *Peraturan Pemerintah Republik Indonesia Nomor 19 Tahun 2005 tentang Standar Nasional Pendidikan*. Jakarta: Depdiknas Republik Indonesia.
- Depdiknas. (2008). *Panduan Penyusunan Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan Jenjang Pendidikan Dasar dan Menengah*. Jakarta: Depdiknas.
- Fees, Susan and Helen Joyce. (2002). *Text-based Syllabus Design*. Sydne: McQuarie University/AMES.
- Gronlund, Norman E. (1993). *How to Make Achievement Tests and assessments*. Fifth Edition. USA: Allyn and Bacon.
- Halliday, M.A.K., dan R. Hasan (1985). *Language Context and Text: Aspects of Language in a Social –Semiotic Perspective*. Victoria: Deakin University Press.
- Hammond, et al. (1992). *English for Special Purposes: A handbook for Teachers of Adult Literacy*. Sydney: NCELTR.
- Heaton, J. B. (1975). *Writing English Language Tests: A Practical Guide for Teachers of English as a Second or Foreign Language*. London: Longman Group Limited.
- Hein, George E. (1999). “*Constructivist Learning Theory: The Museum and the Needs of People*”. Paper presented at CECA (International Committee of Museum Educators) Conference at Lesley College Massachusetts USA (15-22 October 1999).
- Hutchinson, Tom and Waters, Alan. (1994). *English for Specific Purposes: A learning-centred approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hyland, K. (2002). *Genre in primary classrooms: The New South Wales (NSW) K-6 syllabus*. In C. N. Candlin & D. R. Hall (Eds.), *Teaching and researching* (pp. 96-103). Harlow, Essex, UK: Longman.
- Hyon, S. (1996). *Genre in three traditions: Implications for ESL*. TESOL Quarterly, 30/4: 693-717.
- Idi, Abdullah. (2007). *Pengembangan Kurikulum: Teori dan Praktek*. Yogyakarta: Ar-Ruzz Media.
- Kay, H & T. Dudley-Evans. (1998). *Genre: What Teachers Think*. *ELT Journal* 52(4): 308-14.
- Majid, Abdul. (2009). *Perencanaan Pembelajaran*. Bandung: PT Remaja Rosdakarya.
- Mel Silberman. (1999). *Active learning: Strategies to Teach Any Subject*. Allyn and Bacon: Needham Heights, Massachusetts.

- Montague, Earl J. (1987). *Fundamentals of Secondary Classroom Instruction*. Columbus, Ohio: Merrill Publishing Company.
- Morrison, George. (1993). *Contemporary Curriculum K-8*. USA: A Division of Simon and Schuster.
- Mullyasa, E. (2007). *Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan*. Bandung: Remaja Rosdakarya.
- Muslich, Mansur. (2008). *KTSP (Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan) : Dasar Pemahaman dan Pengembangan*. Jakarta: PT Bumi Aksara.
- Nunan, David. (1997). *Syllabus Design*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Paltridge, B. (1996). *Genre, Text Type, and the Language Learning Classroom*. *ELT Journal*, 50/3: 237-243.
- Piaget, J. (1973). *Logic and Psychology (translation, W. Mays)*. NY: Basic Books.
- Richards, Jack C. (1997). *The Language Teaching Matrix*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J., Platt, J., and weber, H. (1985). *Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics*. Harlow: Longman Group Limited.
- Schimer, Suzan. (2000). *Assessment Strategies for Elementary Physical Education*. USA: Human Kinetics.
- Swales, J. M. (1990). *Genre Analysis: English in Academic and Research Settings*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Tomlinson, Brian. (1998). *Materials Development in Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Vygotsky, L. (1978). *Mind in Society*. Cambridge MA: Harvard University Press.
- Wells, B. (1987). *Apprenticeship in Literacy*. In *Interchange* 18,1/2: 109-123.
- Winecoff, Larry. (1989). *Curriculum Development and Instructional Planning*. Jakarta: P2LPTK.

CHAPTER 1

INTERPERSONAL TEXT

1.1. Introduction

Halliday (1985) asserts that language as a social phenomenon has different functions such as textual, ideational, and interpersonal. The interpersonal function of language involves communication strategies by which people maintain and/or establish social relationships, or people use language to help them establish social order and maintain good relations with other people (Finocchiaro, 1974). As for maintaining a relation, people often use language only as a phatic manner that is only for the purpose of keeping the conversation flow rather than for saying anything relevant. For example, in a party, people keep on chattering in order to appear to have good time, though they talk about inconsequential matters (Nida, 2001).

Since interpersonal exchange is primarily conducted to maintain good social relationship, it commonly involves politeness and range of formality determined by the relative power and social distance between the speaker and hearer. The more distance between the speaker and hearer, the more formal and polite the expression will be. If a maid does something wrong to the Queen, breaking the glass that is being used by the Queen for example, she will not say “*Ups, sorry*” because it is not polite, but rather will use a very polite apology such as “*please forgive me, your majesty*”, or “*I’m so sorry, your honor*”.

Indeed, high pragmatic competence is crucial in interpersonal exchanges as it is claimed that pragmatic failure has more serious consequences than do grammatical errors as people tend to treat pragmatic errors as offensive (Thomas, 1983:97). Furthermore, language learners interacting with speakers of a target language have to be pragmatically appropriate, otherwise they run the risk of appearing uncooperative at the least, or more seriously, rude or insulting (Bardovi-Harlig *et al.*, 1991:4). The concept of pragmatic competence is largely drawn from the third question of the language paradigm proposed

by Hymes (1972:278) in which language use must be appropriate to social contexts: it is “the rules of use without which the rules of grammar will be useless”.

As a strategy of verbal communication, interpersonal communication commonly involves the application of some types of speech act. Apologizing, as discussed above, is conveyed by the speaker because she intends to compensate the threats on the hearer’s face as the speaker has done something wrong to the hearer. In this respect, the speaker makes an apology because she intends to repair the relation with the hearer and avoid damaging their social relationship.

The model of communicative competence proposed Celce-Murcia, Dornyei and Thurnell (1995) has been adopted by Indonesian national curriculum as the foundation for the learning and teaching English to junior and senior high school students, in which their abilities to conduct interpersonal and transactional communication have to be developed. As for interpersonal function, the English teaching should develop their abilities to use language for maintaining and/or establishing good social relations.


This chapter provides some examples of interpersonal functions of English language—not all language functions mentioned in the curriculum—such as introducing, apologizing, thanking, complimenting, congratulating, wishing good luck, showing sympathy, care/concern, condolence, anger, annoyance, happiness, disappointment, and boredom.

1.2. Interpersonal Text

1.2.1. Introducing

Introducing, either self-introduction or introducing someone to someone else, is realized when people meet for the first time or they do not know each other previously. People need to know each other because of some reasons, for examples for initiating a conversation, avoiding a bad image, facilitating business, etc. If people have known each other, it will be easier for them to build further conversation.

The expressions to introduce oneself and others may include ranges of formality as shown by the following scale.

Introducing oneself	Formal	Introducing people to other(s)
<i>Allow me to introduce myself. My name is</i>		<i>I would like you to meet X (title+name)</i>
<i>I would like to introduce myself, I'm...</i>		<i>I'd like to introduce you to X</i>
<i>Let me introduce myself. I'm ...</i>		<i>X please meet Y</i>
<i>Excuse me my name's...</i>		
<i>How do you do? My name is</i>		<i>X this is Y, Y this is X</i>
<i>Hello! My name is ...</i>		
<i>I'm...</i>	Less formal	

The most common non-verbal cues involved in an introduction are shaking hands, making an eye contact, and smiling. In a wider communication context, when introducing oneself, apart from one's name, one could consider other aspects, such as his/her job, business, and position, a brief description of his/her job or business. Personal information is often asked in the introduction, but cultural differences should be taken into account. Avoiding asking the following personal questions is much safer when you meet people for the first time.

1. Where do you live? Or what's your address?
2. What's your zip code?
3. What's your telephone number/area code?
4. Where were you born?/what's your place of birth?
5. What's your date of birth?
6. When were you born?
7. How old are you?/what's your age?
8. Are you married or single?
9. How many children do you have?
10. How much money do you earn?

❖ Conversation Model

(Arman is picking up Andi and Bobby, his new colleagues, at the airport. They have never met before)

Andi : Excuse me. Are you Arman?
Arman : Yes, I'm
Andi : I'm Andi and this is Bobby.
Arman : How are you? Nice to meet you.
Bobby : Nice to meet you, too.
Arman : Did you have a good journey?
Andi : Yes, it was fine, thanks.
Arman : Let me help you to bring your suitcase.
Andi : That's very kind of you.
Arman : Not at all. You must be tired. I'll take you to the Hotel first. Tonight we have a meeting at 8 p.m., and tomorrow we start working.
Andi : OK. Thanks, Arman. We'll be on time

From the conversation, it can be learnt that the speakers used less formal expressions although they did not know each other before, for example Andi introduced his friend using less formal expression: *this is Bobby* and himself: *I'm Andi*. The way they addressed each other with their first name also shows informality. This could be that they were at the same age.

❖ Exercise

Perform role plays based on the following social situations:

- (1) You are attending a meeting of other company and you have to introduce your new boss to the boss of that company.
- (2) Your sister has just come to your boarding house and you have to introduce her to your roommate.
- (3) You are attending an international seminar. You meet a participant from other country and you introduce yourself to him/her.

1.2.2. Apologizing

Apology is an expression of remorse or guilt over having said or done something that is acknowledged to be hurtful or damaging, and a request for forgiveness. English people often apologize, but sometimes they say sorry when they are not apologizing, and when they apologize they do not say sorry. They may also offer an apology to start an argument or apologize without saying so. When apologizing, a speaker admits responsibility. Sorry is used in apologies when the speaker realizes that he or she has done something wrong.

Apologizing can be done in pre-event and post-event. In the pre-event, the speaker makes an apology as he/she believes that he/she will cause on the hearer some troubles, offence, and inconvenience, whilst in the post-event the speaker “compensates” the damage resulting from his/her past action or the speaker admits that he/she has made some offence which put the hearers in bad situation.

The following are some common strategies to make an apology.

1. Begging forgiveness, which is the easiest and very common strategy, e.g.

Excuse me

Please forgive me

2. Admitting impingement:

I'm sure you must be very busy this morning, but ...

I know this is not good time to ask you, but...

I hope this will not bother you too much, but...

3. Indicating reluctant:

I don't want to interrupt/bother you, but...

I won't normally ask you about this, but...

I hate to interrupt/bother you, but...

4. Admitting a fault: *I shouldn't have done what I did yesterday.*

5. Showing regret: *I'm sorry.*

6. Acknowledgment of responsibility: *It's my fault.*

7. An offer of repair: *Ok, I will pay for your damage.*

8. A promise of forbearance: *I'll never do that again.*

In terms of formality, apologies can be informal:

For example:

I'm really sorry about this.

Look, I know I was wrong. It's my fault I can't apologise enough for forgetting the tickets.

or formal:

For example:

We regret to announce the late departure of the London train.

Miss Otis regrets that she is unable to lunch today.

The noun *apology* or the verb *apologies* (or *apologize*) is often used in formal apologies. Some adjectives are often used for stressing how apologetic the speaker is.

For example:

Mr. Smith sends his deepest apologies for not attending the meeting.

We apologize for the delay in answering your call.

Please accept our most sincere apologies for this error.

With apologies speakers can say directly that they did not intend to upset someone.

I didn't mean to scare you. I'm sorry. (Informal.)

We deeply regret any inconvenience, as this was not our intention. (Formal)

Sometimes a question is used to show that the fault was unintentional.

Oh, am I late? I'm sorry.

Is this your seat? Oh, I do apologize.

Did I tread on your foot? I'm sorry. Are you all right?

An exclamation can be used for the same purpose.

Oops! I did it again.

Oh dear! I'm so sorry. Did I hurt you?

Oh no! I do apologize. Let me help you pick it up.

Intensifiers can be used so as to sound sorrier.

I'm so sorry

I'm so very sorry.

I'm really very sorry.

Excuse me vs. I'm sorry

Sorry is used after something has happened (post-event). **Excuse me** is used if an action might upset someone else (pre-event). (In US English **excuse me** is also used to say **sorry**.) **Please excuse ...** is a more formal way of apologizing for something that is happening at this moment. The informal construction is **(I'm) sorry about ...**

For example:

Please excuse the mess in the office.

I'm sorry about the noise - my brother is at home.

The following are some examples of expressions for forgiving and rejecting an apology:

Forgiving

That's fine/ That's OK

No problem

Forget it

Don't worry about it

There's no need to apologize

Rejecting

Are you sorry?

I don't believe you are sorry

Don't say you are sorry

That's what I have heard many times.

❖ Conversation Model

(There was a meeting in Arman's office. Arman should lead the meeting because the project was his responsibility, but he was late. All participants had come including his boss, the partners from other companies, and the staffs)

The Boss : Arman, you know what time it is?
Arman : Yes, sir. I know I'm late
The Boss : We've been waiting for you for more than one hour.
Arman : **Forgive me sir.** The street was so busy.
The Boss : Jakarta's streets are always busy. Let's start the meeting
Arman : OK. Ladies and gentlemen. **I'm so sorry** for my coming late.
Let's focus on our marketing plan. Etc...

In the conversation above, Arman used very formal and polite apologizing expressions because of some reasons, such as (1) setting of situation (in a formal meeting), (2) social distance (with his boss and other people from other company), and (3) unacceptable excuse (the street was busy).

❖ Exercise

1. Perform conversations involving expressions of apology for the following situations:
 - a. You bumped into someone by accident in a party, and your drink has made her dress dirty.
 - b. Sneezing or coughing in front of someone.
 - c. You are late submitting your assignments to your teacher.
 - d. You are staining your friend's new book.
2. What are you going to say when you are:
 - a. missing an appointment.
 - b. taking so long to write back.
 - c. breaking your friend's camera.
 - d. spilling coffee on your aunt's carpet by accident.

1.2.3. Thanking

Thanking is realized when the speaker feels that the hearer (or someone else) has done something good, valuable, and helpful to the speaker. Thanking expressions varies in range of formality and politeness depending on the social distance of the speakers. Most languages have varieties of responses to thanks. In the past, *you're welcome* sounded very American. Nowadays it is common in Britain too. Another common response in Britain is *No problem (at all)*.

The expression of gratitude can be modified internally and externally. Internal modification generally involves *adverb+quantifier* (e.g. so much, very much). *Thanks cheers*, and the quantifier *a lot* are generally for informal usage, e.g. *thanks a lot*. Internal and external modification can also be applied simultaneously, e.g. *thank you so much, I really appreciate your help*. The following are some common strategies to express gratitude.

- (1) Thank + complimenting interlocutors or complimenting–thank (without thanking)

Thank you, that's so sweet of you

Thank you, that's lovely/very good of you

That's so nice of you.

That's very kind of you.

That's really generous.

You are so considerate

It was very nice of you to help me.

- (2) Thank + appreciation or Appreciation + thank

Thank you, I appreciate your help.

Thank you so much, you have been helpful

I really appreciate your help, thank you.

(3) Thank + reason

Thanks for your coming.

Thank you for inviting me.

Thank you for calling

(4) Conforming interlocutor's commitment +Thank (to show hesitation)

hi are you sure about this?, thanks.

Are you sure? Ok, thanks

(5) Thank + stating intent to reciprocate or Repayment – thank (without thank)

Thanks for the great dinner. I will take you out next time.

Thanks for the lunch. Next time is my treat.

I owe you one.

Next time it's my treat

(6) Thank+ refuting interlocutor's obligation

Oh thank you so much, you don't need to do that.

Responses to an expression of gratitude typically include:

You're welcome. (US)

Not at all. (formal, UK)

Don't mention it.

(It's) my pleasure.

It was nothing.

That's alright/OK.

My pleasure

No problem.

Any time.

❖ Conversation Model

(Randy arrived in Singapore at night. He needed to buy some soft-drink from a vending machine, but he did not have small change. He asked a woman he met in the airport to find out whether she might have some coins)

Randy : Excuse me, I need some coins to buy soft drink, but unfortunately I
only have notes, so could you let me have small change?

Woman : Just a minute, let me check. Oh, here it is, I have some. How much do
you need?

Randy : just two dollars.

Woman : here you are.

Randy : Thank you very much.

Woman : You're welcome.

❖ Exercise

Perform conversations involving the use of thanking expressions based on the following situations.

- (1) Your boss had given you a ride home when you were ill.
- (2) A girl of sixteen has found your missing child in a supermarket.
- (3) A friend invited you for his birthday party.
- (4) A friend opened a door for you.
- (5) A stranger on the bus gave up his seat for you.
- (6) Your close friend paid for your lunch.
- (7) Your friend lent you some money.

1.2.4. Showing Sympathy

The psychological state of sympathy is closely linked with that of empathy, though it is not quite identical. Even if empathy and sympathy are commonly used interchangeably, they semantically cover different meanings. Empathy exists when the feelings or a specific emotional state of one person leads to similar feelings in another person. Mostly, empathy means the sharing of unhappiness or suffering, but it can also mean sharing

other (positive) emotions, whilst sympathy refers to sharing concern for the well-being of others which does not necessarily involve the sharing of the same emotional state. In a broader sense, it can refer to the sharing of political or ideological sentiments. The following are expressions to offer, reject, and accept sympathy as well as to show no sympathy based on Matreyek (1983).

Offering Sympathy

That's too bad
That's a shame
What a pity!
Tough break.
Better lunch next time.
What a terrible thing to have happened.
I'm sorry to hear that.
It must be pretty rough on you.
I can imagine you feel bad.
I sympathize with you
I know how you must feel
I know what you mean.

Accepting Sympathy

Thank you
That's very kind of you.
It is a pity, isn't it?
Oh, well, such is life.
So it goes, I guess.
Better luck next time.

Showing no Sympathy

That's the way it goes.
That's life.
That's the way the cookie crumbles.
You got what you deserved.
I have no sympathy for you.

Rejecting Sympathy

Don't feel sorry for me.
You don't need to feel sorry for me.
Don't give me your sympathy.
Oh, leave me alone.
I don't want your pity.
I don't need your sympathy.

❖ Conversation Model

1. (A woman is talking with a friend in a small restaurant: quoted from Matreyek, 1983).

A: What's the matter, Doris? Have you been crying?

B: Oh, Joe and I just split up.

A: No, Really? I'm sorry to hear that.

B: He said he was tired of my always criticizing him. He said he didn't want to hear anymore.

A: I know how you must feel. I was shaken when Bob and I broke up.

B: I hate men. Why do they always do this to us?

2. (Two office workers are talking at lunch: quoted from Matreyek, 1983)

A: How did your racquetball game go this morning?

B: I lost. 21 to 9 and 21 to 14.

A: that's too bad. Better luck next time. Who did you play?

B: Malcolm. What's more, I broke a tooth while playing.

A: Let me see...That looks like it hurts. Does it?

B: Not as much as before...

❖ Exercise

1. Perform conversations involving expressions of sympathy for the following situations:
 - a. Your son did not pass one of his subjects.
 - b. Your friend's application for a scholarship was declined.
 - c. The visa application of your colleague was rejected.
 - d. Your friend gets a broken leg in an accident.
 - e. Your uncle has been robbed. He lost his laptops and digital camera.
2. Write the reasons why people use the expressions below.
 - a. too bad
 - b. I know the feeling
 - c. Bless him/her/them
 - d. You can't win them all/(you) win some, (you) lose some

1.2.5. Complimenting and Responding Compliment

Austin (1962) classified compliment under the types of behabitives act that is the one which shows speaker's attitudes to addressee's behavior, appearance, conduct, qualities and good fortunes. In the classification of speech act by Searle (1969), compliment may fall under the category of expressive or even assertive since the speakers express their belief in a proposition. For example, "your fried chicken's really ..really.. delicious!"

Compliment is a relatively easy act to perform. It commonly provides credit to the addressees for their possession, qualities, characteristic, skills, wealth, etc. In interpersonal communication, compliment is commonly intended to make the addressees 'feel good' or it is used as 'social lubricant'. Compliments commonly involve positive evaluative adjectives such as *lovely, great, wonderful, nice, fantastic, excellent*, and the like.

The following are some examples of compliments:

(1) Compliments on possessions.

That's lovely shoes!

Wow terrific car!

Your house's a heaven!

You really have good taste in clothes!

(2) Compliments on appearance

I love your hair style!

How gorgeous you look tonight!

(3) Compliments on skills

I've never seen someone playing a guitar so skillful like you!

That's beautiful voice! You're singing like Whitney Houston!

The most common and polite response to compliment is to agree with the complimenter and accept the compliment. The following are some strategies for accepting compliments classified by Pomerantz (1978).

- Appreciation (“Thanks,” “Thank you”)
- Comment acceptance (“Yeah, it’s my favorite too”).
- Praise upgrade (“Really brings out the blue in my eyes, doesn’t it?”)
- Comment history (“well, I bought it for the trip to Arizona”)
- Reassignment (“My brother gave it to me,” “It really knitted itself”).
- Return (“So is yours”)
- Scale down (“It’s really quite old”)
- Question (“Do you really think so?”)
- Qualification (“It’s alright, but Len’s is nicer”)

It is often that people will reject a compliment. The following are some expressions to reject a compliment:

Oh, don’t flatter me!

You’re just flattering me!

Flattery will get you nowhere!

That’s nonsense!

❖ Conversation Model

(Anne and Brita are good friends. They have not seen each other lately)

A: hi luv!

B: oh hi, how are you?

A: I’m OK

B: wow.. you look different. I really love your new hair style!

A: thanks, do you like it?

B: yeah, looks so lovely!, and...uhm...you look slimmer too.

A: aw really?... well uhm...let’s go to the student hub and grab some nibbles.

❖ Exercise

Perform conversations based on the following situations.

- (1) You meet your colleague at the parking lot. She is driving a new car today.
- (2) You are visiting your friend. He has beautiful big garden.
- (3) You and your son are playing tennis. You know that your son plays tennis quite well.
- (4) You are invited by your aunt for dinner. You have delicious meals.
- (5) You meet a friend at a wedding ceremony. Your friend is dressing up and looks very nice.

1.2.6. Congratulating

Congratulating is essentially polite as it is an agreement or approval which addresses the hearer's want to be liked or it satisfies the hearer's positive face. Like the speech act of compliment, congratulating is classified by Austin (1962) under the category of 'behabitives'. In the classification of speech by Searle (1969), it is included in the category of expressive. Behabitives refer to expressions of attitudes or reactions toward the conduct, fortunes or attitudes of others. Expressive refers to the expressions of feelings and psychological states. The following is the formulation of Searle's (1969) constitutive rules for congratulating:

Propositional Content rule: some event, act, etc. (or *E*) related to hearer (or *H*).

Preparatory rule: *E* is in *H*'s interest. Speaker (or *S*) believes that *E* is in *H*'s interest.

Sincerity rule: *S* is pleased at *E*.

Essential rule: counts as an expression of pleasure at *E*. (congratulating is performed)

Congratulating is very common in everyday communications in which speakers express pleasure and acknowledge other people's success, for example, in passing exams, getting a job, winning a competition, and others. Such occasions are mutually recognized by the speaker and hearer and the acknowledgements by the speaker of those occasions are often, but not always, expected by the hearer. Although it is quite often that congratulating is conducted insincerely or the speakers do not have true feelings about the occasions, it will not undermine their good interpersonal relationship.

It should be noted that the occasions associated with congratulation may be culture-specific which means that different cultures might have different views to an achievement or success worth congratulating. In general it addresses personal or individual achievement and socially oriented achievement. The following are some examples of congratulating expressions:

Congratulations!, that's an awesome achievement.

Congratulation for you promotion!

Congratulation for your new position! You deserve it.

I am so proud of you, congratulation!

Congratulations, I'm so happy for you.

More personal congratulation is commonly given to a close friend, boy/girl friend, and family members, for example:

Congratulation sweet heart!

Honey, that's an awesome achievement, congratulation!

This is the best news for this year. Well done honey!

Congratulation mate! You deserve every bit of it.

I'm extremely happy you finally got what you wish for. Your success is all I want.

You have worked so hard and this promotion proves me right. Congratulations buddy!

Getting a promotion or gaining achievement is not the only object worth congratulating, there are some others such having a new baby, engagement, wedding, pregnancy, etc. The most common answer to congratulation is thanking.

❖ Conversation Model

1. (George and Larry are colleagues; they are working in Edinburgh University at the International office)

G: hey, I heard from Susan your wife had a baby.

L: yeah, a little princess.

G: Let me say congratulation George!

L: thanks Larry.

2. (Alex is Vivian's good friend; they have not seen each other for long time. They are talking on the phone).

A: hi Vivian, the last time I sent you an email I forgot to ask you about your plan to study in Cambridge University.

V: well, actually this is my first year in Cambridge.

A: wow! really? That's great news! Congratulation!

V: thanks Alex.

❖ Exercise

Perform conversations based on the following situations.

- (1) Congratulate your friend who has just been promoted as a manager.
- (2) Congratulate your son who has passed his thesis examination.
- (3) Your headmaster has just received a letter of acceptance to study abroad.
- (4) The son of your colleague has just found a new job.
- (5) Your daughter passed a driving test and got a driving license.
- (6) Your boss was chosen as the most industrious man of the year.

1.2.7. Wishing Good Luck

It is believed that wishing good luck is superstitious, just like spells which may make something to become good and successful. In interpersonal exchanges however, wishing good luck is the use of words or phrases for motivating or encouraging other people who are doing some undertakings or trying to solve problems, and hence the main function of the wishing is to show care for others. Wishing good luck, of course depends on how well one knows the situation or context and occasion. The following are some examples of expressions for wishing good luck.

I hope everything will be OK

Good luck!

Have fun!

Wish you all the best!

I wish you luck!

Don't stop trying!

Wish you well

❖ Conversation Model

1. (Alex was Dr. Garner's student. Alex has just graduated last month. He met Dr. Garner to say goodbye as he was leaving for Indonesia the next day)

Alex : Good morning Dr. Garner.

Garner : Hi Alex, c'mon in. What can I do for you?

Alex : I'd like to say thank you for everything. You have been very helpful during my study here.

Garner : Well I just did my job. What is your next plan?

Alex : uhm.. I've just applied a job as a lecturer in my home country.

Garner : I know you're my best student. I wish you luck with that.

Alex : Thank you very much. Well... I am leaving for Indonesia tomorrow morning. I'd like to say goodbye for the last time.

Garner : Oh it's sad to see you leave. Goodbye Alex.

2. (Alex is Adrian's classmate. Adrian is having his thesis examination next week).

Alex : I heard from Dr. Garner you're having a thesis defense next week.

Adrian: well..yes, but I am so nervous whenever I'm thinking about it.

Alex : yeah I know how you feel. Good luck buddy, everything will be fine.

Adrian : thanks.

❖ Exercise

Perform conversations based on the following situations.

- (1) Your classmate is going to have a job interview next week.
- (2) Your colleague is applying for a scholarship.
- (3) Your house mate is finalizing his thesis writing.
- (4) Today is the first day your son goes to his new job.
- (5) Your father is joining a tennis competition today.

1.2.8. Expressing Condolence

Condolence is an expression of sympathy with someone in grief. It is commonly to express care and concern for someone whose family members, friend, etc. passed away. The following are some expressions commonly used to offer and respond to condolences.

Offering condolences

I'm sorry
I'm so sorry to hear that.
I am so sorry to hear about your loss.
Let me offer my condolence for your...
We are deeply sorry to hear about the death of
We are saddened to hear of your sudden loss.
Please accept our condolences on the loss of your loved one.

Responding to condolences

Thank you
Thank you very much for your condolence.
Thank you, I really appreciate your sympathy.
There is nothing we can do about it.

❖ Conversation Model

1. (A friend is talking with a deceased person's wife at the funeral service)
F: I am so sorry to hear about your husband. It must be pretty hard on you.
W: yes it is. He was such a good husband and father.
F: yeah I know how you must feel.
W: Thank you, I really appreciate your sympathy

2. (Someone meets Mary's mother at a supermarket by accident, she did know that Mary has just passed away)

S: how is Mary at the moment?

M: well her cancer was so bad. She had her operation, but the doctor couldn't help her.

S: Oh, I'm so sorry to hear that.

M: yeah, we have tried, but there's nothing can be done about it.

❖ Exercise

Perform conversations based on the following situations.

- (1) You are attending a friend's father funeral ceremony. When you arrive you see your friend there.
- (2) A friend of yours lost his mother. You know his mother very well. You go to visit him in his house.
- (3) The son of your friend passed away in a car accident. You go to visit him in his house.
- (4) You receive a text telling that your boss has just passed away. As you are going abroad with your family for holiday, you can't go to his funeral. Few days after the funeral you meet his wife to offer condolences.

1.2.9. Expressing Care/Concern

Care can be expressed through many ways and the ways people express care can reflect the quality of their interpersonal relation. Indeed, language is one of the best means to show care for others. The following simple expressions are generally applied to show care/concern to others.

Are you OK/all-right?

Is everything all-right?

What's the matter?

I am concerned about you, are you OK?

Take care honey!

I am really worried about you.

To sound polite, one often asks others not to be concerned or worried. This strategy is often conducted by freeing the speaker from any obligation towards the listener, e.g.

Don't worry about me/it

Forget it, it's nothing.

Don't bother

I am OK

I am all-right

Stronger expressions are commonly used when one is annoyed or she/he thinks that the speaker has intruded his or her privacy, e.g.

It's none of your business!

Mind your own business!

The opposite of showing care is expressing unconcern which often implies that the speaker expresses negative feeling such as annoyance, frustration, anger, and indifference depending on the contexts, for example:

Who cares?

So what?

Who gives a damn!

The hell with it!

❖ Conversation Model

(Amber and Marry are sisters)

A: hi Mary, are you all right?

M: I'm OK

A: why you look so down. Maybe you could share it with me

M: I told you I'm OK and it's none of your business.

A: Mary, I'm your sister, you don't trust me, do you? What happen?

M: Amber stop it!

❖ Exercise

Perform conversations based on the following situations.

- (1) You see that your son does not look so well today. Show him that you care for him.
- (2) Your mother looks pretty down this afternoon. Show her that you care for her.
- (3) Anne, your house mate looks so sad. You are wondering that something must happen to her.
- (4) Your class mate tells you that he does not like your hair style. Tell him that you don't care about it.
- (5) Your sister tells you that David called you almost five times this morning.
Actually you feel that he is such an annoying class mate and you don't care about him.

1.2.10. Expressing Anger

Expressing one's anger is showing that one is angry. When someone gets angry, he or she usually uses abusive language, although anger can be expressed politely.

The following are the examples of expressing anger or displeased and annoyance which can be categorized by the situation: informal, neutral and formal (Blundell, Higgins, and Middlemiss, 1996)

NEUTRAL	INFORMAL	FORMAL
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I'm very annoyed.. • Oh dear.../Oh No! • What a nuisance! • This really makes me cross/angry. • It annoys me. • It isn't very nice/pleasant. • I really hate him! 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Oh, hell, No! • Oh damn! • Oh no, what's next? • She makes me mad. • He really makes me see red. • What an idiot! • I can't stand it anymore. • I'm fed up with it. • That's the last straw. • Why the hell didn't he stop calling me..? • I've had just about enough of this condition. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • This is extremely irritating • I can't say I'm at all pleased ... • I'm extremely displeased/angry/unhappy. • I must say I reject to I will not pull up with • I take great exception to ...

❖ Conversation Model

(A police officer stops a student for speeding. The police car roars. The student pulls over [adopted from Matreyek, 1983])

Student : Did I do something wrong, officer? What's the matter?

Police : Well, don't you know that this is a 40-km zone and you were doing 62?

Student : Oh, I'm sorry. I didn't realize I was going so fast.

Police : Let me see your driver's license. How old are you?

Student : I... I... I'm just fifteen. And ... and I don't have driver's license.

Police : **What? Oh, no.** I'll give you the bail notice

Student : What? Oh, no.

Police : This is the notice, and come to the court.

In the conversation above, it can be seen that the officer seems to be angry because the driver is just fifteen and does not have driver's license. The policeman still can express his anger politely by asking a rhetorical question rather than using abusive language.

❖ Exercise

Build conversations of expressing anger for the following situations

- (1) You let your friend use your laptop. When she/he returns it, you find that your important file is not there.
- (2) You found your friend gossiping you with your parents.
- (3) Your classmate borrows your new digital camera. When she/he returns it you find that its lens is broken and your friend does not tell you about it.
- (4) Your brother borrows your motorcycle and he promises that he will return it very soon. You will go to your campus at 2 p.m., but your brother returns your motorcycle at 5 p.m.

1.2.11. Expressing Happiness, Disappointment and Boredom

There are certain expressions which are used to express happiness, disappointment, and boredom.

Happiness:

- I am glad to hear that.
- I am happy to hear that.
- That's great!
- Wonderful!
- Fantastic!

Disappointment:

- That's disappointing.
- That's too bad.
- That's real shame.

Boredom:

- That's boring.
- I am totally not interested.
- How boring.
- Dull.

❖ Conversation Model

(In a canteen, Harry meets his friend, Vincent who is enjoying a bowl of meatball soup)

Harry	: Hi, How's it going?
Vincent	: pretty good, thanks. How about you?
Harry	: well I am not quite happy today.
Vincent	: Why? What's the problem?
Harry	: Uhm...I get a bad score for my Math test. Because of that my father cancels buying me a laptop.
Vincent	: Oh, that's very disappointing. I think you should talk to your father.
Harry	: Yeah, I'll. I hope he'll understand.
Vincent	: That's good, Harry. Good luck! By the way, I have to meet Mr. Pandu right now.
Harry	: Mmm, Ok. I just stay here. See you.
Vincent	: See you.

❖ Exercise

Perform conversations expressing disappointment and boredom for the following situations

- (1) You receive a bad score for your Reading comprehension test. You tell your teacher that you are disappointed.
- (2) You are working in a group to summarize ten textbooks during the holidays. You tell your friend that it is very boring.
- (3) You are going to the cinema with your friends. When you arrive at the cinema you find that the tickets were sold out. You feel disappointed.

1.3. Summary

This chapter reviews several texts for interpersonal function including introducing, apologizing, thanking, complimenting, congratulating, wishing good luck, showing sympathy, care/concern, condolence, anger/annoyance, etc. **Introducing**, either self-introduction or introducing someone to someone else, is employed when people meet for the first time or they do not know each other previously. The social function of an introduction is to know other people for some reasons, for examples for initiating a conversation, avoiding a bad image, facilitating business. **Apology** is an expression of remorse or guilt over having said or done something that is acknowledged to be hurtful or damaging, and a request for forgiveness. Apologizing can be done in pre-event and post-event. **Thanking** is expressed when the speaker feels that the hearer (or someone else) has done something good, valuable, and helpful to the speaker. Thanking expressions varies in range of formality and politeness. The expression of gratitude can be modified internally and externally. **Sympathy** is closely linked to the sharing of unhappiness or suffering. **Complimenting** shows speaker's attitudes towards the addressee's behavior, appearance, conduct, qualities and good fortunes. Compliment is done by providing credit to the addressees for their possession, qualities, characteristic, skills, wealth, etc. In interpersonal communication, compliment is commonly intended to make the addressees 'feel good' or it is used as 'social lubricant'. **Congratulating** is very common in everyday communications in which speakers express pleasure and acknowledge other

people's success, for example, in passing exams, getting a job, winning a competition, and others. Such occasions are mutually recognized by the speaker and hearer and the acknowledgements by the speaker of those occasions are often, but not always, expected by the hearer. **Wishing good luck** is the use of words or phrases for motivating or encouraging other people who are doing some undertakings or trying to solve problems. Wishing good luck depends on how well one knows the situation or context and occasion. **Condolence** is an expression of sympathy with someone in grief. It is commonly to express care and concern for someone whose family members, friend, etc. passed away. **Caring** is to show concerns to other people which can be expressed through many ways. Expressing **anger** is showing that one is angry. When someone gets angry, he or she usually uses abusive language, although anger can be expressed politely.

References

- Austin, J.L. (1962). *How to do things with words*. Oxford: the Clarendon Press.
- Bardovi-Harlig, K., Hartford, B. A. S., Mahan Taylor, R., Morgan, M. J., Reynolds, D. W. (1991). Developing pragmatic awareness: closing the conversation. *ELT Journal* 45(1):415.
- Celce-Murcia, M., Dornyei, Z. and Thurrell, S. (1995). Communicative competence: A pedagogically motivated model with content specifications. *Issues in Applied Linguistics* 6: 535.
- Finocchiaro, Mary. (1974). *English as a Second Language, from Theory to Practice*. New York: Regents publishing Co.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1985). *An Introduction to Functional Grammar*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Hymes, D. (1972). On communicative competence, in J. B. Pride, & J. Holmes (Eds.). *Sociolinguistics*. Harmondsworth, England: Penguin.
- Jon Blundell; Jonathan Higgins; Nigel Middlemiss (1996) *Functions in English*. Oxford: Oxford university Press.
- Matreyek, W. (1983). *Communicating in English: Examples and models situation*. New York : Pergamon Press.

- Nida, Eugene A. (2001). *Language and Culture: Contexts in Translating*. Shanghai: Foreign Language Education Press.
- Pomerantz, Anita. 1978. Compliment Response: notes on the co-operation of multiple constraints. In Schenkein, Jim (ed.) *Studies in the Organisation of Conversational Interaction*. New York: Academic Press. 79-112.
- Searle, J. (1969). *Speech Acts: An Essay in the Philosophy of Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge university press.

CHAPTER 2

TRANSACTIONAL TEXT

2.1. Introduction

McCarty (1991:36) asserts that language serves interactional and transactional functions. The former relates the function to establish social roles and relationship with other persons. In other words, the language is used as “the lubricant of social wheel”. The latter functions getting one’s business done. This classification is much similar to that of Brown and Yule (1983:2-3), that is in interactional talks people use language for establishing social relations and expressing personal attitude, whilst in transactional ones they use language to achieve optimal and efficient transference of information. As transactional talks are message oriented, cohesive and accurate communication is highly required (Richards, 1990).

Like interpersonal speech, all transactional speeches or talks involves speech acts. For example if a teacher says to his students who have studied exhaustively “you may play outside for a half an hour”, he gives them permission to take a break.

The basic competence in the current English curriculum for the secondary school levels (SMP and SMA) requires students to be able to express and respond transactional talks or speeches in real situations. Some of the speech acts which serve transactional function included in the curriculum include ordering/commanding, requesting, promising, warning, threatening, refusing, blaming.

2.2. Transactional Texts

2.2.1. Ordering/Commanding

Ordering or commanding is an utterance which makes the hearers do something and the thing being ordered or commanded is the thing that the speaker wants to happen. In order that the utterance can be conveyed properly, the speaker must be superior to, or in authority over the hearer.

❖ Conversation Model

(A mother orders her son to do his homework)

Mother : “Larry, do you have any homework?”

Son : “Yes, mom. Mathematics”

Mother : “Ok, **stop playing that game**”

Son : “just a minute, mom.”

Mother : “**Shut down the computer and do your homework now!**”

The utterances printed in bold face above are the examples of ordering or commanding utterances. Based the linguistic forms, they are imperative sentences and from the intention of the speaker (mother) who wants her son to do such things, *to stop playing the game, shut down the computer, and do the homework*. As commanding or ordering is commonly addressed directly to the second person, it is usually in the form of direct utterance and in imperative sentence. In such case commanding utterance can be declarative sentence, such as in the following situation.

(A mother to her son who wants to go out for a play at night)

Mother : Tony, It's been 11.00 p.m. and you wear your jacket. Where will you go?

Tony : I want to go my friend's house, mom.

Mother : What for? Why? Can't you meet him tomorrow?

Tony : I just want to have a computer game with him, mom. It will not be long.
I'll be at home at twelve

Mother : What? Tomorrow's the school day. **Go back to your room!**

The commanding utterance expressed by the mother above is in the form of declarative sentence. It can be seen from the sequence of subject and predicate which are in normal order. Although it is in declarative, if it is expressed properly with accurate emphasis, it has as strong intention as in imperative sentence.

As noted previously, in commanding utterances, the social status of the speaker must be higher than that of the hearer. If the speaker is inferior to the hearer however, commanding utterances will be improper and odd. For example, the conversation between a maid and the Queen as follows.

Maid : “Don't you feel cold, your majesty?”

Queen : “Yes, Betsy”

Maid : “So, **close the windows**”.

In the conversation above, the order act is improper or impolite due to the inappropriate selection of pragmalinguistic forms, though it is alright if it is addressed to Betsy's close friend. The social status of the maid hinders her to command the Queen. Nevertheless in a specific situation, that is when giving information is much more important than appearing polite, a direct order/command can be conducted. For example in a robbery incident, a driver can command his boss by saying “Down, down.”

❖ Exercise

Make conversations involving ordering/commanding based the following situations:

- (1) Two boys of eighteen robbed the bank commanding the security guards, bank attendants, bank tellers, and IT operators.
- (2) In the swimming pool, a coach commands trainees to do maximum exercises.
- (3) In the play of “hide-and-seek”, a player commands his friends to do a fair play

2.2.2. Requesting

Request is one of the most face-threatening acts since it intrinsically threatens the hearer's face (Brown and Levinson, 1987). Speech act of request contains communicative intention in which the speaker asks the hearer to perform an action which is for the benefit of the speaker (Trosborg, 1995). As it is face-threatening act, the speaker can modify it by involving internal and external

modification devices. According to Sifianou (1999), internal modification devices refer to linguistic elements which function to mitigate or even intensify its force (e.g. could you *probably* read the draft of my thesis me?), whilst external modification devices function to justify the request (e.g. could you water the plants for me? *I'm going abroad for two weeks*).

The following are request strategies according to Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984):

Types	Example
1 Mood derivable The grammatical mood of the verb in the utterance marks its illocutionary force as a request.	a. Leave me alone b. Clean up this mess, please
2 Explicit performatives The illocutionary force of the utterance is explicitly named by the speakers.	c. I'm asking you not to park the car here
3 Hedged performative Utterances embedding the naming of the illocutionary force.	d. I would like you to give your lecture a week earlier
4 Locution derivable The illocutionary point is directly derivable from the semantic meaning of the locution.	e. Madam, you'll have to move your car
5 Scope stating The utterance expresses the speaker's intentions, desire or feeling <i>vis d vis</i> the fact that the hearer do X.	f. I really wish you'd stop bothering me
6 Language specific suggestory formula The sentence contains a suggestion to X.	g. Why don't you get lost? h. So, why don't you come and clear up the mess you made last night?
7 Reference to preparatory conditions Utterance contains reference to preparatory conditions (e.g. ability or willingness, the possibility of the act being performed) as conventionalized in any specific language.	i. Could you clear up the kitchen, please? j. Would you mind moving your car, please?

8 *Strong hints*

Utterance contains partial reference to object or to elements needed for the implementation of the act (directly pragmatically implying the act).

- k. You've left this kitchen in a right mess.

9 *Mild hints'*

Utterances that make no reference to the request proper (or any of its elements) but are interpretable through the context as requests (indirectly pragmatically implying the act).

- l. I'm a nun (in response to the persistent boy)

❖ Conversation Model

(a costumer is talking to a bank teller)

Costumer : "I'd like to open a savings account, please."

Teller : "I'll get you the applicant blanks. How much would you deposit?"

Costumer : "To start off, I'd like to deposit ten millions."

Teller : "**Would you fill out this deposit slip for me?**"

Costumer : "Ok"

Teller : "**Could you show your identity card?**"

Costumer : "Here you are."

Teller : "**Can you put your signature here?**"

The utterances printed in bold above are the examples of requesting utterances. They are in the forms of interrogative and are conveyed in more polite manner than command.

❖ Exercise

Make conversations for each of the following situations:

- (1) You are a woman working as a teller in an international bank. You have just got your pregnancy and have difficulties to cope with your first quarter period. You meet your boss to request some days off.
- (2) You are a boy of fifteen who had just broken a traffic rule. A police stopped you, gave you a notice bill and brought your motorcycle. Now, you come to the police station and want your motorcycle returned.

2.2.3. Promising

Promise is an utterance that the speaker commits to himself to do something in the future, and the thing promised must be the one that the hearer wants it to happen. A promise can be in the form of performative utterance: the utterance that actually describes the act that it performs, i.e. it performs such act and simultaneously describes the act. The utterance “*I promise that your car will be ready on time*”, is performative because in saying it the speaker actually does or executes what the utterance describes, i.e. when the speaker utters the promise at the same time he conducts the act of promising. But a promise is not always in performative. If your lecturer asks you: “*When will you submit your assignment?*”, and you answer “*Tomorrow*”; your answer is a promise.

❖ Conversation Model

(Sissy and Sue are classmates. Sissy intends to borrow Sue’s note)

Sissy : “May I borrow your note?”

Sue : “Next Friday there'll be a quiz, so I'll use that note to learn.”

Sissy : “**It'll not be long**, I need to copy some paragraphs.”

Sue : “When will you return it?”

Sissy : “**Tomorrow, at nine.**”

Sue : “Can I trust you?”

Sissy : **“Swear, I'll be on time.”**

In the dialog above, Sissy commits herself that she will not be long borrowing the note. She will return the note the day after she utters the promise, and she will be on time. The thing promised by Sissy is the thing that Sue wants to happen.

❖ Exercise

Make a conversation for the following situation:

You have just transferred your money to your daughter abroad via a bank. After a couple of days you confirm the transfer to your daughter, but she does not receive it yet. You come to that bank to ask what happens, and the bank teller promises you to handle that case soon.

2.2.4. Threatening

Threatening is the opposite of promising. It is an utterance that the speaker commits himself to do something in the future, but the thing will be executed is the one that the hearer does not want to happen. In the threats, the source of the bad thing or the danger is the speaker.

❖ Conversation Model

(The following conversation takes place in a classroom between classmates. Anton is a very smart student but Willy is a lazy one.)

Willy : “How's your homework?”

Anton : Yeah it's done”

Willy : “Mind if I see it”

Anton : “Well, you've to do by yourself”

Willy : “Okay, but **I'll make the tires of your motorcycle flat**”

Because Anton does not want to show the homework to Willy, Willy gets angry

and threat Anton that he will make the tires of Anton's motorcycle flat. It can be seen that the thing threatened by Willy, *making the tires of Anton's motorcycle*, is the thing that Anton does not want to happen.

❖ Exercise

Make a conversation of the following situation.

The Somalia pirates demand ransom to the owner of the M.V. Sinar Kudus for 20 Indonesian sailors who are being kidnapped. If the money is not sent in 3 days, they threat to kill all those sailors.

2.2.5. Warning

Warning is an utterance to make the hearer knows that something bad or dangerous will happen to him or her. According to Austin (1962), warning may be conveyed by both declarative utterance, e.g. “the floor is wet” and imperative such as “don’t step on that floor!” In addition, Austin makes a distinction between implicit performative and explicit performative relating to speech act of warning. The intended illocutionary force of the declarative utterance “the floor is wet” is implicit because the speaker’s intention by saying it is not specifically indicated. The speaker, however, can make his utterance more explicit by involving performative verbs, e.g. “I warn you that the floor is wet”.

❖ Conversation Model

(This conversation takes place in a camping area)

Supervisor : “Girls, it's time to sleep. Go to your tent”

Girls : “Okay, mom, as you wish.”

Other girl : “**Hold up, there's a snake in the tent.**”

Supervisor : “Really? Let the guard handles it.”

In the example above, it can be inferred that in both threatening and warning something bad will happen to the hearer, but there is a subtle difference between the two. In threatening the speaker intends to do the bad thing to the hearer, and the speaker is the source of that bad thing, whilst in warning the source of the bad thing is not necessarily the speaker.

❖ Exercise

Make conversations for the following situations:

- (1) Millions of worms attack plantation in Situbondo. A scientist from IPB warns, in the dialog with the journalists, that if that pest is not handled properly, it can be a national disaster.
- (2) A lecturer approaches a very lazy student and warns him that if he continuously skips the lectures, he will surely fail the subject.
- (3) A mother warns her son who is engrossed in video games.
- (4) A father warns her daughter who always goes out at night.

2.2.6. Complaining

Complaint has been defined as “an expression of displeasure or annoyance as a reaction to a past or ongoing action, the consequences of which affect the speaker unfavorably and the complaint is addressed to the hearer, whom the speaker holds responsible for the offensive action” (Olshtain and Weinbach, 1993). It is also “an expression of negative feelings (displeasure, sadness, anger, etc.) related to what speakers presents as a “complainable matter” (Traverso, 2008) and “an expression of displeasure or annoyance of a speaker to a hearer in which the speaker (S) expresses displeasure or annoyance as a reaction to a past or ongoing action, the consequences of which are perceived by S as affecting her or his unfavorably. This complaint is addressed to the hearer (H) whom the S holds, at least partially, responsible for the offensive action” (Kraft and Geluykens, 2002). Complaint is “plaintive speech directed to the person the complainer deems responsible for the

offense or to one who is able to do something about it” (North, 2000) and “an expression of dissatisfaction addressed by an individual A to an individual B concerning behavior on the part of B that A feels is unsatisfactory. The complaint is addressed to the person identified as the cause of the problem responsible for the behavior that is deemed unsatisfactory” (Laforest, 2002).

Two types of complaint are identified: direct and indirect complaint. When a direct complaint is performed, it is aimed at someone that is present in the speech act scene (Boxer, 1993). Direct complaints are employed by speakers to identify a failure, a transgression or misconduct in the recipients’ past or concurrent conduct which may have caused some trouble or grievance to the complainer and for which the complainees may be directly held responsible and accountable (Monzoni, 2008). In contrast, in an indirect complaint a speaker complains to a recipient about some absent party or external circumstances (Drew, 1998). Moreover, it is specifically perceived as the expression of dissatisfaction to an interlocutor about someone or something that is not present (Boxer, 1993). While direct complaint is claimed threatening the complainees’ face, indirect complaint could be used not only to open conversation, but also to build relationship or as socialization strategies (Boxer, 1993).

❖ Conversation Model

1. (Alfa is complaining that the new roofs of his house are leaking)

Alfa : “I wish I knew how to fix the roofs.”

Myra : “What's wrong?”

Alfa : **“A week ago we had new roofs put on. Yesterday, it rained and the roofs leaked in some places.”**

Myra : “That's terrible. Did you call the company that did that work?”

Alfa : **“Yes, even though I've called several times, they still haven't sent anyone.”**

2. (Tony makes a complaint that the money he transfers to his mother does not arrive)

Teller : “May I help you, sir?”

Tony : “I’d like to confirm my transfer few days ago. **My mother doesn't get the money**”.

Teller : “I am sorry for the delay. The on-line didn't work for some days.

Your mother will get the money this afternoon”.

In the first example above, the speaker (Alfa) performs an indirect complaint because the hearer (Myra) is not the one who is responsible for the thing complained. In the second example the complaint is directly addressed to the one who is responsible for the thing being complained.

❖ Exercise

Make some conversation involving complaints based on the following situations

1. You are at the gas station filling up your car. Suddenly a car hitting yours from the back. You find some damages on your car.
2. You are at the post office buying some stamps. You’ve been there almost 30 minutes. A stranger cuts your queue.
3. Your friend borrows your digital camera. When she returns it you find that the camera is broken.
4. Your sister keeps using your towel and you don’t like it.
5. It is 23.30. Your house mate is turning his stereo too loud. You go to his room and make complaint.

2.2.7. Refusing

Refusals commonly come as the second pair of conversation turns as responses to previous initiating acts such as a request, invitation, offer, or suggestion. A refusal threatens negative face wants since it requests addressees to refrain from doing a future act and it also coerces positive face as it may be taken as a rejection (Barron, 2007). Refusal is an “ungenerous” act, as it maximizes the benefit of self rather than others (Leech, 1983). Some studies have found that refusal is sensitive to social variables (Chen, 1995); therefore it is often conducted indirectly and mitigated (Al-Eryani, 2007). A refusal may be mitigated by means of adverbs or mental state predicates, a justification of a refusal, an indefinite reply, an alternative, a postponement, or by setting a condition for future acceptance (Felix-Brasdefer, 2008).

The following is the taxonomy of refusal strategies proposed by Bebee, Takahashi, and Uliss-Weltz (1990). The authors categorize refusal strategies in two broad categories: direct and indirect in which refusal responses are segmented into *semantic formulae*: utterances to perform refusals and *adjuncts* to refusals: remarks which by themselves do not express refusals but they go with semantic formulae to provide particular effects to the given refusals. A direct strategy consists of either:

- (1) A performative refusal (e.g. ‘I refuse’)
- (2) A non-performative statement (e.g. ‘I can’t’, ‘I don’t think so’, ‘No’).

An indirect strategy is expressed by means of one or more semantic formulae, of which the following are the most common types:

- (1) Apology/regret. (e.g. ‘I’m sorry ...’, ‘I feel terrible ...’etc.)
- (2) Wish. It is conducted by wishing that an interlocutor could do something. (e.g. ‘I wish I could go to your party’)
- (3) Excuse, reason, explanation for not complying. (e.g. ‘My children will be home that night’; ‘I have a headache’)
- (4) Statement (offer or suggestion) of an alternative. (e.g. I can do X instead of Y, e.g. ‘I’d rather ...’, ‘I’d prefer ...’; Why don’t you do X instead of Y e. g., ‘Why

don't you ask someone else?')

- (5) Set conditions for future acceptance. It is performed by providing a condition over the acceptance of an invitation, offer, and suggestion. (e.g. 'if I am not busy, I will...; if you asked me earlier, I would have...')
- (6) Promise of future acceptance. (e.g. 'I'll do it next time')
- (7) Statement of principle. It is a statement of an interlocutor's standard rule of personal conduct (e.g. 'I never do business with friends')
- (8) Statement of philosophy. It is a statement of a personal outlook or view point (e.g. 'One can't be too careful; things break any way; this kind of things happen')
- (9) Attempt to dissuade interlocutor with some strategies such as stating negative consequences to the requester (e.g. ' I won't be any fun tonight.') or a guilt trip (e.g. 'I can't make a living off people who just order coffee' said by waitress to a customer who wants to sit a while) or a criticism of the request or the requester (e.g. 'that's a terrible idea'.) or a request for help, empathy, and assistance by dropping or holding the request or letting off the hook (e.g. 'that's okay') or a self defense (e.g. 'I'm doing my best'.)
- (10) Acceptance that functions as a refusal. Instead of refusing at first hand, interlocutors initiate their refusals by giving an acceptance to the invitation, offer and suggestion. (e.g. 'yes, but...; Ok I will but...; alright I would go, but..')
- (11) Avoidance: This may be expressed by means of a verbal act (such as changing the subject, joking, or hedging), or by means of a nonverbal act (such as silence, hesitation, or physical departure).

In addition, Beebe *et al.* (1990) identify four adjuncts that might be added to either of the two basic strategies:

- (1) Positive opinion/feeling/agreement (e.g. 'that's a good idea/ I'd love to...')
- (2) Empathy (e.g. 'I realize you are in a difficult situation')
- (3) Fillers (e.g. 'uhh', 'well', 'oh', 'uhm')
- (4) Gratitude/appreciation (e.g. 'thanks')

❖ Conversation Model

1. (Susan invites Alex to go her birth day party, but he is unable to come)

Susan: "Hi, if you got time, please come to my party next Saturday, at 9:30 in my flat"

Alex : **"sorry, I can't, you know I have my assignments due on Friday"**

Susan : "well, next time maybe. Good luck with your assignment."

Alex : "have a nice party"!

2. (Alex knows that Anne does not have a printer. He offers his printer whenever she needs it)

Alex: "if you need a printer to print your assignments you could always use mine".

Anne: **"That's kind of you, thanks, but I'd rather use my sister's"**.

Alex : "well, OK, that's your choice".

In the first example, the refuser uses the combination of direct and indirect strategies. To initiate the refusal he uses apology (**sorry**) followed with a direct refusal (**I can't**), and he used excuse/explanation to justify his refusal (**I have my assignments due on Friday**). In the second example, the refuser uses an indirect strategy in which she applies an adjunct (**That's kind of you, thanks**) followed with an alternative (**I'd rather use my sister's**)

❖ Exercise

Make some conversations involving refusals based on the following situations

1. Your boss invites you to go to his house warming party, but you are unable to come.
2. You don't have a motorcycle. Your uncle offers his motor cycle, but you refuse it.

3. You intend to buy a cell phone, the seller suggests you to buy Samsung Galaxy 3, but you refuse the suggestion.
4. Your friend asks you some coins to buy soft drink from a vending machine. You refuse his/her request as you want to buy one for yourself.
5. You are very busy completing your thesis. Your sister asks you to translate an English article to Bahasa Indonesia.

2.2.8. Blaming

Blaming is an utterance expressed by the speaker because the hearer is assumed to be responsible for the wrong doing thing or such bad condition.

❖ Conversation Model

Mom : “Rani, was it you that left the dirty glass in the living room?”

Rani : “No, mom”.

Mom : “Really? But it's you who just drank some coffee”.

Rani : “All right, Mom”.

Mom : “It's good that you admit it. Don't make a mess in our own house”

Rani : “Sorry, mom”.

Mom : “Apology accepted but you ought to clean the living room. You also ought to tidy it up. All right?”

❖ Exercise

Make some conversations involving blaming based on the following situations

1. When you get home you find your expensive vase is broken. You blame your son as he is the one at home.
2. Your motorcycle refuses to start. You know that your mother rode it this morning.
3. Your cell phone is broken into pieces. Your friend sits on it by accident.

4. The vending machine refuses to take coins. Your friend has inserted too many coins in it.
5. Your sister uses your laptop. The next day when you use it, the Window won't start.

2.2.9. Summary

This chapter reviews some texts for transactional function in which they are used to achieve optimal and efficient transference of information. **Ordering/commanding** is an utterance to make hearers do something. To convey them properly, the speaker must be superior than, or in authority over the hearer. **Request** contains communicative intention in which the speaker asks the hearer to perform an action which is for the benefit of the speaker. As it is face-threatening act, the speaker can modify it by involving internal and external modification devices. The former refers to linguistic elements which function to mitigate or even intensify its force whilst the latter functions to justify the request. **Promise** is an utterance that the speaker commits to himself to do something in the future, and the thing promised must be the one that the hearer wants it to happen. A promise can be in the form of performative utterance: the utterance that actually describes the act that it performs. **Threat** is the opposite of promise. It is an utterance that the speaker commits himself to do something in the future, but the thing will be executed is the one that the hearer does not want to happen. **Warning** is an utterance to make the hearer knows that something bad or dangerous will happen to him or her. **Complaint** has been defined as an expression of displeasure or annoyance as a reaction to a past or ongoing action, the consequences of which affect the speaker unfavorably and the complaint is addressed to the hearer, whom the speaker holds responsible for the offensive action. When a direct complaint is performed, it is aimed at someone that is present in the speech act scene, in contrast, in an indirect complaint a speaker complains to a recipient about some absent party. **Refusals** commonly come as the second pair of conversation turns as responses to previous initiating acts such as a request, invitation, offer, or suggestion. A refusal threatens negative face wants since it requests addressees to refrain from doing a future act and it also coerces positive face as it may be taken as a

rejection. **Blaming** is an utterance expressed by the speaker because the hearer is assumed to be responsible for the wrong doing thing or such bad condition.

References

- Al-Eryani, Ali. (2007). Refusal strategies by Yemeni EFL learners. *The Asian EFL Journal* 9(2):1931.
- Austin, J.L. (1962). *How to do things with words*. Oxford: the Clarendon Press.
- Barron, Anne. (2007). “Ah no honestly we’re okay”: Learning to upgrade in a study abroad context. *Intercultural Pragmatics* 4 (2): 129–166.
- Beebe, L., Takahashi, T., and Uliss-Weltz, R. (1990). Pragmatic transfer in ESL refusals, in R. Scacella, E. Anderson, and S. Krashen (Eds.). *Developing Communication Competence in a Second Language*. New York: Newbury House.
- Blum-Kulka, Shoshana and Olshtain, Elite. (1984): Requests and Apologies: A Cross-Cultural Study of Speech Act Realization Patterns (CCSARP) *Applied Linguistics*. Vol. 5, No. 3
- Boxer, Diana. (1993). Social distance and speech behaviour. The case of Indirect complaint. *Journal of pragmatics*, 19:103-125.
- Brown, Penelope and Levinson, Stephen C. (1987). *Politeness. Some Universal in Language Usage*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Brown, Gillian and Yule, George. (1983). *Discourse Analysis*. Cambridge: Cambridge university press.
- Chen, H. Julie. (1995). Pragmatic judgment on refusals: Its reliability and consistency”. *Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American council on the teaching of foreign language, Anaheim, California* (ERIC document: No. ED 391381).
- Drew, Paul., (1998). Complaints about transgressions and misconduct. *Research on Language and Social Interaction* 31 (3–4):295–325.
- Felix-Brasdefer, J.C. (2008b). Sociopragmatic variation: Dispreferred responses in Mexican and Dominican Spanish. *Journal of Politeness Research, Language Behaviour, and Culture* 4 (1):81110, DOI:10.1515/PR.2008, January 2008.
- Kraft, Bettina and Geluykens, Ronald,. (2002). Complaining in French L1 and L2: A cross- linguistic investigation. *EUROSLA Yearbook* 2: 227–242.

- Laforest, Marty., (2002). Scenes of family life: complaining in everyday conversation. *Journal of Pragmatics* 34: 1595–1620.
- Leech, Geoffrey. (1983). *Principles of Pragmatics*, London: Longman
- McCarty, Michael. (1991). *Discourse Analysis for Language Teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge university press.
- Monzoni, Chiara M., (2008a). Direct complaints in (Italian) calls to the ambulance: The use of negatively framed questions. *Journal of Pragmatics*
DOI:10.1016/j.pragma.2008.09.042
- North, Scott., (2000). Cultures of Complaint in Japan and the United States. *Working Paper No. 17*. The Sociology Department at the University of California, Berkeley.
- Olshtain, Elite, Weinbach, Liora., (1993). Interlanguage features on the speech act of complaining. In: Kasper, G., Blum-Kulka, S. (Eds.), *Interlanguage Pragmatics*. Oxford University Press, Oxford, pp. 108–122.
- Richards, Jack. (1990). *The language teaching Matrix: Curriculum, Methodology, and materials*. Cambridge: Cambridge university press.
- Sifianou, M. (1999). *Politeness phenomena in England and Greece. A cross-cultural perspective*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Traverso, Veronique (2008) The dilemmas of third-party complaints in conversation between friends. *Journal of Pragmatics*. doi:10.1016/j.pragma.2008.09.047
- Trosborg, A. 1995. *Interlanguage pragmatics. Requests, Complaints and Apologies*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.

CHAPTER 3

SHORT FUNCTIONAL TEXT

3.1. Introduction

Short functional texts (referred to henceforth as SFT) are types of informational texts to help the information receivers or readers grasp the information quickly. Since SFTs are intended to make the readers understand the texts quickly, they are usually characterized by:

- The use of clear, simple, and concise sentences.
- Pictures or symbols
- The use of particular words or letters.

SFTs can be in the form of notice, announcement, prohibition, invitation, memo, advertisement, etc.

3.2. Short Functional Texts

3.2.1. Announcement

An announcement is a statement addressed to public to provide information that something has happened or is going to happen. This type of SFT is commonly found in the public place or media, respectively, such as at school (on an announcement board), a newspaper, magazine, a window of a shop, a city park, etc.

Announcement commonly has the following features.

- a. The sentences are written concisely.
- b. The information is written completely and clearly, so that the readers can understand it quickly and easily.
- c. It contains type of event, date and time, place, and contact person or address.

The following is the example of an announcement:



Source: <http://nurinuryani.wordpress.com/functional-texts/shortfunctionaltext/announcement/>

1.2.2. Advertisement

The word ‘advertisement’ is derived from ‘advertise’ originated from Latin ‘advertere’, which means “informing somebody about something” or “drawing attention to something”. The essential point is that it functions to inform and draw attention, and it can be stated that an advertisement is information which functions to persuade people. Thus, advertisement can be defined as typical information used to persuade audience (readers or listeners) to do something or to take some action. This type of SFT usually contains the name of a product or service and the explanation of how the product or service benefits the audience.

Language use is very crucial in every advertisement since it greatly helps customers to identify products and remember them effortlessly. Although it is commonly argued that visual contents and design play very powerful roles in advertisements, the use of language cannot be neglected. The following language features are commonly intended to raise the audience or customer’s interest (spdc.shnu.edu.cn/.../chenxiaoxuan.doc):

a. **The use of simple and informal words**

The examples can be found in the advertisement of a microwave oven and an automobile respectively.

- “I couldn’t believe it, until I tried it! I’m impressed! I’m really impressed! You’ve *gotta* try it! I love it!”
- *Buy one, get more*

b. **Misspelling and Coinages**

We know *eggsactly* How to sell eggs, Give a *Timex* to all, and to all a good time (time and excellent)

c. **Frequent use of particular verbs**

The most common verbs used in product advertisement are try, ask, get, take, let, send for, use, call, make, come on, hurry, see, give, come, remember, discover, serve, introduce, choose, and look for.

d. **The use of “positive” adjectives**

For advertisements, words with strong emotive power are preferable since they communicate products powerfully. Adjectives with positive connotation are commonly selected to influence customer’s behavior. The most common adjectives found in some products are new, crisp, good/better/best, fine, free, big, fresh, great, delicious, real, full, sure, easy, bright, clean, extra, safe, special, rich, strong, stylist, etc.

For example, *what’s on the Best-Seller list in IBM personal Computer Software?*
(Advertising for IBM),

Kent. *Fresh. Calm. Mild* (Kent informs the taste you’ll feel good about the Mild International cigarette)

- e. **Frequent use of compounds** (*Chocolate-flavored cereal, fresh-tasting milk, “top-quality bulbs*)
- f. **More simple sentences, fewer complex sentences** such as *It comes with a conscience* (Honda cars); *Stouffer’s presents 14days to get your life, on the right course* (food)
- g. **More interrogative sentences and imperative sentences** (*What’s so special about Lurpark Danish butter? Have a little fruit after dinner*)

1.2.3. Memo

Memo, commonly sent to colleagues and co-workers, is derived from the word memorandum from the Middle English word 'memorandus' meaning 'to be remembered'. They differ from letters as they are more informal and do not require a salutation or a closure statement as in formal letter. (<http://www.samples-help.org.uk/sample-memo.htm>). This type of text is used to convey some basic information, particularly to persuade action, to issue a directive, or to provide a report.

Newman (2009) suggests the following general guidelines to write a memo.

- a. The purpose of the memo is clearly stated in the subject line and in the first paragraph.
- b. The language should be professional, simple and polite.
- c. Sentences are written shortly.
- d. Using bullets if a lot of information is conveyed.
- e. Proofreading before sending.
- f. The memo is addressed to the person(s) who will take action on the subject, and CC those who need to know about the action.
- g. Additional information is attached rather than placed in the body of the memo.

Memos are commonly written in following format:

TO: the name of the receiver
CC: people that the sender is copying the memo to
FROM: the name of the sender
DATE: the date when the sender writes the memo
SUBJECT: the subject heading

THE MESSAGE (information given to the receiver)

SIGNATURE (optional)

For example:

MEMO
To: Health & Safety Committee From: Joe Chan, Chairperson, H&S Ctte Date: 30 Dec '12 Subject: Room change for next meeting
 The meeting on Saturday, 2 February has been changed to Room 101.

1.2.4. Invitation Letters

An invitation is a type of letter which is written to invite a guest to a particular event or celebration. The present and the future tenses are used within the invitation letter. The former conveys information about the event and the latter ensures that the guest is going to attend. Invitation is categorized differently. Some categorize it into a formal and informal invitation while others categorize it into a business and friendly invitation. The purposes of writing the invitation determine the types of the letters. For example, an invitation letter inviting peers or clients to an event hosted by the company or inviting persons for an important meeting is a formal letter. Those letters are categorized as business invitation letters and are written in a formal tone. Invitation letters sent to friends and family members can be less formal. This type of letter is sent for a social function such as birthday, marriage, baby shower ceremonies, etc.

a. Friendly Invitation Letter

A friendly invitation letter usually follows the following format

Name of invitee

Message containing the name of the event, the purpose, the date, venue, and time

Phrasing the invitation

Closing

Name of the sender

PS (Post Script) or additional information, e.g., special instruction (if any)

RSVP: where to reply

The following is the example:

To Carla and family

My birthday falls on 22nd April and I am counting the days of happiness. I am waiting for my friends and family to gather at my home on 22nd April and shower wishes on me. On this special occasion, I cordially invite you and your family to be present with me. Your presence will be most eagerly awaited. Looking forward to see you on that day. The details of venue are given below.

Yours lovingly,

Benne Dickson

(Invitation Letter Sample. <http://www.buzzle.com/articles/invitation-letter-sample.html>)

b. Business Invitation Letter

A formal invitation letter follows the following format.

Senders address (without name)

Phone number and e-mail

Our ref/Your ref

Date

Recipient's name

Recipient's address

Opening salutation

Main information

Complimentary close (usually I/We look forward to hearing from you)

Signature (by hand)

Sender's name (typed out)

Senders position in the company

Here is the example taken from <http://www.englishindo.com/2011/12/kumpulan-contoh-undangan-bahasa-inggris.html>.

November 29, 2008

Mr. & Mrs. Resty Navarro
Gabon, Abucay, Bataan

Dear Mr. & Mrs. Navarro:

We are pleased to inform you that BATAAN HEROES MEMORIAL COLLEGE is celebrating her 30th (Pearl) Foundation Anniversary on December 7-11, 2008.

For the steadfast confidence and unwavering loyalty you and your family have reposed to BATAAN HEROES MEMORIAL COLLEGE by entrusting to her the education of at least three (3) of your children and who are now successful practitioners in their respective fields, the college administration deems it proper and fitting to award you with a Plaque of Recognition.

In this regard, may we cordially invite you together with your professional alumni children to receive your award in a program for the alumni and parents on December 7, 2008 at 3:00 pm at Joyous Resort and Restaurant? (Please present this letter to the Registration Officials when you come to Joyous Resort and Restaurant on December 7, 2008 at 3:00 pm).

We hope to deserve your attendance. BHMC shall be deeply honored with your presence in this once-in-a-lifetime affair.

Very truly yours,

WILFREDO C. AGUILA
College Administrator

A formal invitation letter can be written in a simpler format as follows:

<p>Mr. John Bartleby Director General of A&B Computers Inc. and Mr. Ján Pokorný General Manager of A&B Computers Slovakia request the presence of Mr. and Mrs. Kovác</p> <p>at the reception on the occasion of the opening of new A&B Computers premises in Bratislava at 6 p.m. on Thursday 9 July 2001 at Holiday Hotel. R.S.V.P A&B Computers Slovakia, Nová 25, 814 55 Bratislava</p>
--

(Source: <http://www.elf.stuba.sk/Katedry/KJAZ/E4PC/WWW/Resources/letter.pdf>.)

RSVP or R.S.V.P. is adopted from French word *répondez s'il vous plait* which means please answer. The receiver of the invitation must tell the host whether they plan to attend the event or not.

1.2.5. Label

Label or commonly called "product label" is a term which refers to printed information affixed on a particular article or a container of product. Labels function to communicate product-specific information to the consumers and encourage a purchase. A food label, for example, should contain name of the food, net quantity in metric units, date of expire, list of ingredients, storage instructions, name and address of manufacturer or packager, when the product was manufactured, and instruction for use. Following is the example of food product label. Please, observe the use of short but clear information conveyed by the manufacturer. (Sentry Health Monitors, <http://www.lifeclinic.com/focus/nutrition/food-label.asp>)

Sample label for
Macaroni & Cheese

Nutrition Facts			
Serving Size 1 cup (228g)			
Serving Per Container 2			
Amount Per Serving			
Calories 250	Calories from Fat 110		
% Daily Value*			
Total Fat 12g	18%		
Saturated Fat 3g	15%		
Cholesterol 30mg	10%		
Sodium 470mg	20%		
Total Carbohydrate 31g	10%		
Dietary Fiber 0g	0%		
Sugars 5g			
Protein 5g			
Vitamin A	4%		
Vitamin C	2%		
Calcium	20%		
Iron	4%		
* Percent Daily Values are based on a 2,000 calorie diet. Your Daily Values may be higher or lower depending on your calorie needs:			
	Calories:	2,000	2,500
Total Fat	Less than	65g	80g
Sat Fat	Less than	20g	25g
Cholesterol	Less than	300mg	300mg
Sodium	Less than	2,400mg	2,400mg
Total Carbohydrate		300g	375g
Dietary Fiber		25g	30g

The information that purchasers or consumers can find is as follows.

- The serving is per cup which means that one cup equals one serving, and the package contains two servings.
- The second part of the label provides the calories per serving and the calories are from fat
- The other information is the names and quantities of nutrient per serving. Consumers may need to know this information, especially for those who have high blood pressure, diabetes or are having a diet for certain nutrients.
- The label also lists vitamins and minerals in the product.
- The asterisk sign (*) at the bottom of the label informs the consumers the key nutrients listed and how much they should take depending on their calorie intake.

1.2.6. Postcards

Postcard or postal card can be defined as a small, usually having a picture on one side and space for a short message on the other for sending a message by post without an envelope. It serves some purposes, namely to congratulate, keep in touch, inform, express feeling, etc. People send postcards when they are on vacation, arriving at a new place, receiving a new post, etc. Since the space to write on the post card is limited, people tend to write the information as simple as possible. Following is ten expressions often used in post card (International House Bristol <http://www.ihbristol.com/useful-english-expressions/example/phrases-for-postcards/6>)

- 1) We're having a lovely / great time.
- 2) We're thinking of you.
- 3) The weather's been lovely / gorgeous.
- 4) It's our third day in (Majorca).
- 5) We're flying back on the (5th).
- 6) We've only got three days to go.
- 7) I've caught the sun a bit.
- 8) Don't think much of the food.
- 9) Say hello to (the kids).
- 10) Wish you were here

Osterland, August 20, 2012

Dear Ary,

We are now safe home after the very, very long flight from Indonesia. My heart is filled with warmth from our meeting. Thank you for everything you showed and gave to us during our stay in Solo. Everything was well arranged and I learn a lot about your schools and activities. Thank you very much!

Best regards,

Bodil and Karin

1.2.7. Notice

Notice is a symbol or text to inform or instruct people to do or not to do anything. For example, the notice “No Smoking” means people must not smoke in that place. Notice is common in public places such as hospital, airport lounge, shopping mall etc. People usually use notice to give information, instruction or warning. This is the reason why people use a simple word in the notice. Notice may take forms of command, warning, information, and prohibition

Command



The notices command people to:

- turn off the lights whenever leaving the room.
- close the door when entering or leaving the room.
- supervise children when they are leaved in a motor cycle.

Warning

This type of text mainly functions to warn people to be careful in doing something. Ignoring the notice can cause injury or accident. .



The three notices warn people to

- drive slowly because children are playing in the area.
- walk carefully because the floor is wet.

- c. drive slowly

Information

Some notices convey some information which may be useful for people. Following are the examples.

- a. **For Staff Only** means that only the staffs of the office are allowed to enter the room.
- b. **Rest Area** implies that people are allowed to take a rest in the area.
- c. **Bike Route** informs people the route for bikers.

Prohibition

Prohibition notifies people not to do something.



Example:

The notices above convey the following information.

- a. The first notice means don't smoke, which means people must not smoke in the place.
- b. The second notice implies that people riding bicycles and motorcycles are not allowed to pass in the area.
- c. People are not allowed to take picture in that area.

1.2.8. Summary

- a. Short functional text is a type of text of which primary function is to convey particular information to readers/hearers.
- b. This type of text is characterized by the use of simple, concise sentences, particular words, expressions, and symbols to make the information easily understood or remembered by the readers/hearers.
- c. This chapter only covers some types of short functional texts, such as announcement, advertisement (including brochure and poster), memo, invitation, post card, and notice.

1.2.9. How to Teach Short Functional Text

There are strategies to teach short functional texts. What follows are some of them

1. Teaching how to write an invitation letter

In general, the method applied in this teaching is Inquiry-Based Learning where the procedures can be divided into three sections: exploration, elaboration, and confirmation.

a. Exploration

1. Ask students to discuss a wedding party invitation to find out the information about the date, and the place, names of the groom and bride, and other additional information.
2. Distribute copies of an invitation letter to the students and ask them to identify the phrases or sentences used in the text.
3. Teach them vocabulary items which will be used in the lesson.

b. Elaboration

1. Ask the students to work in groups (e.g. group A and B) and tell them what they have to do in the activity.
2. Distribute texts with a gap filling exercise to students in group A and B. The text given to the students in group A is different from that given to the students in group B. The students in group A can fill in the gap by asking for information from those in group B, and vice versa.
3. Ask the students to start the activity. Observe the class to give some help if needed.

4. As the students finish their task, ask some pairs to practice in front of the class.
5. Discuss the results of the presentation to the class.
6. Ask the students to write a simple invitation letter individually.
7. Students exchange the work sheet with their friends. Ask them to check their partner's work.

c. Confirmation

1. Give feedback to the students
2. Ask the students if they have questions.
3. Summarize the lesson.

(Lesson is adapted from <http://www.letter-samples.com/invitation-letter.html>)

Text A

Dear Mr. Moriarity:

On behalf of the Board of Directors, I would like to extend a formal invitation; we would like you to be at the upcoming 2009 NEERI Conference.

The theme of this conference is The conference will be held at the Oceanfront Conference Center, in San Antonio, December 2012.

For your information,will be the opening keynote speaker. The provisional title of her presentation is "Factors That Contribute to Global Warming." I will forward a complete draft of the program to you in a few weeks so that you can know what specific subjects will be covered by the other speakers.

We expect attendance this year to higher than it has ever been u00e2u0080u0093 approximately 2,000 delegates and speakers. This includes a large contingent from our new European chapter, which is based in Geneva.

We would be pleased and honored if you would be our closing speaker at the 2009 NEERI Conference.

I will call you next week to discuss this.

Yours sincerely,
Reinhart Josephson

Text B

Dear Mr. Moriarity:

On behalf of the Board of Directors, I would like to extend a formal invitation; we would like you to be the closing keynote speaker at the upcoming.....

The theme of this conference is "Global Warming: A Major Environmental Problem." The conference will be held at, December 3 - 5, 2012.

For your information, Susan McLeen will be the..... The provisional title of her presentation is I will forward a complete draft of the program to you in a few weeks so that you can know what specific subjects will be covered by the other speakers.

We expect attendance this year to higher than it has ever been u00e2u0080u0093 approximatelydelegates and 150 speakers. This includes a large contingent from our new European chapter, which is based in Geneva.

We would be pleased and honored if you would be our closing speaker at the 2009 NEERI Conference.

I will call you next week to discuss this.

Yours sincerely,
Reinhart Josephson

2. Teaching How to Write a Postcard

In the following procedures, the implemented strategies are question and answer, paper throwing, and pair work.

a. Exploration

1. Show some samples of postcard. Presenting the texts of postcards on the LCD can be the alternative.
2. Ask students to identify the general format, the information given, and the sentences written on the text.
3. Teach students how to write a post card.

b. Elaboration

1. Divide the class in two groups (let say group A and B). Ask the students in group A to imagine that they are in a particular occasion (holiday or going back home after visiting a friend) and ask them to narrate the occasion on a piece of paper (what, where, how, etc)

2. After completing their writing, they make their paper becoming paper balls and throw them to the students in group B.
3. Each student in group B who catches a paper ball opens it and will find the information written on it. Then each student writes a post card based on the information given.
4. The students who throw the balls help those who are writing post cards.
5. Ask some pairs to read the post cards.
6. Invite the rest of the class to ask questions or give comment on the result.

c. Confirmation

1. Give feedback to the students
2. Ask them to make reflection on what they learnt that day
3. Assign them to make a post card individually.

1.2.10. Exercise

A. MULTIPLE CHOICE

Choose the correct answer.

1. A notice KEEP OFF THE GRASS means....
 - a. People are allowed to cut the grass.
 - b. People are allowed pick up the grass.
 - c. People must walk on the grass.
 - d. People must not walk on the grass.

2. Read the following label. What information does the label contain?

Uses temporarily relieves these symptoms due to hay fever or other upper respiratory allergies:

- sneezing ■ runny nose ■ itchy, watery eyes
- itchy throat

Warnings

Ask a doctor before use if you have

- glaucoma
- a breathing problem such as emphysema or chronic bronchitis
- trouble urinating due to an enlarged prostate gland

Ask a doctor or pharmacist before use if you are taking tranquilizers or sedatives

When using this product

- You may get drowsy ■ Avoid alcoholic drinks
- Alcohol, sedatives, and tranquilizers may increase drowsiness
- Be careful when driving a motor vehicle or operating machinery
- Excitability may occur, especially in children

If pregnant or breastfeeding, ask a health professional before use.

Keep out of reach of children. In case of overdose, get medical help or contact a Poison Control Center right away.

- a. The serving sizes.
 - b. The dosage and how people should take.
 - c. The substance in the medicine.
 - d. When to stop using it and the side effect.
3. Based on the label, what should people do if they are breastfeeding or pregnant?
- a. They should not take the medicine
 - b. They should consult the doctor.
 - c. They can contact poison control centre
 - d. They should be careful.
4. Read the following notice carefully

CAUTION!!!

Volcanic fumes are hazardous to your health and can be life-threatening.

Visitors with breathing and heart problems, pregnant women and young children should avoid this area.

What is the warning about?

- a. The volcanoes and their effects.
- b. The danger of volcanic fumes.
- c. The women and their children's health.
- d. The pregnant visitors of the mountain.

5. For only.

No.....

Keep the room

The correct words for to fill in the gap are

- a. Limit, littering, lady
- b. Gents, littering, tidy
- c. Lady, clean, limit.
- d. Go ahead, clean, tidy

B. ESSAY TEST

2. Observe the following advertisement. Identify the language features. What do they imply?

HARRIS HOTELS simple • unique • friendly

Enjoy Your End Package

4 Days 3 Nights
(21 Dec '12 - 24 Dec '12)
- HARRIS Kuta Beach Rp. 5,700,000
- HARRIS Riverview Rp. 5,165,000

3 Days 2 Nights
(20 Dec '12 - 22 Dec '12)
- HARRIS Sunset Road Rp. 3,350,000
- HARRIS Tuban Rp. 3,200,000

Benefits:
Breakfast & New Year's Eve Dinner for 2 persons and many more

TAUZIA

✓ HARRIS Resort Kuta Beach ☎ 0361 - 753.868
✓ HARRIS Hotel & Residences Riverview Kuta ☎ 0361 - 761.007
✓ HARRIS Hotel & Residences Sunset Road Bali ☎ 0361 - 894.7001
✓ HARRIS Hotel Tuban ☎ 0541 - 936.5255

Facebook YouTube

3. Arrange the following memo in the correct order.

I attach the doctor's note

Message:

Thank you

Please confirm that the cost of the medicine is covered by the company health scheme.

I was sick yesterday and therefore I couldn't come to work.

To: Julia Wong, Human Resources

Date: 30 December 2012

Subject: Sick leave certificate

In order to receive sick pay, I need to send my doctor's note.

From: K. K. Wong, Sales

(Source: <http://www2.elc.polyu.edu.hk/cill/eiw/memos.htm>)

4. Write an invitation letter about an employee who is inviting his superior to come and take part in the ceremony for inauguration of his new apartment. The letter tells the invitee that traveling back and forth cannot be a reason for not coming as he has arranged pick-ups for all the guests. (<http://www.letters.org/invitation-letter/official-invitation-letter.html>)

5. Match the expressions in bold-face (left) with their use (right):

Language	Meaning and use
1. You are invited to attend a reception...	a. How to respond to the invitation.
2. A reception to mark the arrival of our new marketing manager.	b. Expresses hope that the person you are inviting will come.
3. The reception will take place in the teachers' room at 1pm on Friday.	c. Gives further information about the event (note use of passive).
4. Drinks will be served .	d. Invitation.
5. If you are able to attend, please respond to this email.	e. Gives details of the venue and time (note prepositions).
6. I look forward to seeing you on Friday.	f. Neutral/friendly sign off often used in business letters.
7. Kind regards	g. Explains the purpose of the event.

6. Observe the text below. What type of text is it? What does the text inform the readers?



KEY ANSWER

CHECK POINT

1. D
2. D
3. B
4. B
5. B

ESSAY

1. The language features found in the text.

- a. Adjectives: simple, unique, friendly (booking the hotel is simple, it is unique/different from the others, and the people serving are friendly)
- b. Imperative: enjoy year end package (please enjoy the package offered which is)

2. Memo

To: Julia Wong, Human Resources
From: K. K. Wong, Sales
Date: 30 December 2012
Subject: Sick leave certificate

Message

I was sick yesterday and therefore I couldn't come to work. In order to receive sick pay, I need to send my doctor's note. I attach the doctor's note. Please confirm that the cost of the medicine is covered by the company health scheme.

Thank you

3. Invitation letter

Mr. Kausik Goswami
Senior Marketing Manager
Simplex Technologies Ltd
Kolkata Division
Kolkata

10th October 2010

Subject: Invitation for a house warming party, on 20 October 2010

Dear Sir,

This is to invite you to my house warming party at my new apartment on Wednesday, 20th of October 2010. In the morning at around 8 AM, a home-blessing ritual will start which is expected to be over by noon.

Thereafter arrangements for lunch have been made in the premises of the apartment itself. It will be an honor if you could make out some time from your busy schedule to grace the occasion.

We eagerly look forward to your presence on the occasion. We have made arrangement for pick-up and drop-off service for you and rest of the guests and hope there will be no trouble in finding the address. We sincerely hope you will find time to grace the occasion.

Thanks and regards,

Ramanand. S

Ramanand Sagar

4. The expressions used in invitation letter.

1. d
2. g
3. e
4. c
5. a
6. b
7. f

5. This is an example of an announcement. It announces the birth of Kate and Robert's twin babies.

References

ACTC (Association for Core Texts and Courses).

<http://www.coretexts.org/conferences/annual-conference/>. Accessed on December 30, 2012.

Characteristics of Language in Advertising. spdc.shnu.edu.cn/.../chenxiaoxuan.doc

International House Bristol <http://www.ihbristol.com/useful-english-expressions/example/phrases-for-postcards/6>. Accessed on December 30, 2012.

Just Nurry: Teaching with Heart. <http://nurinuryani.wordpress.com/functional-texts/shortfunctionaltext/announcement/>. Accessed on December 31, 2012.

Newman, Judith M., <http://www.lupinworks.com/roche/pages/memos.php>. 2009. **Literacy and Learning: Technology in Education, Action research, Literacy development**. Accessed on December 28, 2012.

The Jakarta Post, Saturday, December 22, 2012.

What is a memo? <http://www2.elc.polyu.edu.hk/cill/eiw/memos.htm>. Accessed on December 25, 2012.

Letters-Free Sample Letters. <http://www.letters.org/invitation-letter/official-invitation-letter.html>. Accessed on December 20, 2012.

Letter Writing- <http://www.elf.stuba.sk/Katedry/KJAZ/E4PC/WWW/Resources/letter.pdf>. Accessed on December 30, 2012.

Koleksi Contoh Invitation Letter. Englishindo. <http://www.englishindo.com/2011/12/kumpulan-contoh-undangan-bahasa-inggris.html>. Accessed on December 29, 2012.

Sentry Health Monitors, <http://www.lifeclinic.com/focus/nutrition/food-label.asp>. Accessed on December 31, 2012.

Englishindo. <http://www.englishindo.com/2011/12/kumpulan-contoh-undangan-bahasa-inggris.html>. Accessed on December 31, 2012.

Sample Invitation Letter, <http://www.letter-samples.com/invitation-letter.html>). Accessed on December 21, 2012.

CHAPTER 4

LONG FUNCTIONAL TEXT

4.1. Introduction

The term “long” functional text is rarely used in communication. This chapter uses the term “long” functional text only to make the counterpart of the previous term, i.e. short functional text. In daily speech, there are many types of functional texts, not only in the forms of short functional texts such as prohibition, invitation, greeting cards, short message, etc., but also in the forms of long functional texts or essays. Essay writings are meant to help readers accomplish an everyday task and form culturally text-types or genres. A text forms a piece of language use or a record of a communicative act, or the so called ‘language which is functional’ (Halliday and Hasan, 1985). In general, texts which have the same sorts of meaning and/or the same structural elements are said to be the same text type.

Long functional texts are so called due not only to the length in the writing, but also the process of the interpreting which requires specific recognition of their structures and situation. A text will be meaningless if it is taken apart from its structure and situation. Long functional texts are also classified on the basis of the intention of the communicator. Based on its communicative purposes, text varies in the course of its function, generic structure, language feature, and vocabularies. To communicate purpose, ones may construct texts in specific structures and use certain linguistic features in conjunction with particular vocabularies.

4.2. The Kinds of Long Functional Text

This chapter presents 13 types of text including Narrative, Recount, Descriptive, Procedure, Report, Anecdote, Hortatory, Spoof, Explanation, Discussion, News Item text, Review, and Analytical Exposition text. The discussion on each text covers the functional structure of the text, examples, and exercises. The following is the elaboration of each text.

4.2.1. Narrative Text

a. Social Function

Narrative text is a kind of story or event narrated or retold in spoken or written of which social function is to entertain its readers. It may cover legends, fables, stories of man vs. animal, love stories, or other folktales. Narrative text—often written based on life experience—will tell the story in an amusing way and provides an esthetic literary experience to its readers. In the literary term, experience is what people do, feel, hear, read, even what they dream.

b. Generic Structure of Narrative Text

Text Elements	Content
Orientation	An introduction to the characters and setting of the events/ story.
Complication (events that lead to climax)	The events which lead to the climax. It explores the conflict in the story and will show the crisis, rising crisis and climax of the story. The sequences of events may include: -A description of events as they occur: First..., Next..., Later,.. After... -Sequences of events particular to each character: While..., As..., Meanwhile..., When..., one day.
Resolution	It shows the situation in which the problems have been resolved: fail or succeed, and describes the ending relating to the main characters, e.g. what they look like, sad or happy?

c. Language Features

The language features in Narrative text include the following indicators:

1. Certain nouns, pronouns, animals, and certain things in the story, such as maid, stepsisters, housework, etc.
2. Adjectives extending noun phrases, such as long black hair, two red apples, etc.
3. Time connectives and conjunctions to make events sequence, such as then, before that, soon, next, etc.
4. Adverbs and adverbial phrases to show location and time of events, such as here, in the mountain, happily ever after, etc.
5. Action verbs in past tense: stayed, climbed, jumped, etc.

6. Saying verbs indicating utterance such as said, told, promised, and thinking verbs identifying the thought, perception or feeling of the characters in the story, such as thought, understood, felt, seemed, etc.
7. The use of Past Tense

d. Example of a Narrative Text

The smartest Parrot	
Orientation	Once upon time, a man had a wonderful parrot. There was no other parrot like it. The parrot could say every word, except one word. The parrot would not say the name of the place where it was born. The name of the place was Catano.
Events that lead to climax	The man felt excited having the smartest parrot but he could not understand why the parrot would not say Catano. The man tried to teach the bird to say Catano however the bird kept not saying the word. At the first, the man was very nice to the bird but then he got very angry. "You stupid bird!" pointed the man to the parrot. "Why can't you say the word? Say Catano! Or I will kill you" the man said angrily. Although he tried hard to teach, the parrot would not say it. Then the man got so angry and shouted to the bird over and over; "Say Catano or I'll kill you". The bird kept not saying the word of Catano. One day, after he had been trying so many times to make the bird say Catano, the man really got very angry. He could not bear it. He picked the parrot and threw it into the chicken house. "There were four old chickens for next dinner, you are as stupid as the chickens. Just stay with them", said the man angrily. Then he continued to mumble "You know, I will cut the chicken for my meal. Next it will be your turn, I will eat you too, stupid parrot". After that he left the chicken house.
Resolution	The next day, the man came back to the chicken house. He opened the door and was very surprised. He could not believe what he saw at the chicken house. There were three death chickens on the floor. At the moment, the parrot was standing proudly and screaming at the last old chicken; "Say Catano or I'll kill you". (From www.englishdirection.com .)

e. Exercise

- ❖ Write exercises for the narrative texts below.
- ❖ Read and determine the text elements of the following narrative texts by paraphrasing their contents.

(1) The Legend of Sura and Baya

A long time ago, there were two animals, Sura and Baya. Sura was the name of a shark and Baya was a crocodile. They lived in a sea. Once Sura and Baya were looking for some food. Suddenly, Baya saw a goat. "Yummy, this is my lunch," said Baya. "No way! This is my lunch. You are greedy" said Sura. Then they fought for the goat. After several hours, they were very tired. Feeling tired of fighting, they lived in different places. Sura lived in the water and Baya lived on the land. The border was the beach, so they would never fight again. One day, Sura went to the land and looked for some food in the river. He was very hungry and there was not much food in the sea. Baya was very angry when he knew that Sura broke the promise. They fought again. They both hit each other. Sura bit Baya's tail. Baya did the same thing to Sura. He bit very hard until Sura finally gave up and went back to the sea. Baya was happy.

(Taken from: www.englishdirection.com.)

(2) The Cap Seller and The Monkeys

Once, a cap seller was passing through a jungle. He was very tired and needed to rest. Then, he stopped and spread a cloth under a tree. He placed his bag full of caps near him and lay down with his cap on his head. The cap seller had a sound sleep for one hour. When he got up, the first thing he did was to look into his bag. He was startled when he found all his caps were not there. When he looked up the sky, he was very surprised to see monkeys sitting on the branches of a tree, each of the monkeys was wearing a cap of on its head. They had evidently done it to imitate him. He decided to get his caps back by making a humble request to the monkeys. In return, the monkeys only made faces of him. When he begun to make gesture, the monkeys also imitated him. At last he found a clever idea. " Monkeys are a great imitator," he thought. So he took off his own cap and threw it down on the ground. And as he had expected, all the monkeys took off the caps and threw the caps down on the ground. Quickly, he stood up and collected the caps, put them back into his bag and went away.

(Taken from: www.englishdirection.com.)

❖ Vocabulary

- a. Write down the words under the category of **adjective** in the text of **The smartest Parrot** above and classify them in the sense of good or bad connotation.

b. Synonym

Most words have more than one meaning. A word which has a similar meaning to others is called a **synonym**. For example: weird = strange, liberty = freedom, select = choose, etc.

Write out the following sentences and replace each highlighted word with its synonym.

1. **Cease** talking and listen to my **brief** instructions!.
2. You'll need to be **cautious** when you reach the **summit**.
3. When are your **annual** holidays?
4. Do you need any **assistance**?
5. Tea is a pleasant **beverage**.
6. The **captive** lost his **liberty**.
7. The soldiers fought the **foe** with great **valour**.
8. The **dwelling** is **vacant**.
9. There was a **catastrophe** when the oil tanker **contaminated** the sea.
10. The **rich** financier **purchased** a waterfront home.
11. The **little** child was **miserable** in her new school.
12. The swimmer suffered **fatigue** and found it difficult to **complete** the race.

c. Antonym

A word which has an opposite meaning to others is called an **antonym**. For example: proud X humble, advance X retreat, poverty X wealth, etc.

Find the antonym for the words below. The first letter of each antonym is given.

- | | | | |
|-------------|--------|---------------|--------|
| 1. war | p..... | 13. question | a..... |
| 2. deep | s..... | 14. inferior | s..... |
| 3. ugly | b..... | 15. victory | d..... |
| 4. black | w..... | 16. cheap | e..... |
| 5. exterior | i..... | 17. difficult | e..... |
| 6. rough | s..... | 18. junior | s..... |
| 7. private | p..... | 19. noisy | q..... |
| 8. early | l..... | 20. heavy | l..... |
| 9. dwarf | g..... | 21. foolish | w..... |
| 10. empty | f..... | 22. false | t..... |
| 11. coward | h..... | 23. future | p..... |
| 12. bitter | s..... | 24. demolish | b..... |

❖ Grammar

a) Verb and Tense

Verbs not only indicate where an action is taking place but also tell us when it is taking place. Verbs tell us their tense: whether the action is in the present, in the future or in the past.

Below are two columns of verbs in present and past tense. Please fill in the blanks with the correct verb forms.

Present	Past	Present	Past
She <u>hears</u>	she <u>heard</u>	I <u>eat</u>	I <u>ate</u>
She sleeps	she	He sits....	He.....
It.....	It.....	She.....	she wrote
I wake	I.....	We bring	we.....
He.....	he drank	They.....	they fought
They go.....	They.....	It feels.....	it.....
She.....	she sang	She.....	she saw
He thinks	he.....	I keep	I
We.....	We stood	They...	they met
She catches	She.....	I find	I

b) Build sentences by using adjectives showing good connotation, such as wonderful, excited, great; and write others involving adjectives showing bad connotation, such as angry, stupid, frightening, etc.

4.2.2. Recount Text

a. Social Function

A recount tells past events which occurred in a sequence. Narrative and recount texts are similar that is both tell the past events, so they commonly use Past Tense, either Simple Past Tense or Past Perfect Tense. Besides, they use sequences of time in telling the past events. Narrative text is often found in story books about myths, fabel, folklores, etc, while Recount text is usually found within biography. The difference lies on their structures. Narrative texts raise conflicts within the events which are natural, social, or psychological. Recount texts do not include conflicts but only retell a sequence of events which occurred in the past.

b. The Generic Structure of Recount Text

TEXT ELEMENTS	CONTENT
Orientation	Information about an event and its setting. It provides details of who, what, when, where, or why.
Events	A sequence of events which happened in a chronological order. What happened? First..., Next..., Soon..., During..., After..., Later..., Eventually..., Finally...
Closing (reorientation)	Conclusion/ summary of the events What you think, feel or decide about the occurred events.

c. Language Features

The language features in Recount texts include the following indicators:

1. Nouns and pronouns instead of persons, animals, or things involved, such as David, the monkey, we, etc.
2. Action verbs such as go, sleep, run, etc.
3. Past tense such as We went to the zoo; She was happy, etc.
4. Conjunctions and time connectives which order events, happenings, or actions, such as and, but, then, after that, etc.
5. Adverbs and adverb phrases to show location, time, and manner, such as right here, in my house, yesterday afternoon, slowly, often, etc.
6. Adjectives to modify nouns such as beautiful, funny, childish, tiny, etc.

d. Example of a Recount Text

Vacation to London; the clear example of recount text	
Orientation	Mr. Richard's family was on vacation. They are Mr. and Mrs. Richard with two sons. They went to London.
Events	They saw their travel agent and booked their tickets. They went to the British Embassy to get visas to enter Britain. They had booked fourteen days tour. This includes travel and accommodation. They also included tours around London. They boarded a large Boeing flight. The flight was nearly fourteen hours. On the plane the cabin crews were very friendly. They gave them news paper and magazine to read. They gave them food and drink. There was a film for their entertainment. They had a very pleasant flight. They slept part of the way. On arrival at Heathrow Airport, they had to go to Customs and Immigration. The officers were pleasant. They checked the document carefully but their manners were very polite. Mr. Richard and his family collected their bags and

	went to London Welcome Desk. They arranged the transfer to a hotel. The hotel was a well-known four-star hotel. The room had perfect view of the park. The room had its own bathroom and toilet. Instead of keys for the room, they inserted a key-card to open the door. On the third floor, there was a restaurant serving Asian and European food. They had variety of food. The two weeks in London went by fast. At the end of the 14-day, they were quite tired but they felt very happy.
Reorientation	The two week in London went by fast. At the end of the 14-day, they were quite tired but they felt very happy. (Taken from: www.englishdirection.com .)

e. Exercise

❖ Writing

Write a recount text in the table below containing activities you did on the weekend, vacation, or special occasions.

(Title)	
Orientation
Events
Reorientation

❖ Vocabulary

Complete the following paragraph by placing the correct abstract nouns from the list. The first letter of each word has been given to help you.

The Grandview Resort

Stay at Grandview and let us improve your f..... and your h..... . Our experts are always seeking p..... for you. You will need plenty of d..... -there is no room for l..... in our resort. On the other hand, b..... is impossible. You will run, jump, swim and play sport all in surroundings of great b....., for twelve hours a day. Our experts will give you all the g..... and e..... you need for your s..... The other twelve hours you will sleep, happy in the k..... that you are doing what comes naturally. Stay with us at the Grandview and enjoy the f..... of beautiful, healthy people just like you.

List of abstract nouns

friendship	success	boredom	health	guidance	knowledge
beauty	fitness	laziness	perfection	encouragement	
determination					

❖ Grammar

a) Relative Pronouns

Combine the sentences by using the relative pronoun in the bold type. You may need to change or rearrange some of the words.

1. **which**

The rats were very hungry. They were trying to gnaw their way into the kitchen.

2. **that**

The elephant is a clever animal. It uses its trunk as a hand and a nose.

3. **who**

The zoo keeper was kind to all the animals. He was huge and bearded.

4. **that**

The eagle often spread its wings and soared on thermal currents. It nested high up in the mountains.

5. **which**

The seals heard the noise of a terrible enemy. They soon saw it was a great white shark.

6. **whose**

The camel can survive long desert journeys. The water is stored in its hump.

7. **who**

The mountaineers stared in disbelief at the snow. They saw the outline of Yeti's foot prints.

8). **how**

Conservationists were trying to save the alligators. They were camped on the mud flats.

9). **that**

There was a family of penguins. The tourists photographed them.

10). **that**

The villager heard a strange sound it was the snarl of a tiger.

- b). Build sentences by using the subordinative conjunctions such as although, if, because, etc.

4.2.3. Descriptive Text

a. Social Function

A descriptive text is a text which portrays the image of a certain thing from which a writer wants to transfer it to readers. Mostly descriptive texts depict or describe the image of a certain person, animal, things, and location or place. The social function of

description text is to inform the readers about the illustration of certain persons, places, or some things in specific ways.

b. The Generic Structure of Descriptive Text

Text Elements	Content
Identification	An introduction to the objects/things described which includes who or what, when, where.
Description	A description of an object. For example the color, the size, the smell, the taste, etc. For persons: what they look like, what they do, how they act, what they like or dislike, what makes them special. For something: how it looks, sounds, feels, smells or tastes, where it is seen or found, what it does, how it is used, what makes it special.

c. Language Features

The language features of descriptive text include the following indicators:

1. Certain nouns, such as teacher, house, my cat, bridge, etc.
2. Simple Present Tense.
3. Detailed noun phrases to give information about a subject, such as It was a large open rowboat, a sweet young lady, the deaf person, etc.
4. Various adjectives which are describing, numbering, classifying such as two strong legs, sharp white fangs, her curly hair, etc.
5. Relating verbs to give information about a subject, such as My mum is really cool; It has very thick fur, the rest remains at home, etc.
6. Thinking verbs and feeling verbs to reveal the writer's view, such as The police believe the suspect is armed; I think it is a clever animal, etc.
7. Action verbs, such as Our new puppy bites our shoes; It eats soft food, etc.
8. Adverbs to give additional information about manner, such as fast, gradually, at the tree house, etc.
9. Figurative language, such simile, metafor, e.g. John is white as chalk, sat tight, etc.

d. Example of a Descriptive Text

My Pet	
Identification	I have a pet. It is a dog, and I call it Brownie. Brownie is a Chinese breed.
Description	It is small, fluffy, and cute. It has got thick brown fur. When I cuddle it, the fur feels soft. Brownie does not like bones. Every day it eats soft food like steamed rice, fish or bread. Every morning I give her milk and bread. When I am at school, Brownie plays with my cat. They get along well, and never fight maybe because Brownies does not bark a lot. It treats the other animals in our house gently, and it never eats shoes. Brownie is really a sweet and friendly animal.

e. Exercise

❖ Writing

Find and read a biography of a famous person, singer, movie star, politician, football player, etc. Paraphrase his or her biography and describe the person in a descriptive text in the following table.

(Title)	
Identification
Description

❖ Vocabulary

Form adjectives from the words in brackets.

- 1) An teacher (energy)
- 2) An father (pride)
- 3) An mountaineer (fame)
- 4) An crime (horror)
- 5) An class (talk)
- 6) An injury (pain)
- 7) An weight lifter (strength)
- 8) An accident (terror)
- 9) An gift (marvel)
- 10) An vase (value)

❖ Grammar

Look at the adjectives in the following sentences.

- The earth is a **large** planet. (positive)
- Jupiter is **larger** than the Earth (comparative)
- Jupiter is the **largest** planet in our solar system. (superlative)

Fill in the blanks in the following table with appropriate forms of adjective. The first one has been done to help you.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Long	Longer	longest
Friendly
Bad
Dry
Comfortable
Many
Happy
Fashionable
Sensitive
Easy
Angry

4.2.4. Procedure Text

a. Social Functions

The social function of Procedure Texts is to inform ways or instruction for making or doing something completely.

b. The Generic Structure of Procedure Text

Title:....	
Goal	A brief description of what will be done.
Materials needed	A list of what are needed which may include ingredients, utensils, materials, tools, etc.
Steps to accomplish	What has to be done; including diagrams or pictures if needed.

c. Language Features

The language features of Procedure Text use the following indicators:

1. The sentence type is imperative, such as cut, don't mix, hold, etc.
2. Action verbs such as turn, put, mix, etc.
3. Connectives to order actions, such as then, while, etc.
4. Adverbials to state detailed time, place, accurate ways, such as for five minutes, 2 centimetres from the top, etc.

d. Example of Procedure Text

THINGS DISSOLVE IN WATER	
Topic followed by statement of purpose	To find things that dissolve in water
Materials needed	Materials: Essence, jelly crystals, sand, sugar, salt, water, cups, bottles.
Steps to accomplish	Methods: 1. Put some of each material in a cup 2. Add a cup of water to the materials 3. Watch carefully what happens.

The following is another example of a procedure text.

Making Candle

Making coloured and scented candles is really quick and simple. What's more, you'll save so much money. If making candle is easy, why do you ever bought one from a shop? What you need in making candle are wax, moulds, wick, dye discs, essential oils, and a double boiler. All these materials are available from craft shops. Or if you do not want to buy them, you can improvise with an old saucepan, pyrex jug, or even a sturdy can, in a pot of water. After providing the materials, follow this procedure or instruction in making candles!

First of all, melt the wax. All wax has a flash point, so to prevent it bursting into flames, you must melt it in a double boiler, with water in the bottom pan. **Then**, prepare the mould with the wick. Thread the wick through the mould and make sure that you leave a good few centimetres sticking out of the hole in the bottom. **After that**, add the scent. If you want a scented candle, add a few drops of essential oil to the melted wax. You can use any essential oil you like, as long as it doesn't contain water. **Next step**, pour the wax into the mould. Try and tip the wax into the mould quickly, all in one go, to minimise spillage and air bubbles. **Then**, release the bubbles and top it up. Releasing the air bubbles will eventually make the candle sink, so you will need to top it up with more melted wax. **Finally**, remove it from the mould. After four or five hours, the candle can be taken out of its mould. Your candle is now ready for display. Remember, you must always leave it for a day before lighting it. (Source: www.englishdirection.com.)

e. Exercise

❖ Writing

Write a procedure text and identify its structures:

(Title).....	
Topic	
Materials needed
Steps to accomplish

❖ **Demonstrate the procedures and make reasonable statements to justify the steps in the procedure text below.**

How to Get an Egg Into a Bottle

With this you can amaze people and make them wonder “How in the world did that person get that egg in the bottle?”

Things You’ll Need:

A glass bottle with a large enough mouth to admit an egg (see “Tips”)

3 matches

A hard boiled egg, peeled

Safety goggles

A responsible adult

The Steps to Do:

1. Make sure the bottle has no liquid in the bottom of it and there are no flammable substances in it either.
2. Stand the glass bottle upright with the opening skywards.
3. Light three matches and drop them in the bottle. Wait a second or two.
4. Put the peeled, hard-boiled egg onto the bottle’s opening, wide end down.
5. Wait, after the matches go out, the egg will be pulled into the bottle.
(Source: www.wikihow.com/Get-an-Egg-into-a-Bottle)

❖ Vocabulary

Consult your dictionary to find the meaning and the pronunciation of the following words.

1. align the connectors
2. slide back the cover
3. lift the battery

4. slide the cover
5. insert the SIM card
6. snap into its place
7. pull the battery lock
8. switch off the phone
9. push the opposite end
10. switch on the phone

❖ Grammar

The following is the procedure of making Barbequed Kebobs. Fill in the blanks with sequence adverbials!

1. put charcoal in the barbeque and light it with lighter fluid.
2. cut up some meat and vegetables and put them in a bowl with your favorite barbeque marimade.
3. put the meat and vegetables on the skewers.
4. put he kebobs on the barbeque and cook for 10 to 15 minutes, turning them over from time to time.
5. take the kebobs off the barbeque and enjoy them.

4.2.5. Report Text

a. Social Function

The social function of a report text is to draw a general inference or to report. For example, a whale is a kind of mammal because it gives birth its calf. To make such a report, students need to observe and compare whales from other animals having similar characteristics. Students may also make a report about, for example, a very simple house, *warung tegal*, a school, a hospital, etc. by providing description of the subject.

b. Generic Structure

The generic structure of Report text refers to general statements which explain reported subject, additional information, and its classification.

Text Elements	Content
General statement	Definition, classification or a brief description.
Description	Description of the topic which tells about the important facts about the subject.

c. Language Features

The language features of Report Text include the following.

1. General nouns, such as 'Reptiles in Comodo Island'.
2. Relating verbs to explain features such as reptiles are scary animals (This feature is used for all reptiles).
3. Action verbs explaining characters such as lizards cannot fly.
4. Present Tense to express common thing, such as Comodo dragons usually weight more than 160 kg.
5. Tecnical terms such as water contains oxygen and hydrogen.
6. Paragraph with a topic sentence to organize informations.

d. Example of a Report Text

Platypus	
General statement	Many people call platypus duckbill because this animal has a bill like duckbill.
Description	Platypus is a native Tasmania and southern and eastern Australia. Platypus has a flat tail and webbed feet. Its body length is 30 to 45 cm and covered with a thick and woolly layer of fur. Its bill is detecting prey and stirring up mud. Platypus' eyes and head are small. It has no ears but has ability to sense sound and light. Platypus lives in streams, rivers, and lakes. Female platypus usually digs burrows in the streams or river banks. The burrows are blocked with soil to protect it from intruders and flooding. In the other hand, male platypus does not need any burrow to stay. (Source: www.englishdirection.com)

e. Exercise

❖ Vocabulary

Change these nouns to their singular forms

- | | | | |
|-------------|-------------|-------------|--------------|
| 1) teeth | 5) geese | 9) oases | 13) lives |
| 2) potatoes | 6) hooves | 10) dwarfs | 14) salaries |
| 3) radii | 7) women | 11) thieves | 15) diaries |
| 4) heroes | 8) luxuries | 12) mice | 16) sheep |

❖ Grammar

Arrange the following sentences into a good order of a report text. Correct the form of the verbs in the bracket.

1. Then the snake (open) its mouth and (move) the egg into its throat.
2. Snakes (eat) all sort things.
3. Then the snake (spit) out the egg shell.
4. Snakes (love) to eat eggs.
5. Eggs (be) favourite food of many snakes.
6. It (squeeze) the egg with muscles in its neck.
7. When a snake (eat) an egg, the snake first (curl) around the egg.
8. It (do) not (want) the egg to roll away.
9. The egg (break) and (go) into the snake's stomach.

4.2.6. Anecdote Text

a. Social Function

The social function of anecdotes is to tell funny and unusual stories and its main purpose is not only to get people entertained, but also to reveal a truth more general than the brief tale itself.

b. Generic Structure

Text Elements	Content
Abstract	Statements introducing the topic, closely related to the title and usually in the form of rhetorical question.
Orientation	The beginning of the story and introducing the setting of the events.
Crisis	The events/ incidents
Incident/reaction	The reaction/ response toward the events
Coda	Closing

c. Language Features

The language features in anecdotes commonly include the following indicators.

1. Exclamation words: *it's awful!, it's wonderful!, etc*
2. Imperative: *listen to this!*
3. Rhetoric questions: *do you know what?*
4. Action verb: *go, write, etc*
5. Conjunction of time: *then, afterward*
6. Simple Past Tense

d. Example of an Anecdote

Blessing behind Tragedy

There was a black family in Scotland years ago. They were Clark family with nine children. They had a dream to go to America. The family worked and saved. They were making a plan to travel with their children to America. It had taken several years but finally they had saved enough money. They had gotten passport. They had booked seats for the whole family member in a new liner to America.

The entire family was full of anticipation and excitement with their new life in America. However few days before their departure, the youngest son was bitten by a dog. The doctor sewed up the boy. Because of the possibility of getting rabies, they were being quarantined for long days. They were in quarantine when the departure time came. The family dreams were dashed. They could not make the trip to America as they had planned.

The father was full of disappointment and anger. He stomped the dock to watch the ship leave without him and his family. He shed tears of disappointment. He cursed both his son and God for the misfortune.

Five days later, the tragic news spread throughout Scotland. The ship, the mighty Titanic, had sank. It took hundreds of passengers and crews with it. Titanic which had been called the unsinkable ship had sunk. It was unbelievable but it was true.

The Clark family should have been on that ship, but because of the bitten son by a dog, they were left behind. When the father heard the news, he hugged the son and thanked him for saving the family. He thanked God for saving their lives. It was a blessing behind a tragedy. (Adapted from: Look Ahead 2/www.englishdirection.com)

Blessing behind Tragedy	
Abstract	Everybody has a dream. You have and so do I. When the dream will come true, there is something wrong last minute before it. What will we feel? What will we do?
Orientation	The Clark family lived in Scotland. They had dream to travel to America. They prepared well for their plan.
Crisis	Few days before they went to America, his youngest son was bitten by a dog. This made them being quarantined. They had to forget their plan.
Incident/reaction	The family was full of disappointment and anger. The father was angry with his son and God. The family failed to travel to America and the father could not accept it.
Coda	Clark thanked his son when he heard the ship sank. He thanked to God because of saving the family from sinking. He thought leaving behind the ship was not a tragedy but a blessing.

e. Exercise

❖ Vocabulary

Create adjectives from the following words by adding the suffixes -ful and -less. The first one has been done to help you.

1) pain	painful	painless
2) harm
3) tact
4) thought
5) grace
6) pity
7) mercy
8) care
9) help
10) doubt

❖ Grammar

Provide an adverb of which meaning matches with the words in brackets. The first one has been done to help you.

1. The residents were evacuated from the units safely (without danger)
2. They put the fire e... (without difficulty)
3. F.....,the fires were deliberately lit on (many occasion)
4. At first the hikers behaved p..... (with good manner)
5. The firebug started the fire d..... (on purpose)

4.2.7. Hortatory Text

a. Social Function

Hortatory is a type of text containing an argumentation which may lead readers to do something. This type of text generally provides logical reasoning of why readers should do something. To support their argumentation, writers may present facts, research findings, and theories. This text type is also called as an argumentative text which can be found in scientific books, journals, magazines, articles of newspaper, lectures, report of study, etc.

b. Generic Structure

Text elements	CONTENT
Thesis	The writer's opinion about the topic
Argumentative	Statements which show the writer's opinion about the topic supported by facts and evidence etc.
Recommendation	A recommendation from the writer to do something.

c. Language Features

The language of Hortatory text focuses on the writer or the writer's point of view with the following features:

1. Abstract noun; policy, advantage, etc
2. Action verbs
3. Thinking verbs
4. Modal adverbs; certainly, surely, etc
5. Temporal connectives; firstly, secondly, etc
6. Evaluative words; important, valuable, trustworthy, etc
7. Passive voice
8. Simple present tense

d. Example of a Hortatory Text

Why Should Wearing a Helmet when Motorcycling	
Thesis	We often hear lots of stories from road regarding people taking spill on motorcycle when they are riding without using helmet. Mostly the riders badly end up in mess.
Argumentative	<p>Wearing a fitted protective helmet offers many benefits which reduces the negative aspects of riding. First and the most important is that wearing the correct helmet can save a rider's life, physical ability, family pain, and money. The recommended designs of motorcycle helmets can provide total protection. They protect riders not only from getting a worse road injured accident but also from flying bugs, rain, sleet, mud and other potential projectiles.</p> <p>Second, wearing a helmet can give the riders a matter of style. Helmets give the opportunity for riders to express the image they may want to project when riding on their</p>

	way. This benefit may not be important to some people, but to others, it means a lot and important. By choosing the most appropriate helmet from all of the various styles, such as beanie, shortie, German, and many others, wearing a helmet which can project an image is an inherent crucial part of motorcycling and help riders feel more confident when riding on the road.
Recommendation	However, what most important is wearing a helmet when riding is a matter of using it properly. Bikers should use the helmets which are fixed to their head. It is really not good if they put simply the helmets on the head without setting them properly. The bikers should fasten the helmet correctly to their head in order to get safe and comfort. (Source: www.englishdirection.com)

e. Exercise

❖ Vocabulary

a). Synonym

Fill in the blanks with the synonyms in the brackets. The first letter of each word has been given to help you. The first one has been done for you.

1. a good start (beginning)
2. a terrible s..... (odour)
3. paid y (annually)
4. the ghost v (disappeared)
5. t.....to work harder (attempt)
6. the doctor's c (remedy)
7. a w street (broad)
8. a r.....window (beginning)
9. s.....behind (remind)
10. b something (purchase)

b). Based on the following text, identify suffixes in some words indicating nouns and adjectives.

Television for Social Construction

Television is today a part of daily life. It is not only a source of entertainment but also news and information. Television is also a valuable tool for science, education and industry. What makes television even more interesting is that action is accompanied by sound, so that we can see as well as hear what on the television. Today we can stay at home and enjoy entertainment that once could be seen only in cinema, theaters and sport arenas. Television enables to meet important people. It can bring important guests and important scene to receivers who are located anywhere. Television has a great influence on our idea about what is right and what is wrong. It influences the way which we should behave. Television has close related to our life in general. Some times the value and life style we get from television are in conflict with those that we get at home and school.

Critics point out that crime and TV show often appeal to taste for violence, while many games and quizzes appeal to greedy. It is important to suggest that television should be used for socially constructive purpose for the shake of better life. (Source: www.englishdirection.com).

❖ Grammar

1. Read the following Hortatory Exposition text and identify its generic structure.
2. Identify the passive voice used in the text.
3. Make a list of the arguments presented by the speaker in the text below (in simple sentences), which give reasons towards the statement that “character education is necessarily implemented in all level schools”.

Implementing Character Education in All level schools

Dear audience. Today I want to talk about The need for character education in school to create students who have a good personality.

Recently, when we watch news on television, listen to news at radio station, and read news in newspaper, we often know that there are many bad characters covered. We know bad characters showed such as bribery, corruption, fighting, smoking, consuming narcotics and alcohol and so on. Do you know why those bad characters happened?

I personally think that one of the answers is that character building in education is not taught or implemented by teachers to all students in their schools. As we all know that it is common in Indonesia that our education only stresses the knowledge aspects. So that student's moral and characters are ignored. So, to prevent bad characters of our students, all level schools must educate students not only knowledge and skills but also good character.

Actually, the ministry of education has classified that there are 9 pillars of character that should be implemented. They are First, the character of loving God and all His creation; second, independence and responsibility; Third, honesty / trust, diplomatically; Fourth, respect and courtesy; fifth, generous, like mutual help and mutual assistance / cooperation; sixth, confident and hardworking; seventh, leadership and justice; eighth, kind and humble, and; ninth, the character of tolerance, peace, and unity.

I do believe If those nine pillars are implemented at all level schools, our nation, Indonesia will be great nation with great people. On this occasion, I deliver three main arguments about character education which must be given in all level school in Indonesia.

First, character education is the real guarantee of Indonesia nation to become a great nation. Second, character education makes Indonesian are able to compete with those overseas people especially in the globalization era Third, character education helps our nation to be a great nation with great citizen.

As my speech closing, I recommend to all level schools in Indonesia to implement character building at their school. Good character building is a must. Do you know why? Yes, we know. We really know that our nation is sick now. To cure it, let's build our young generation characters into good characters by implementing 9 pillars of character mentioned before. (Source: www.englishdirection.com).

4.2.8. Spoof Text

a. Social Function

Spoof text tells a factual story which occurs in the past and ends in tragic, ironic, humorous/funny ending, or in an unpredictable twist. Twist is the ending plot of a story which is unpredictable. A spoof text can be very similar to narrative, recount, or even news item texts. All are mostly composed in Past Tenses mode. Its social function is to entertain and share the story.

b. Generic Structure

TEXT ELEMENTS	CONTENT
Orientation	Introduction to the person, setting
Events	The sequence of events
Twist	A twist to unpredictable ending

c. Language Features

The language features of Spoof text include the following.

1. Focusing on people, animals or certain things
2. Using action verb: **ate**, **ran**, *etc*
3. Using adverb of time and place

d. Example of a Spoof Text

The Zoo Job Story	
Orientation	One day a clown was visiting the zoo and attempted to earn some money by making a street performance.
Events	He acted and mimed perfectly some animal acts. As soon as he started to drive a crowd, a zoo keeper grabbed him and dragged him into his office. The zoo keeper explained to the clown that the zoo's most popular gorilla had died suddenly and the keeper was fear that attendance at the zoo would fall off. So he offered the clown a job to dress up as the gorilla until the zoo could get another one. The clown accepted this great opportunity. So the next morning the clown put on the gorilla suit and entered the cage before the crowd came. He felt that it was a great job. He could sleep all he wanted, played and made fun of people and he drove bigger crowds than he ever did as a clown. He pretended the gorilla successfully. However, eventually the crowds were tired of him for just swinging on tires. He began to notice that the people were

	<p>paying more attention to the lion in the next cage. Not wanting to lose the attention of his audience, he decided to make a spectacular performance. He climbed to the top of his cage, crawled across a partition, and dangled from the top to the lion's cage. Of course, this made the lion furious, but the crowd people loved it. At the end of the day the zoo keeper came and gave him a raise for being such a good attraction. Well, this went on for some time, he kept taunting the lion, the audience crowd grew a larger, and his salary kept going up.</p>
Twist	<p>Then one terrible day happened. When he was dangling over the furious lion, he slipped and fell into the lion cage. The clown was really in big terrible situation. He was terrified. Sooner the lion gathered itself and prepared to pounce. The clown was so scared. He could do nothing and he began to run round and round the cage with the lion close and closer behind. Finally, the lion could catch him. The clown started screaming and yelling, "Help me, help me!", but the lion was quick and pouncing him. The clown soon found himself flat on his back looking up at the angry lion and suddenly he heard a voice from the lion's mouth;"Shut up you idiot! Do you want to get us both fired?" (Re-written and simplified from www.onlyfunnystories.com)</p>

e. Exercise

❖ Vocabulary

Match up the adverbs on the left with their opposites on the right.

- | | |
|---------------|-----------|
| 1) Seldom | after |
| 2) Dimly | correctly |
| 3) Outside | coldly |
| 4) Loudly | often |
| 5) Roughly | inside |
| 6) Skillfully | weakly |
| 7) Wrongly | quietly |
| 8) Heavily | brightly |
| 9) Strongly | smoothly |
| 10) Warmly | clumsily |
| 11) Early | lightly |
| 12) Before | late |

❖ Grammar

1. List the adverbs of time used in the text above.
2. Rewrite the simple sentences in the text and combine them appropriately to form complex or compound sentences.

4.2.9. Explanation Text

a. Social Function

Explanation is a type of text which clarifies a process relating to natural phenomena, social science, and culture. The text explains why and how a certain phenomenon happened. The text is often found in science, geography, and history books.

b. Generic Structure

TEXT ELEMENTS	CONTENT
General statement	Stating the issues.
Sequenced explanation	Stating a series of steps which explain the phenomena

c. Language Features

The language features of Explanation text are as follows.

1. Chronological connection; to begin with, next, etc
2. Passive voice pattern
3. Simple Present Tense

d. Example of an Explanation Text

Text element	CANCER
General statement	What is cancer? It is actually a group of more than one hundred separate diseases. Most of us are fear from cancer. It is reasonable because next to heart disease, cancer is the second leading cause of death.
Sequenced explanations	Cancer cells come from normal cells because of mutations of DNA. Those mutations can occur spontaneously. The mutations may be also induced by other factors such as: nuclear and electromagnetic radiation, viruses, bacteria and fungi, parasites, heat, chemicals in the air, water and food, mechanical cell-level injury, free radicals, evolution and ageing of DNA, etc. All such factors can produce mutations that may start cancer. Cancer cells are formed continuously in the organism. It is estimated that there are about 10,000 cancer

	<p>cells at any given time in a healthy person. Why do some result in macroscopic-level cancers and some do not? First, not all damaged cells can multiply and many of them die quickly. Second, those which potentially divide and form cancer are effectively destroyed by the mechanisms available to the immune system. Therefore cancer develops if the immune system is not working properly or the amount of cells produced is too great for the immune system to eliminate.</p> <p>(Simplified from: www.digitalrecordings.com/publ/cancer.html)</p>
--	---

e. Exercise

❖ Writing

Write the main sequenced explanations (you may use your own words) dealing with the text about the cancer leading to the cause of death.

❖ Reading

How It Works

Frogs are delightful creatures. Our country is home to more than 220 named species and they can be found in almost any Australian landscape. Most frogs lay eggs on land or in the water. Then, after the eggs hatch, tadpoles enter the water for two weeks to six months depending on the temperature, before emerging as froglets (baby frogs). Not all frogs do this. The hippocket frog is a very interesting example of parental care. After the female hip-pocket frog has spawned, the male will lie her eggs and about eight tadpoles wriggle up into each pocket where they grow into baby frogs. Australia's two species of gastric brooding frogs are even more amazing. They swallow their fertilized eggs and hatch the tadpoles in their stomachs. Six weeks later the frogs emerge from their mother's mouth.

(source:<http://englishteachersmeeting.blogspot.com/2010/11/example-of-text.html>)

Answer the following questions based on the text above:

1. As the explanation begins, how do you know that the writer likes frogs?
2. What behaviour is common to most frogs?
3. What explanation is given for the fact that some tadpoles spend longer in the water than the other?
4. Why do some frogs have "hip pockets"?

4.2.10. Discussion Text

a. Social Function

A discussion text functions to provide information about controversial issues and present arguments from two sides: the pros and cons. This text is often closed with recommendation.

b. Generic Structure

TEXT ELEMENTS	CONTENT
Issue	Introduction to the topic of discussion/Statement of issue. This can include a question and the view of the author.
Argumentation for	Points/elaboration supported by evidence
Argumentation against	Points/elaboration supported by evidence
Recommendation	Summary/conclusion

c. Language Features

The language features of Discussion text focus on general topics of human and non human being which are characterized by the use of:

1. Simple Present Tense
2. Logical conjunctives like however, similarly, etc.
3. Thinking verbs like “feel, believe, hope, think, etc.
4. Adverbials of manner like deliberately, hopefully, etc.

d. Examples of Discussion Text

(1) National Exam in Pros and Cons

National exam becomes the hot topic in most of discussions. Though the Supreme Court has rejected an appeal by the government on the organization of the national exams, the controversy over whether it is necessary to maintain the national exams or *Ujian nasional* (UN) has continued. Some debates include the primary questions such as; does the quality of Indonesia education depend on the national exam?, will the quality of the Indonesian education system worsen without natipnal exam? People, who support the national exam explain that the quality of the Indonesia education system will drop without the national exam, so they try to defend the current system. Hoever there are people who disagree with the opinion. Those who against this national exam kept in our high school education say that it doesn't need the national exams because the quality of education does not just depend on the national exam. Further, the national exam only measures a small portion of students' competence in specific subjects, and does not measure students' competences throughout the semester. In fact, the national examination

can still be useful as an instrument to evaluate or detect the level of students' cognitive competence in several subjects, on a national scale.
(Taken from: www.englishdirection.com.)

(2) Television: the Best Invention of the Twentieth Century?

During the twentieth century the world has witnessed the invention of many amazing things. Television is a great invention, but there are arguments for and against whether it is the best invention of the twentieth century. Television was invented in the 1920s and first came to Australia in 1956. It has played an important role in communicating news. We can learn instantly about what is happening in the world because of television. Also, television has provided people with entertainment in their own homes. People in isolated areas can still feel part of the world because of television. For these reasons I feel that television could be considered the best invention of the twentieth century. On the other hand, there are other inventions that could be considered to be better than television. Some might argue that the computer should be awarded the distinction of being the best invention because computers have made life easier. Others might argue that medical inventions such as heart pacemakers are the best inventions because they help to save lives. It can be seen that there are reasons for and against television being considered the best invention of the twentieth century. After looking at both sides I still believe it is the best invention. (Taken from: www.englishdirection.com.)

e. Exercise

❖ Writing

Analyze the texts above based on its elements. Paraphrase the points of each element and write them in the following table.

Text element	CONTENT
Issue
Argumentation for
Argumentation against
Recommendation

❖ Vocabulary

Underline and replace the weak words in the sentences below with the powerful words from the available mini-thesaurus below.

1. It was a nice day to go to the beach.
2. It was a really good movie.
3. The cheese was bad.
4. She played a really bad character in the play.
5. The apple pie was really nice.
6. I had a really nice time at the pool.
7. Sitting in the heat was a really bad experience.
8. He is really good at soccer.
9. Paying \$99.9 was really good value for a pair of Reeboks.
10. She had a bad opinion of the movie.

MINI-THESAURUS	
Bad	Tedious, evil, wicked, vile, unfavorable, faulty, imperfect, rotten, unpleasant
Good	Fantastic, marvelous, exceptional, wonderful, fabulous, remarkable, outstanding
Nice	agreeable, pleasant, delightful, enjoyable, delicious, well-mannered, well-spoken, tasty, panoramic, fine

❖ Grammar

Change the following sentences from Past Tense into timeless Present Tense. The first one is done for you.

- | | | |
|----|---|-------------------|
| 1. | There was an earthquake last year. | Earthquake occurs |
| 2. | He was riding the bike | |
| 3. | She wore shoes | |
| 4. | the water flowed to the sea | |
| 5. | The curtain determined how much light entered the room. | |
| 6. | The accelerator controlled he speed of the car. | |

4.2.11. News Item Text

a. Social Function

News item text is a written public information of which the purpose is to inform readers about events of the day which are considered newsworthy or important. Basically, a news item text answers the 5W and 1H questions: what, who, when, where, why, and how relating to the newsworthy.

b. Generic Structure

The generic structure of News Item Text includes newsworthy event, elaboration of background /background event(s), and sources.

Text Elements	Content
Newsworthy event	Event which is considered as newsworthy. The newsworthy event is commonly placed at the first paragraph.
Elaboration of background/ Background event(s)	The detail information of the newsworthy event or the external background which closely relates to newsworthy event.
Sources	The closing statements, ranging from the participants, witness, and the official authorities.

c. Language Features

News Item Text focuses on the *circumstances* and the *use of material process*. In a functional description, circumstance refers to the adverbial group and the prepositional phrase as constituent structures in a clause (Halliday's term instead of 'sentence') besides participant, and process. Meanwhile, process refers to verbal groups showing the expression of events in a clause. This includes whatever is happening, acting, doing, sensing, saying, or simply being. There are three basic types of process: material, relational, and projecting. Material processes are about doing; they could answer the question 'What did X do?' or 'What happened to X?' (Butt, et.al. 1998: 48-56). The language features of News Item text focus on general topics of human and non human being. It is characterized by the dominant use of:

1. Short, telegraphic information about story captured in headline
2. Action verbs
3. Saying verbs

4. Adverbs : time, place and manner.

d. Examples of News Item Text

(1) Camp Rock 2 the final Jam will Premieres on Disney Channel

It was announced on Tuesday that Disney Channel movie with tourmate Demi Lovato, "Camp Rock 2: The Final Jam," will premiere on September 3 at 8 p.m. ET. On July 27, long before they watch the sequel to the 2008 flick, fans can pick up the soundtrack, featuring 15 original songs that a press release promises will span genres from hip-hop to rock to pop. The flick will not only have more summer lovin' between real-life couple Lovato and Joe Jonas as Mitchie and Shane, but there will also be a little friendly rivalry between the Camp Rockers and a group of musicians at another summer camp, Camp Star, including a love interest for Nick Jonas, played by Chloe Bridges. The JoBros promise the movie's music will be every bit as entertaining as its plot, which has been kept a secret since the movie was shot. "The songs are really cool," Joe told MTV News. (Simplified from: www.hollywoodreporter.com/hr/film-reviews/2012-film-review-1004041300.story/ www.englishdirection.com)

(2) Three Die after Attending Marriage Ceremony

Three residents were killed, while dozens of others were wounded after a pickup truck they were taking to attend a marriage ceremony overturned in Jingkang village, Banyumas Regency, on Sunday. The pickup was carrying 30 passengers, mostly women, when it failed to ascend a steep road on its way back from the ceremony. As a result, the passengers were squeezed. The wounded passengers were later rushed to the Ajibarang regional public hospital. Local police are investigating the cause of the accident (Taken from Jakarta Post).

e. Exercise

❖ Writing

Choose and analyze the texts below (1) or (2) based on its elements. Paraphrase the points of each element and write them in the table.

(1) Egypt Peacefully Transitions to Military Dictatorship

CAIRO, EGYPT - Following the resignation of President Hosani Mubarak, pro-democracy demonstrators quietly watched as the military dissolved parliament and suspended the constitution. "We have gotten rid of an autocrat," said one demonstrator. "Egypt now has a military junta like many nations in South America." The government will report to the Supreme Council of the Armed Forces, who have vowed to hold free election in 'six months or more.'" According to Prime Minister Ahmed Shafiq, military leaders haven't threatened to shoot anyone, should the nation not return to normality. "That's quite a big concession," said Shafiq. "This shows the army cares deeply and is very sincere." Crowds in Tahrir Square were heartened by the news. One man wept

openly. "For years we were under the boot of a tyrant (Mubarak) and now we're ruled by the military who have promised not to shoot us. I'm so glad I have Twitter."

(2) Japanese Urged to Try Rioting

NEW ORLEANS, LA - Frustrated by televised scenes of orderly Japanese waiting for water and other supplies, a New Orleans resident has urged the Japanese people to riot. "What are they waiting for?" said Charles Green, 41. "A written invitation?" Green felt that by refraining from looting and attacking fellow citizens the Japanese were missing out on a golden opportunity to shake loose some tension." Green referred to images of police helping Japanese victims instead of ransacking a store and fleeing with lap tops. "Short-sighted," said Green. "That's free stuff. Plus rioting is like a good long run. It releases what I call 'riot endorphins.'" Green hoped the U.S. government would dispatch self-absorbed, unruly Americans to Japan. "They could teach those Japanese to loosen up a little." Green thought Charlie Sheen would be a good choice as well as a large portion of the Wisconsin Teacher's Union.

Text elements	Content
Newsworthy event
Elaboration of background
Source.

❖ Vocabulary

a. Make a list of words identified as material process in the text a) and b) above; then replace them by other closely related words.

<p>.....,,,,,,, etc.</p>
--

b. Write and explain the category of circumstances (the adverbial groups and the prepositional phrases) to occur in the following sentences.

1. An unidentified man became a hero in Argentina on Tuesday February 09.

2. The video shows the man jump of the back of motorcycle and push a white van across the tracks.
3. The train narrowly missed him.
4. After a brief discussion with the man driving the motorcycle, he got back on the motorcycle and the two drove away.
5. Two people died while four others were wounded in a landslide at a yard behind a house near Teleng market in Bukittinggi, West Sumatra on Tuesday.
6. The injured were rushed to the Achmad Muchtar and Yarsi hospitals.
7. An Indonesian migrant worker Munti Binti Bani has died on Monday after being hospitalized for several days due to alleged torture by her employees in Selangor, Malaysia.

❖ Grammar

Change the following sentences into the stated affirmatives.

1. Should the U.S. Navy be used to evacuate American nationals caught inside Libya?
2. Has the President's response to the crisis been tepid in you opinion?
3. "We have gotten rid of an autocrat," said one demonstrator.
4. Is there a reason you're jumping on that staffer's back?e) Don't thank me.
5. "My cancer is much better now," said al-Megrahi.
6. "What are they waiting for?" said Charles Green, 41.
7. According to Prime Minister Ahmed Shafiq, military leaders haven't threatened to shoot anyone, should the nation not return to normality.

4.2.12. Review Text

a. Social Function

The social function of Review text is to make a critique or evaluate an art work or event for a public audience, such book, cosmetics product, car, cell phone, notebook, etc.

b. Generic Structure

The generic structure of Review text involves orientation, evaluation, interpretative recount, evaluation, and evaluative summation.

Text Elements	Business Loan Program
Orientation	Many of us want to build new business or manage the old one to make big development. Business plan has been analyzed. The property and equipment have been listed.
Evaluation	However this good plan and preparation will not run well without enough cash in hands. What we have to do when we have to face such condition? Will we give up and sleep leaving that good plan and preparation? We should not. When there is a will there is a way. The answer is finding Business Loans program which offer the best service.
Interpretative Recount	Easy process is one of the characteristics. Of course we do not want to apply the loan in complicated process. Some programs offer the easy service in processing but some time they do not give funding quickly. In the other hand we do need the cash for running our business.
Evaluation	The best program of Business Loan will provide easy process in application, fund quickly as we urgently need the cash and provide the excellent service with fully customer support.
Evaluative Summation	So if you have found such program, apply soon to increase your own business profit.

c. Language feature

1. Focus on specific participants, i.e. the characters being involved in the text.
2. Using adjectives, i.e. indicated by suffixes, such as: -ish, -ive, -ful, -ous, -al, etc.
3. Using long and complex clauses, i.e. mind the types of sentence.
4. Using metaphor, i.e. comparing two things using different characteristics.

d. Example of a Review Text

2012 Film Review

2012 is Roland Emmerich's film which uses the Mayan calendar and other end-of-days prophecies for their doomsday scenario. It imagines the world coming to an end in 2012.

2012 film brings off a series of wonders. The movie hits its peak early on. It starts when Cusack drives a limo through the streets of Los Angeles as freeways and skyscrapers crumble all around him from the shock of a 10.5 earthquake. The preposterous flying sequence is equally thrilling. The climax occurs aboard the giant ark, when an equipment malfunction almost threatens the entire mission.

Unfortunately, the crucial sequence is not filmed or edited with the requisite clarity. In 2012 film, Emmerich leaves us befuddled as to exactly what is happening to whom. However, Emmerich' 2012 deserves credit for offbeat casting. Cusack supplies his trademark hangdog charm. McCarthy has perhaps his best role ever as Peet's cocky. Danny Glover lends dignity to the role of the tormented president. Chiwetel Ejiofor, as

the chief scientist, brings a moving sense of anguish to a stock role. Platt has fun playing the villain of the piece, and Woody Harrelson also chews the scenery as a bug-eyed radio prophet trying to warn his listeners about Armageddon.

All in one, 2012's cinematography, production design and visual effects are awards-worthy. Music also propels the movie. It presents American Idol runner-up, Adam Lambert, who provides a rousing anthem over the end credits.

(Simplified from: www.hollywoodreporter.com/hr/film-reviews/2012-film-review-1004041300.story)

e. Exercise

❖ Writing

What are the generic structures of the text entitled “2012 Film Review” above?

❖ Vocabulary

1. Identify the words of material process in the text entitled “2012 Film Review” above.
2. Fill in the blanks in the text below with the available words in the list. The initial letters will be helpful.

Zeni Optical: a site for eyeglasses

Eyeglasses will **b....** more and more important. It is not only because for **p.....** our eyes from the hot **l....** but also for holding the trend. There are a lot of online sites which provides **p.....** of eyeglasses but “Zenni Optical was on FOX news!” is just the perfect one.

If we visit the site, we will easily catch **v....** information about eyeglasses. The site is quite simple but very informative. It is real, easy and not **c.....** design. With quick loading this site will bring us **q.....** in to what we want.

There is information about Variable Dimension Frames From Zenni. Titanium, aluminum and rimless **f....** are available. The eyeglasses are designed for different users. **E.....** for children, woman and man are available choice. Again, what makes it different is this site gives the Great Eyeglasses For Less cost. The product can be **s....** in cheap price because it has cut the marketing link. It straightly goes to the end **u....** .

The List of Words:

products, various, frame, users, protecting, become, light, eyeglasses, sold, quickly, complicated
--

❖ Grammar

a) What are the types of the following sentences?

1. 2012 is Roland Emmerich's film which uses the Mayan calendar and other end-of-days prophecies for their doomsday scenario.
2. It imagines the world coming to an end in 2012.
3. 2012 film brings off a series of wonders.
4. The movie hits its peak early on.
5. It starts when Cusack drives a Limo through the streets of Los Angeles as freeways and skyscrapers crumble all around him from the shock of a 10.5 earthquake.
6. The preposterous flying sequence is equally thrilling.
7. The climax occurs aboard the giant ark, when an equipment malfunction almost threatens the entire mission.
8. The site is quite simple but very informative.
9. The product can be sold in cheap price because it has cut the marketing link.
10. It straightly goes to the end users.

b). Build different sentences by using the various forms of words below.

1. Imagination; imagine; imaginative
2. Science, scientist, scientific, scientifically
3. Equal, equally, equality
4. Inform, informative, information, informatively
5. Red, redder, reddish

4.2.13. Analytical Exposition Text

a. Social Function

Analytical exposition and hortatory are arguments which present a thesis or opinion with supporting evidence. An analytical exposition presents the argument in such a way that it sounds like the writer is an authority on the subject and so it does not use first person pronoun (e.g. I, we or us), or extravagant language or cliches; whilst a hortatory or persuasive exposition presents the argument in a much more flowery and flamboyant manner, like the personal opinion of the writer. Examples of analytical expositions are

found in the discussion of a scientific experiment report or reports of business projects. The social function of an analytical exposition text is to reveal readers that something is the important case.

b. Generic Structure

The generic structure of an analytical exposition text consists of thesis, arguments, and reiteration/conclusion.

Text Elements	Is Smoking Good for Us?
Thesis	Before smoking, it is better to look at the fact. About 50 thousands people die every year in Britain as direct result of smoking. This is seven times as many as those die in road accidents. Nearly a quarter of smokers die because of diseases caused by smoking.
Arguments	Ninety percent of lung cancers are caused by smoking. If ones smoke five cigarettes a day, they are six times more likely to die of lung cancer than a non smoker. If people smoke twenty cigarettes a day, the risk is nineteen greater. Ninety five percent of people who suffer of bronchitis are people who are smoking. Smokers are two and half times more likely to die of heart disease than non smokers.
Reiteration	Additionally, children of smoker are more likely to develop bronchitis and pneumonia. In one hour in smoky room, non smoker breathes as much as substance causing cancer as if he had smoked fifteen cigarettes.
Conclusion	Smoking is really good for tobacco companies because they do make much money from smoking habit. Smoking however is not good for every body else.

c. Language Features

The language of Analytical exposition includes the following:

1. Modals
2. Action verbs
3. Thinking verbs
4. Adverbs
5. Adjective
6. Technical terms
7. General and abstract noun

8. Connectives/transition

d. Examples of Analytical Exposition text

(1) Is Smoking Good for Us?

Before smoking, it is better to look at the fact. About 50 thousands people die every year in Britain as direct result of smoking. This is seven times as many as die in road accidents. Nearly a quarter of smokers die because of diseases caused by smoking.

Ninety percent of lung cancers are caused by smoking. If ones smoke five cigarettes a day, they are six times more likely to die of lung cancer than a non smoker. If they smoke twenty cigarettes a day, the risk is nineteen greater. Ninety five percent of people who suffer of bronchitis are people who are smoking. Smokers are two and half times more likely to die of heart disease than non smokers.

Additionally, children of smoker are more likely to develop bronchitis and pneumonia. In one hour in smoky room, non smoker breathes as much as substance causing cancer as if he had smoked fifteen cigarettes.

Smoking is really good for tobacco companies because they do make much money from smoking habit. Smoking however is not good for every body else. (source: www.englishdirection.com)

(2) Is It Important to Choose an Accredited School?

Most of teenagers need to go to school and there are a lot of schools over there. Nowadays, schools grow to offer plenty of choice; private and state ones. However it is a hard choice since there are many factors which need to be considered before making the selection. Some will be influenced by friends; because some friend got to certain school than we go to there too. Some prefer to choose certain school because of the closer distance. In fact, the primary decisive matter for selecting school is whether the school has been accredited or not. Why is important to choose an accredited school?

Well, accredited schools have an edge over the unaccredited schools. This label of Accredited School has an impact in employment opportunities. As result, if there are two or more students with similar qualifications, the student who comes from the accredited school will have an edge over the other candidate. Student from an accredited school has more open door than student with an accredited one.

Many students select certain school depending more on short term factors like friend influence and short distance from home. It is not bad since commuting actually needs much cost. Choosing school which is closer to home will save time, energy and money. However if that school is not accredited, the time and money spent along studying seems to be waste in the long term because it could become a limiting factor in gaining future opportunities.

Accredited school is not the only factor which will drive student's success. Personality and characterization are very important too. However a student with good personality who comes from an accredited school is better than the others.

e. Exercise

❖ Writing

Find the generic structures of the text below and put them in the table?

Controlling Children Using Computer

Computer and internet are useful as well as powerful. Information about health and safe usage of computer and Internet, especially for children, should be owned by each family. Computer connected to internet is powerful way to socialize with others. It can be good but also bad effect. Recently we hear a lot of children get the advantage of social networking sites but we often see the news about the disadvantage of it for children. Healthy and safety of computer and Internet usage should continue to be campaigned.

The role of parent in assisting and directing children in using computer is very necessary. Installation of software monitor such as key logger which has function to watch and note all activities relating to keyboard usage is helpful but not enough to protect children from potential harms. Children tend to hide what they have done in front of the computer to their parent. They see that all of they have done are their privacy and no one may know.

We can not prevent children from using computer because it is multifunctional. However, many parents worry about what their kids do in front of the computer; whether they are doing homework or even just playing games. Or spending all time to surf internet which is the materials do not fit with his age. There is a tendency, especially teenagers, want to become acquainted with many strangers out side. The lack parental supervision of children's activities is likely to pose a potential danger to them. So parental monitor against the use of computers needs to be done from time to time. (Source: www.englishdirection.com).

Text Elements	Controlling Children Using Computer
Thesis
Arguments
Reiteration
Conclusion

❖ Vocabulary

- a). Fill in the blanks with words in the categories, and continue with different words for the rest.

No.	Noun	Verb	Adjective	Adverb
1.	personality
2.	characterize
3.	different
4.	supportively
5.	prevent
6.	analysis
7.	personal
8.	actually
9.
10.
11.
12.

- b). Identify the words which show the materials process in the text “Is Smoking Good for Us?”, and which show the circumstances in the text “Is It Important to Choose an Accredited School?” above.

❖ Grammar

- Write down the **paraphrases** of the underlined sentences/clauses in the following text, by changing/ avoiding the use of the participants “I/ We”.
- Change the underlined sentences/ clauses into any types of phrases, if possible.

The Power of Music in our Life

Do you agree that music is important in our life? (1) Yes I do, music has certain role completing our day to day activities. Here are some reasons why music is heard everywhere and anywhere.

(2) Music is a way to express feelings. When we fall in love, the kind of music we’d listen to would be all about love. When we’re sad, we would go for music that is melancholic in nature and immerse ourselves in the sadness. (3) When we’re happy, we’d choose songs with happy tunes too.

(4) Song can help to memorize the last experiences. A favorite song is a powerful documentary. People with Alzheimer which are impaired the brain would remember details about songs they were familiar with. For example, an elderly woman who couldn’t even remember her husband’s name would remember the details of her favorite song; (5) when it was played, the song made her feel things about that made it especially

memorable for her.

(6) Further, music can unite people for a cause and changes the world. A song with good lyric and striking deep chord can stimulate the universal feeling of all people. (7) We can see it in the case of the famous and legendary Michael Jackson's Heal the World. It can arouse humanism of a lot people in this world. (8) So what would the world be like without music? It would be lonely.

The paraphrases of sentence/clause are the following:

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.
6.
7.
8.

4.3. Summary

This chapter presents the kinds of text in the forms of essay that can be called as long functional texts. Sometime a few texts share relationship one to another; though, we can still draw their differences. The types of text or genres commonly studied in high school are narration (narrative text), description (descriptive text), and argumentation (argumentative text). Narration includes narrative, recount, and news item texts; description includes report, descriptive, and explanation texts; while argumentation includes analytical exposition, hortatory, and discussion texts.

Narrative texts narrate or retell stories or events in spoken or written language of which social function is to entertain readers. They may cover legends, fables, stories of man vs. Animal, love stories, or other folktales. Their generic structures include orientation, events that lead to climax (complication), and resolution. A more closely related text are narrative and recount texts.

Recount texts tell past events occurred in a sequence. The similarity between narrative and recount text is that both tell the past events so they use Past Tense, either Simple Past Tense or Past Perfect Tense. Besides, they use sequence of time in telling the past events. If narrative text is commonly found in story books including myths, fabel, folklores, etc, recount text is found within biography. The difference of the two lies in their structures. Narrative texts raise conflicts within the events; the conflicts of which are natural, social, or psychological. Recount texts do not include conflicts but only retell a sequence of events. The generic structures of recount text are orientation, events, and closing (reorientation).

Descriptive text is the one which portrays the image of a certain thing from which a writer wants to transfer it to readers. Most descriptive texts depict or describe the image of persons, animals, things, and places of which social function is to inform readers about persons, places, or somethings in specific ways. The generic structures of descriptive text contain identification and description. A descriptive text can be seen as a report text, because it can sometimes be included in report text. Nevertheless descriptive text describes things elaboratively to the detail whilst a report text only describes something in general.

Report text describes something in general. In report text, there will be a description of something, or ones being reported. The social function of report text is to report something as inference being generally described. For example, a whale is a kind of mammal because it gives birth its calf. To make such a report, reporters need to observe and compare whales from other animals having similar characteristics.

Procedures text is a form of text consisting of the steps or stages along with the requirements required to reach a certain target. The social function of procedure texts is to give instructions for making or doing something. The generic structures of procedure text include the goal, materials needed, and steps to accomplish.

The social function of Anecdotes is to tell funny and unusual stories of which main purpose is not only to entertain people, but also to reveal a truth more general than the brief tale itself. The generic structures of anecdotes consist of abstract, orientation, crisis, incident/ reaction, and coda.

The social function of Hortatory text is to lead readers to do something by using certain ways. It also explains why readers should do something. To support the explanation, writers will provide arguments to the proposed ideas. Hortatory text is also known as argumentative text which can be found in scientific books, journals, magazines, articles of newspaper, lectures, report of study, etc. The generic structures of hortatory text are thesis, argumentative, and recommendation.

Spoof is a text which tells factual stories occurred in the past which ended in a tragic ironic ending, humorous/funny ending, or unpredictable ending twist. Twist is the ending plot of the story which is unpredictable. A spoof text can be very similar to narrative, recount, or even news item texts. All are mostly composed in Past Tenses mode. The social function of spoof text is to entertain and share stories. The generic structures of spoof text include orientation, events, and twist.

Explanation text is a type of text which explains a process relating to natural phenomena, social science, and culture. It commonly explains why and how a certain phenomenon happened. The text is often found in science, geography, and history books. The generic structures of explanation text contain general statement and sequenced explanation.

Discussion text functions to send information about something controversial and to present arguments from different sides. This text is closed with a recommendation. Discussion text is mostly related to the Analytical Exposition in having arguments, but they are different in their ending: the former provides a recommendation while the latter draws a conclusion. The generic structures of discussion text involve issue, argumentation for, argumentation against, and recommendation.

News item text is a written for public information of which purpose is to inform readers about events of the day which are considered newsworthy or important. Basically, a news item text answers the 5W and 1H questions: what, who, when, where, why, and how relating to the newsworthy events. The generic structures of news item text consist of newsworthy event, elaboration of background/ background events, and sources.

The social function of Review text is to make a critique or evaluation to art works or events for public. The generic structures of Review text include orientation, evaluation, interpretive recount, evaluation, and evaluative summation.

The social function of an Analytical Exposition text is to inform readers that something is in the important case. Like hortatory text, it presents arguments including a thesis or opinion along with supporting evidences. Analytical Exposition presents arguments in such a way in which the writer sounds to represent an authority on the subject and it does not use first person pronoun (e.g. I, we or us), or extravagant language or cliches. Meanwhile hortatory or persuasive exposition presents arguments in a much more flowery and flamboyant manner, which sound like the personal opinions of the writer. Analytical expositions are found in the discussion of a scientific experiment report or reports of business projects. The generic structures of Analytical Exposition text are thesis, arguments, reiteration, and conclusion.

4.4. How to Teach Long Functional Texts

Below is the example of how to teach a Report text. The title of the text is “Human Body Energy”. The lesson plan is not fully presented; instead, it only presents the part in the learning procedures of a lesson plan, especially after the introduction. The forms of main activities include exploration, elaboration, and confirmation.

1. Exploration

Task 1 (about 5 minutes)

Initiation: Teacher demonstrates the way how to breathe slowly and students are required to practice it by imitating the teacher. While breathing slowly, the students are expected to answer the questions:

- a. What are we doing right now? (see the initiation above)
- b. If machine needs fuel to operate, what do we need in the process of breathing?
- c. What will happen when we stop breathing?
- d. Have you ever imagined from where human energy is taken?

Task 2 (about 5 minutes)

You are going to read a text about “Human Body Energy”. What information do you expect from the text?

- a. _____
- b. _____
- c. _____
- d. _____

Task 3 (about 5 minutes)

Read the following text, and check whether you can find the information you expected (in task 2)

Human Body Energy

Human body is actually a living machine and is like all other machines. This living machine needs fuel to supply it with energy. The fuel is provided by the food which we eat. However do we know how much we need to stay healthy? The energy value of food is usually measured in calories. A calorie is the amount of heat which is required to raise the temperature of 1 kg of water by 1 degree C. The number of calories which people need per day varies. It depends on the activity which the people are involved in. For example; people will need more calories for standing than for sitting, people need more for running than for walking, etc. The energy which is provided by food is in the form of three kinds of chemical substances. They are carbohydrate, protein and fat. Carbohydrate provides 8.8 calories per gram (cal/gm) of

energy, protein 4.0 cal/gm and fat 8.0 cal/gm. Each food contains different proportion of these substances. These three chemical substances are all important for body staying healthy. (Source: www.englishdirection.com).

2. Elaboration

Task 1 (about 30 minutes)

Make a group of three (or five). Do exercises 1-5 by discussing them with your friends.

Exercise 1

Answer the following questions based on the text.

- a. What is the analogy discussed in the text above?
- b. Why is the significant of energy for human body?
- c. What is calorie?
- d. Does everyone need the same amount of calories per day? Why?
- e. What substances are important to keep ones healthy?
- f. Explain the difference between calorie and energy.
- g. How many sentences are there in the text?

Exercise 2

What do the following pronouns refer to in the text?

- a. this (sentence 2) : _____
- b. it (sentence 8) : _____
- c. these (sentence 14) : _____

Exercise 3

Match the words in column A (taken from the text) and their meanings in column B.

A	B
1. supply	a. contains
2. healthy	b. increase
3. raise	c. restore
4. number	d. three
5. provides	e. amounts
	f. good stamina

Exercise 4

Reread the text intensively and examine how the text is developed and organized.

- a. What is being reported in the text?

- b. What is being described in detail?
- c. What does the type of paragraph development the text has?
- d. What is the generic function of the text?
- e. Build sentence(s) by giving example(s) of describing one or two technical terms.

Task 2 (about 20 minutes)

Each group presents the results of the group discussion. The other groups give their responses or comments.

3. Confirmation (about 15 menit)

In this phase, teacher gives feed back and response to students' presentation. This is to confirm whether or not their answers are correct. The confirmation also helps them to support their strategies of reasoning. The teacher should explain that a paragraph can be developed in various ways, e.g. by defining, using analogy, comparing and contrasting, using examples, and clarifying details.

More Exercises

The following genres or text types are taken from [http: www. understanding english/www.englishdirection.com](http://www.understandingenglish/www.englishdirection.com). Identify the types of the text and give your reasons.

(1). "Naruto and Hinata"

Naruto was walking alone in the Konoha village, he saw Hinata and waved to her. Fortunately, Hinata turned around and walked over to him. "Hey, Hinata, would you like to take a walk with me?" Naruto asked smilingly but Hinata blushed and looked down, quiet for a second. "Hm? What's wrong?" Naruto ask looking at her. "Oh! Um nothing Naruto kun. I... I love to.. walk with with you." Hinata said shyly. Naruto placed his hands behind his head and smiled. Hinata walked by him as the two were silent for a moment. "Hinata, why are you so quiet all the time?" Naruto broke the silent. Hinata didnt answer, then hesitated, "....I.... I've... always... been... that way." She said softly. "I see. You need to talk more-- how am I supposed to know more about you, if you don't talk. You're always acting weird around me." Naruto pointed out. Hinata looked at him shyly then looked down looking ashamed. "S.....sorry. I--" "Hm?" Naruto replied not opening his mouth. "I.... I l--li....like y.. you!" She said finally committing her feelings. Her face blushed a deep red. Naruto stopped walking. He didn't know what to say. Silence took ove the moment. Tears filled in Hinata's eyes "S-sorry!" She said in a quiet tone as she took off running, ashamed. Tears flew from her eyes as she ran passed. Naruto ran after her. But Hinata ran fast. Suddenly She tripped on a tree stump. Her face implanted in the dirt, as her hands clenched the grass and dirt. She sobbed quietly.

Naruto finally caught up to her. He crouched down, placed his hand, shaking on Hinatas shoulder. "Hinata... do... do you really like me?" He asked in his quiet tone. Under her muffled crying voice, Hinata answered, "y...yes..." Naruto didn't answer for a moment, then he replied, "Well... I have...feelings for you too.... I like you, Hinata"

(2). Why Eiffel Tower was Built

If we talk about the Wonders of the World buildings, then we will see Eiffel Tower is one of them. However many of us do not know the tower's past history on why it was build. Everything has the reasonable background, especially for the tower which is to be one of the most recognized buildings in the world.

Primarily, the Eiffel Tower was built for the World Exhibition. It was called Paris Exposition in 1889. The exhibition was organized to celebrate the 100th anniversary of the French Revolution. The purpose of building Eiffel Tower in such structure was to show to the world France's advancement of technology and beauty. The Eiffel Tower was designed by Gustave Eiffel. It seemed that then the name of the tower was derived from the designer's last name, "Eiffel"

Another reason on why the tower was built was for scientific progress. Although few realized it, the Eiffel Tower would become the prominent structure in terms of science and technology. Many experiment with temperature, pressure and pendulums were performed atop the unique famous building. Additionally the Eiffel Tower was used for radio transmission tower. Many experiments were conducted atop the Eiffel Tower for radio transmission advancement. Once the Eiffel Tower was proposed to be demolished but it was spared because the tower had the promising future as a radio tower.

(Simplified from <http://ezinearticles.com/>)

(3). "Honey, What is for Supper?"

An elderly gentleman of 85 feared his wife was getting hard of hearing. So one day he called her doctor to make an appointment to have her hearing checked. The Doctor made an appointment for a hearing test in two weeks, and meanwhile there's a simple informal test the husband could do to give the doctor some idea of the state of her problem.

"Here's what you do," said the doctor. "Start out about 40 feet away from her, and in a normal conversational speaking tone see if she hears you. If not, go to 30 feet, then 20 feet, and so on until you get a response."

That evening, the wife is in the kitchen cooking dinner, and he's in the living room. He says to himself, "I'm about 40 feet away, let's see what happens." Then in a normal tone he asks, "Honey, what's for supper?"

No response.

So the husband moved to the other end of the room, about 30 feet from his wife and repeats, "Honey, what's for supper?"

Still no response.

Next he moves into the dining room where he is about 20 feet from his wife and asks, "Honey, what's for supper?"

Again he gets no response.

So he walks up to the kitchen door, only 10 feet away. "Honey, what's for supper?"

Again there is no response.

So he walks right up behind her. “Honey, what's for supper?”
“Damn it Earl, for the fifth time, CHICKEN!”

(4). Acer Iconia Tab A100

While the 10-inch tablet market is very crowded and highly competitive right now, when it comes to 7-inch powerful and reliable slates, there are still some gaps that need to be filled. The Iconia Tab A100 wants to do just that, being a very interesting, portable and snappy gadget.

Design and display

When talking about 7-inch tablets, the aspect is very important. The Tab A100 does not disappoint from this point of view, being elegant and classy. The front face is surrounded by glossy black plastic, while the back of the tablet is a dark gray plastic with Acer's logo in the middle. In terms of portability, the Iconia Tab A100 is also a more than a satisfying device, being about the same size and weight as the HTC Flyer, for example.

The 7-inch touchscreen with 1024x600 pixels resolution offers great image quality, contrast and brightness, but does more of a mediocre job when talking about viewing angles. Still, the display is overall decent and holds the comparison with the HTC Flyer or the Samsung Galaxy Tab 7.

Performance and software

The Iconia Tab A100 features the already classic Nvidia Tegra 2 dual-core processor with 1 GB of RAM memory and is therefore at least as snappy and powerful as any other 7 or 10-inch tablet on the market right now. The cameras are surprisingly decent, the 2 MP front-facing and the 5 MP rear-facing devices offering pretty much the best image quality you might hope to find on a slate.

In terms of software, Acer's 7-inch tablet is set to be a pioneer, being the first slate of its category to be powered by the Android Honeycomb OS. Not only that, but it will run on the latest 3.2 version of the operating system, which means that you will get loads of apps and snappy performance.

Connectivity and pricing

The Iconia Tab A100 is set to feature WiFi and Bluetooth compatibility, as well as a micro-USB port and a micro SD slot card. It would have been perfect if it would have featured HDMI as well, but still it is pretty decent for a 7-inch tablet.

As far as pricing is concerned, the Acer Iconia Tab A100, which has not yet been released on the market, will be available for 329 dollars(the 8 GB version) or for 349 dollars(the 16 GB version). This is consistently less than HTC Flyer's or Blackberry Playbook's prices, to name two of the important 7-inch tablets right now.

Wrap-up

While the Iconia Tab A500 is still struggling to become one of the important names in the tablets' world, the from this Android tablet review it looks like a winner right away. Packing good technical specifications, as well as a decent display and a revolutionary software for a 7-inch tablet, Acer's new slate also comes at an affordable price tag and will probably mesmerize technology fanatics all around the world.

(5). Kinds of Earthquake

Earthquake often happens around us. It brings great damages. Earthquake is hard to be predicted and that makes lot victims. Actually there are three kinds of earthquake. This kinds of earthquake are commonly base on the factor and geological area where the earthquakes happen. These three kinds of earthquake are tectonic, volcanic and explosion. Tectonic earthquakes is most common one. This kind of earthquake happens while earth's crust rocks

break because of the geological strength created by moving of the earth's plates. Volcanic earthquakes happen exactly with volcanic activity. Volcanic earthquakes are when the volcano produces acidic lava, which dries quickly, when it dries quickly it blocks the top of the volcano. This makes no more magma can escape. Pressure starts to build up and eventually the acidic lava can no longer stand the pressure. So the volcano is free to explode, the pressure is released so fast that an earthquake is caused. A volcanic earthquake is usually kept within 10-20 miles of the volcano. Explosion earthquakes are the result of the collapse earthquakes that are small earthquakes occurring in underground mines and caverns.

(6). What am I?

I inhabit a small area in south-western Western Australia. My species was quite widespread in Australia before European settlement but now we are endangered. I prefer areas of open woodland. I forage for my food in the mornings and afternoons. At night I sleep in hollow logs or under fallen timber. My body is about 25 centimeters long. My bushy tail is nearly as long as my body. I am covered in a reddish-brown coat with white stripes. My front legs are shorter than my back legs and I have small claws. My ears are short but my snout is long. I have a very long, sticky tongue for eating termites. I can eat over 10000 termites in one day. I am a marsupial mammal. What animal am I?

(7). Career in Translation

Monday, June 16, 2008 Analytical Exposition, Review, Writing Tool 1 comment
Functionally, translation is transferring the message or the meaning and not the word. According to Nida, such translation is called dynamic equivalence translation. It tries to bring the precise message in different language. Many people like to watch Hollywood movie but many get trouble in understanding to the actors' dialogue. So the way they get the understanding about the movie is reading the translating text running. If Hindi translation is provided, it will bring the better understanding for Indian moviegoer. Hollywood movie spread over other Asia countries. Therefore, Arabic translation, Indonesian translation and Farsi translation are widely needed and that is a big chance for English master in that countries. India is likely being an English speaking country. India translation will grow better and. It seems Indonesia, Malaysia and Filipina will reach that mark too soon. Translation job will be great in amount and that is good development for translating job seekers.

(8). Holiday to the Blue Mountain

On Friday we went to the blue mountains. We stayed at David and Delta's house. It has a big garden with lots of colorful flowers and a tennis court. First, on Saturday we saw the three sisters and went on the scenic railway. It was scary. Then, Mummy and I went shopping with Delta. We went to some antique shops and I tried on some old hats. On Sunday we went on the scenic Skyway and it rocked. We saw cockatoos having a shower. In the afternoon we went home.

(9). Loving Money too Much

There was a man who liked money very much. He worked all of his life and wanted to save all of his money for his own future. He was a real miser when it came to his money. He loved money more than just about anything. Even, just before he died, he said to his wife; "Now listen, when I die, I want you to take all my money and place it in the casket with me. I wanna take my money to the afterlife." So he asked his wife to promise him with all her heart that when he died, she would put all the money in the casket with him. Well, one day, he

really died. Then he was stretched out in the casket. The wife was sitting there in black clothes next to her closest friend. When they finished the ceremony, just before the undertakers got ready to close the casket, the wife said "Wait just a minute!". She had a box in her hands. She came over with the box and placed it in the casket. After that the undertaker locked the casket down and rolled it away. Not long after that, her friend said, "I hope you were not crazy enough to put all that money in the casket." The wife turned to her friend and replied; "Yes, because I have promised." Then she continued; "I can't lie. I promised him that I was going to put that money in that casket with him." Feeling shocked, her friend said; "You mean that you have put every cent of his money in the casket with him?" Then the wife answered; "Surely I did. I got it all together, put all the money into my account and I just wrote him a check."

(Rewritten from: www.onlyfunnystories.com)

(10). Three Die after Attending Marriage Ceremony

Three residents were killed, while dozens of others were wounded after a pickup truck they were taking to attend a marriage ceremony overturned in Jingkang village, Banyumas Regency, on Sunday. The pickup was carrying 30 passengers, mostly women, when it failed to ascend a steep road on its way back from the ceremony. As a result, the passengers were squeezed. The wounded passengers were later rushed to the Ajibarang regional public hospital. Local police are investigating the cause of the accident.

(11). Why Should Wearing a Helmet when Motorcycling

We often hear lots of stories from road regarding people taking spill on motorcycle when they are riding without using helmet. Mostly the riders badly end up in mess. Wearing a fitted protective helmet offers many benefits which reduces the negative aspects of riding. First and the most important is that wearing the correct helmet can save a rider's life, physical ability, family pain, and money. The recommended designs of motorcycle helmets can provide total protection. They not only protect riders from getting a worse road injured accident but also from flying bugs, such as rain, sleet, mud and other potential projectiles. Second, wearing a helmet can give the riders a matter of style. Helmets give the opportunity for rider to express the image they may want to project when riding on their way. This benefit may not be important to some people, but to others, it means a lot and is important. By choosing the most appropriate helmet from all of the various styles, such as beanie, shorty, German, and many others, wearing a helmet which can project an image is an inherent crucial part of motorcycling and help riders feel more confident when riding on the road. However, what most important is wearing helmet when riding is a matter of using it properly. Bikers should use the helmets which are fixed to their head. It is really not good if they place simply the helmets on the head without settling them properly. The bikers should fasten the helmet correctly to their head in order to get safe and comfort.

(12). Nuclear Energy : Advantage Or Disadvantage

Nuclear energy is commonly offered as an alternative to overcome the crisis of energy. The debate of whether the use of nuclear energy is an appropriate choice has not come to an end. Some people agree with the utilization of it because of its benefits. Some others, however, disagree because of its risks to the environment. Those who agree with the operation of nuclear reactors usually argue that nuclear energy is the only feasible choice to answer the ever – increasing energy needs. In their opinion, the other sources of energy: oil, coal, and

liquid natural gas are not renewable and safe, while nuclear energy can be sustainable when produced in a safe way. However, people who disagree with the use of nuclear energy point out that the waste of nuclear products can completely destroy the environment and human lives. A meltdown in reactor, for example, usually results in the contamination of the surroundings soil and water. Take for example, the blow up of the nuclear reactor at the Chernobyl Nuclear Power Station in Russia twenty years ago. The serious contamination imperiled people and the environment severely. It is obvious that nuclear energy should be avoided because it really endanger the environment but what about a less polluted energy instead of nuclear energy? Is there any alternative energy to overcome the crisis of energy?

(13). Writing is a Great for Money Online

The emergence of the internet has given internet entrepreneurs many ways to make money. Writers are one group that have benefited from their talents as a result in the rise of internet based jobs. Blog writing is an increasingly popular way to earn money online determined by the owner of the blog. They are very popular because of Blogs are usually written on a certain subject area but can vary as its content is heir simplicity to get up and running. There are many free websites out there that will help you set up your own blog if you choose to go that route because blog plus advertisement is a potential money. Article writing is also good money to earn money online. Make sure to gear your articles to promote and advertise your own business ventures. These articles are a free way to market the products and services you offer for free. The most effective advertising with these articles comes from the dialogue box that is inserted at the end of each article. These dialogue boxes contain links to basically any website you would like to drive traffic to. For instance, you might have one link in your dialogue box to a product you are selling and one to a blog where you are promoting a discussing other products.

Writing takes some time to gain credibility through but once it's done' earning potential can become very powerful.

(14). The Unhealthy Fast Food

Fast food nowadays is considered a normal eating venture. People are not just eating out on special occasions or weekends anymore. It means that all the time they mostly eat fast foods. However is fast food good for health? Fast food has its popularity in the 1940's. Within a few years, fast-food operations popped up everywhere. With the compelling rise in fast-food restaurants since the 1940's, oddly it started the rise in obesity and cancer during that same time period. Fast food is highly processed with a wide array of additives. To ensure fast food's low cost, the fast food products are made with highly-processed ingredients to give it shelf-life, to hold consistency, and to enhance flavor. Fast food is altered from its original healthy form. It is not the calories in fast food which damage health and waistline. It is the chemical additives such as aspartame and MSG (monosodium glutamate). Studies show that the chemical additives lead to weight and disease issues. So, there is absolutely nothing nutritional about fast food. Fast food simply feeds hunger and craving.

(15). The Story of Sangkuriang and Tangkuban Perahu Mountain

Once, there was a kingdom in *Priangan* Land. Lived a happy family. They were a father in form of dog, his name is *Tumang*, a mother which was called is *Dayang Sumbi*, and a child which was called *Sangkuriang*. One day, *Dayang Sumbi* asked her son to go hunting with his lovely dog, *Tumang*. After hunting all day, *Sangkuriang* began desperate and worried because he hunted no deer. Then he thought to shot his own dog. Then he took the dog liver and carried home. Soon *Dayang Sumbi* found out that it was not deer lever but *Tumang's*, his own dog. So, She was very angry and hit *Sangkuriang's* head. In that incident, *Sangkuriang*

got wounded and scar then cast away from their home. Years go by, *Sang-kuriang* had travel many places and finally arrived at a village. He met a beautiful woman and felt in love with her. When they were discussing their wedding plans, The woman looked at the wound in *Sangkuriang's* head. It matched to her son's wound who had left several years earlier. Soon she realized that she felt in love with her own son. She couldn't marry him but how to say it. Then, she found the way. She needed a lake and a boat for celebrating their wedding day. *Sangkuriang* had to make them in one night. He built a lake. With a dawn just moment away and the boat was almost complete. *Dayang Sumbi* had to stop it. Then, she lit up the eastern horizon with flashes of light. It made the cock crowed for a new day. *Sangkuriang* failed to marry her. She was very angry and kicked the boat. It felt over and became the mountain of *Tangkuban Perahu* Bandung.

(16). Komodo Dragon

Do you know what is the largest lizard? This lizard is called komodo. It lives in the scrub and woodland of a few Indonesian islands. Komodo dragon is the world's heaviest lizard, weighing 150 pounds or more. The largest Komodo ever measured was more than 10 feet (3 meters) long and weighed 366 pounds (166 kg) but the average size of komodo in the wild is about 8 feet (2.5 meters) long and 200 pounds (91 kg). Komodo has gray scaly skin, a pointed snout, powerful limbs and a muscular tail. They use their keen sense of smell to locate decaying animal remains from several miles away. They also hunt other lizards as well as large mammals and are sometimes cannibalistic. The Komodo dragon teeth are almost completely covered by its gums. When it feeds, the gums bleed, creating an ideal culture for virulent bacteria. The bacteria that live in the Komodo dragon saliva causes septicemia, or blood poisoning, in its victims. A dragon will bite its prey, then, follow it until the animal is too weak to carry on. This lizard species is threatened by hunting, loss of prey species and habitat loss.

(17). Fasten Your Seat Belt!

A seat belt, sometimes called a safety belt, is a safety harness designed to secure the occupant of a vehicle against harmful movement that may result from a collision or a sudden stop.

Why should we use seat belt? As part of an overall occupant restraint system, seat belts are intended to reduce injuries by stopping the wearer from hitting hard interior elements of the vehicle or other passengers (the so-called second impact) and by preventing the wearer from being thrown from the vehicle. During 2004, total accident in DKI Jakarta are 4.544 cases, with 1.146 death victims, 63% of that accident victims didn't use seat belt. If we use seat belt, we will be safe if an accident happening to us. Of course it will decrease the number of death by fatal accident. This fact makes us realize that if we don't use seat belt, we will endanger our life. So it's very important to use seat belt. For some people, using seat belt makes journey uncomfortable, makes us can't move freely, etc. But if we used to wear it, it will be our habit. We will feel more and more comfortable if we often use it. Regardless of whether it is comfortable or not, it is very important for us to use seat belt, to save our life.

From the above reasons, there is not any reason for us not to use seat belt. There are so many advantages of using seat belt. And so many disadvantages will we have if we do not use seat belt. I think we have to rely on one thing: our safety. Protection is better than curing. So, wear and fasten seat belt!

(18). The Story of Magic Mirror

There were three girls: an ugly redhead, a fat burnet, and a dumb blonde. The three girls were at a historical inn. They stopped to take a tour. The innkeeper showed them a mirror. He said that if they tell a lie in front of the mirror, they will disappear. The ugly redhead went up to

the mirror and said “i think I’m pretty” and POOF! She disappeared. Then fat burnet went up to the mirror and says “ I think I’m slim” and POOF! She was gone too. It was for the dumb turn. Then, the dumb blonde went up to the mirror and said “I think” and POOF! She was gone.

(19). Tombs with Mummy Found in Egypt

CAIRO – Archaeologists have unearthed 57 ancient Egyptian tombs, most of which hold an ornately painted wooden sarcophagus with a mummy inside, Egypt’s Supreme Council of Antiquities said Sunday. The oldest tombs date back to around 2750 B.C., during the period of Egypt’s first and second dynasties, the council said in a statement. Twelve of the tombs belong the 18th Dynasty, which ruled Egypt during the second millennium B.C. The 18th Dynasty includes such well-known pharaohs as *Tutankhamun*, *Akhenaten* and Queen *Hatshepsut*. The discovery throws new light on Egypt’s ancient religions, the council said.

(20). Pros and Cons on anti-smoking law

The pros and cons on anti-smoking law or “smoking is *haram*” is still being discussed in our country. The issue is not new. It is only a small part of the anti-smoking wave which has been promoted for more than 50 years. Arguments for anti-smoking are abundant. Some of them such as: smoking is a slow suicide and makes other people passive smokers who have same impacts in term of health. Furthermore smoking invites death and impotence, causing tuberculosis, lung damage, stomach injury, liver and heart damage and cancer. In social interaction, cigarettes make smoker smelly, weak, thin and poor. Moreover, cigarette smoke contains around 4,000 chemicals causing massive air pollution. However, smokers have a self-defense argument. They say that smoking helps thinking, spurs creativity, calms the nerves, eliminates fatigue and grief, is social, and invites chumminess and healthy emotions. Criticizing regulations, smokers argue that the anti-smoking law is unjust, inhumane, violates privacy, restricts expression and is discriminatory. The anti-smoking regulation is siding with one and denying the other at the same time. The two sides are equally strong. It is impossible to disregard either. Is smoking or not smoking a matter of personal choice? (Adapted from The Jakarta Post).

(21). Meteors

Meteors are the short, white trails across the sky that we call “shooting stars.” A meteor shower is a celestial event in which a number of meteors are observed to radiate from one point in the night sky. Meteors are caused by small pea-sized pieces of inter-planetary dust that burn up when they slam into the Earth’s atmosphere at high speeds.

Meteor showers happen when Earth passes through the orbital path of a comet that left a lot of dust behind. Earth plows through the dust, and the particles form meteors as they hit the atmosphere. Occasionally a small rock may fall through the atmosphere, causing an extremely bright and colorful streak across the sky called a fireball. Sometimes fireball rocks are not completely vaporized, and they impact Earth’s surface. A rock that fell from space this way is called a meteorite.

(22). Goat Jumping into Deep Hole

Two men were walking through the woods and come across a very big deep hole. "Wow...that looks deep." One replied, "Sure does... toss a few pebbles in there and we will see how deep this hole is." Then they pick up a few pebbles and throw them in and wait... no noise " Geeez. That is really deep... here. Throw one of these great big rocks down there. Those should make a noise." After that, they pick up a couple football-sized rocks and toss them into the hole and wait... and wait but no noise they heard. Wow. They were really impressed with how deep hole it was. They look at each other in amazement. One gets a determined look on his face and says, "Hey...over here in the weeds, there's a railroad tie. Help me carry it over here. When we toss that sucker in this hole, it's must make some noise." The two men drag the heavy tie over to the hole and heave it in. But, not a sound comes from the hole. Suddenly, out of the nearby woods, a goat appears, running like the wind. It rushes toward the two men, then, right past them, running as fast as its legs will carry it. Suddenly it leaps in the air and into the hole. The goat disappeared into the deep hole. The two men are astonished with what they've just seen. How could a goat jump into the hole? Then, not long after that, out of the woods, comes a farmer. He seemed to seek something and asked to the two men, "Hey two guys... have you seen my goat out here?" Feeling amazing with what they saw of a goat jumping to the hole, they answer straightly, "You bet we did! Craziest thing I've ever seen! A goat came running like crazy and just jumped into this hole!" The farmer thought a moment and said, "That could not have been my goat because my goat was chained to a railroad tie." Then he left the two men.

(23). From Bankrupt Candle to Best Seller Soap

In 1879, William Procter and James Gamble's best seller was candles. They had begun business together in Cincinnati. While they were in peak of popularity, the candle company was in trouble as Thomas Edison had invented the light bulb. It looked as if their candle product would become obsolete. People would like to use light bulb and would not use candle anymore. The fears became reality when the market for candles plummeted since the candle products were now sold only for special occasions. The outlook of candle-company appeared to be bleak and depressing for Procter and Gamble. The situation was more miserable. Several months later the accident occurred. Without thinking one of the employee left to go to lunch and forgot to turn off the machine. Since the machinery was left in operation, air would work its way into the mixture. However after discussing with his supervisor, the employee decided not to discard the mixture. Instead, he poured the mixture into frames and the soap hardened. Thus, the floating soap was born. Harley Procter decided to give the soap a name that people could remember. Then the soap was named IVORY. This ivory soap became the mainstay of the Procter and Gamble Company. Amazingly, Procter and Gamble began to receive letters from buyers of this "accidental" soap. They wanted more of the soap that floats. Ivory soap was introduced to the marketplace. Even though this interesting formula was one of their best products, they were perplexed as to how this happened. The mysterious formula for the floating soap was resolved when the lunchtime accident was revealed.

(24). How Venus Eclipse Happens

On May 16, 2010, people in most regions in the world have seen a very rare natural phenomenon. It was Venus eclipse. It was very rare amazing natural event. It was reported that the Venus eclipse will seen again in the future in 2050. Do you know how this rare Venus eclipse happens? Well, actually Venus eclipse is like Sun eclipse. Venus eclipses occurs when the position of the earth, moon and Venus is parallel. Venus planet will slowly disappear for a moment because it is covered the surface of the Moon. Venus planet seems to move to the back side of the Moon. The moon and planets are sharing a similar apparent path

in the sky. That is why, it is not unusual for the moon to appear to pass close to Venus. In fact, the moon appears somewhere near it about once a month. However, most people don't see these events because they are visible in the evening sky only half the time, and then only for a short period after sunset. The apparent closeness varies from month to month as well.

(25). How does Rain Happen?

Rain is the primary source of fresh water for most areas of the world, providing suitable conditions for diverse ecosystems, as well as water for hydroelectric power plants and crop irrigation. The phenomenon of rain is actually a water circle. The concept of the water cycle involves the sun heating the Earth's surface water and causing the surface water to evaporate. The water vapor rises into the Earth's atmosphere. The water in the atmosphere cools and condenses into liquid droplets. The droplets grow until they are heavy and fall to the earth as precipitation which can be in the form of rain or snow. However, not all rain reaches the surface. Some evaporates while falling through dry air. This is called virga, a phenomenon which is often seen in hot, dry desert regions.

(26). How to Make Fast and Easy Fried Rice

So you want to learn how to make fried rice, but you don't want to spend a lot of time or money to do it. Well, you've come to the right place. There are a few things you'll need before you can make fried rice. I only list them here for the starving college student with few utensils and cookware to work with.

- 1). Big pot. Obvious? Maybe. Some would use a pan, but it'll just be plain messy that way.
- 2). A way to make rice. I'd say you needed a rice cooker or steamer, but then this wouldn't be very easy all of a sudden, would it? If you have a steamer, great. If not, you can always make your rice in a pot.
- 3). Something to stir the rice. This is just self explanatory.
- 4). Knife, and Bowl.

Ingredients:

To make the absolute bare minimum of fried rice, you'll need ingredients 1-4. It won't taste or look the greatest, but you may be able to pass it off as fried rice to your friends if you're very convincing.

1. Rice. Whatever brand. For two servings, use half a cup of rice. Just remember, the rice will expand.
2. Egg. One egg per half cup of rice is my rule.
3. Olive oil. Any oil will do, although I feel olive or canola oil is the healthiest. One tablespoon should be enough.
4. Soy sauce. Rule of thumb--any Asian meal needs soy sauce. You'll be right 70% of the time.
5. Green onion/chives. You'll need two stalks per half cup of rice.
6. Meat. If you want meat, use some.
7. Frozen green peas/other veggies. These do not have to be frozen, but by simply saying "frozen" I make the recipe sound that much easier to handle.
8. Pepper, sesame oil, etc. to taste.

(27). Giving Children Homework; Pro and Con

There is a lot of discussion as to whether children should be given homework or not. Is it enough for children having time to study at school or needing additional time in home for study after school time? Some people claim that children do enough work in school already. They also argue that children have their hobbies which they want to do after school, such as sport or music. A further point they make is that a lot of home works are pointless and does not help the children learn at all. However, there are also strong arguments against this point of view. Parents and teachers argue that it is important to find out whether children can work on their own without the support from the teacher. They say that the evening is a good time for children to sit down and think about what they have learned in school. Furthermore they claim that the school day is too short to get anything done. It makes sense to send home tasks like independent reading or further writing tasks which do not need the teacher support. I think, on balance, that some homework is good idea but that should only given at the weekend when children have more time.

(28). Why Summer Daylight is Longger than Winter Daylight; an explanation text

In the summer, the amount of daylight that we get is more than we get in winter. This is not because as much people think we are closer to the sun but because of the tilt of the earth. The earth is actually closer to the sun in winter than it is in summer but you would be forgiven for thinking that this can not be true after looking out of your window on a cold and frosty morning. It seems strange that as the earth get closer to the sun during its orbit then the amount of daylight that we get decrease. But that is the case. It is the tilt of the earth that determine the amount of daylight that we get and so the length of time that for us the sun is above the horizon. (Taken from: www.ictteachers.co.uk/ www.englishdirection.com)

References

- Anderson, Mark and Kathy Anderson. 1997. *Text Types in English*. Malaysia: Macmillan Education Australia Pty Ltd.
- Blundell, John. 1992. *Function in English*. New York: Pergamon Press.
- Celce-Murcia, M., & Olshtain, E. 2000. *Discourse and Context in Language Teaching*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Derewianka, Beverly. 1990. *Exploring How Texts Work*. Sydney: PETA.
- Halliday and Hasan, 1985. *Language, Context, and Text: Aspects of Language in a Social-Semiotic Perspective*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Hammond, J., Burns, A., Joyce, H., Brosnan, D., dan Gerot, L. 1992. *English for Social Purposes: A Handbook for Teachers of Adult Literacy*. Sydney: NCELTER
- Matreyek, Walter. 1983. *Communicating in English: Examples and Models (Functions 1)*. New York: Pergamon Press.

Virtual references

Learning English Text Types. www.englishdirection.com
www.onlyfunnystories.com
www.digitalrecordings.com/publ/cancer.html
www.hollywoodreporter.com/hr/film-reviews/2012-film-review-1004041300.story
<http://ezinearticles.com>

