

BY-STANDER HONORIFIC EXPRESSION VIEWED WITHIN SOCIAL PHENOMENA AND TRANSLATION STUDIES

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Abstract

The Development of language areas is always interesting to be the main focus of language research, especially in terms of addresses, has not been widely studied by sociolinguistic researchers. This gap is strengthening this research to be integrated with translation aspect. Its application of qualitative research methods with a descriptive approach is carried out with data sources and data taken from Okky Madasari's novel, which exposes a lot of the social live in various ways. Analyzed in a content analysis will produce a combination of linguistic context with the applied aspect of language translation. The patterns presented in the context of language focus on the address of the person who is the object of utterances and the application of the aspect of language translation is focused on the language technique of the summon context which has a neat effect on assessing the quality of the translation results.

Keywords: assessment of translation results by-standard, honorific, language context

Introduction

Djarmika (2018: 2) states that as social beings, humans will always need interaction with other humans in order to fulfill their respective needs. In other words, a person will not be able to live and support himself without contact with other people within the framework of social life. Meanwhile, most of the interactions that humans need is done using language. Every interaction that occurs in society, especially in Indonesia, has developed rapidly and varied in the choice of language by interaction actors for doing utterances.

Speech has its own meaning (attention) from conversations between speakers and speech partners. According to Yule (1996: 46) "actions performed as utterances are called speech act", while according to Griffiths (2006: 148) "the basic units of linguistics interaction such as give the warning to greet, apply for, tell what, confirm an appointment (the acts not the label) are called speech acts ". The two references reveal that the speaker always has the intention of a conversation with the speech partner for an interaction. A speech produced by a speaker through a communication process often creates other meanings by the speech partner. Both are common interaction processes because not all speech partners fully understand and understand the utterances expressed by speakers, as stated by Refnaldi (2009: 176) that communication errors are considered a language phenomenon caused by a lack of understanding of the interactions reflected in speech. In other words, Green (1996: 1) states that interpretation is very necessary for the success of the intent of the speaker to the speech partner.

The mistaken information such aforementioned above happened in translation when addressing the technical term for respecting one in society aspect. Honorific expressions in speech can result in errors and shifts in communication if someone mistakes or fails to translate, considering that not many speakers have a good command of the level of speech and delivery. This translation can be interpreted as a series of activities carried out by a translator when transferring messages from the source language to the target language. The translation process can also be interpreted as a system of activities in translating activities. Therefore, it is necessary to be careful in carrying out translation activities because mistakes in one stage will cause errors in the next stage. If something like that happens, the resulting translation will also cause an error (Nababan, 2002: 35). Hereby, this study

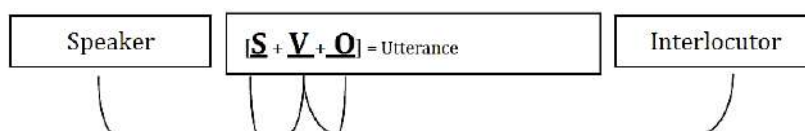
examines by-stander honorific expression viewed within social phenomena and translation studies.

Literature Review

1. By-Stander Honorifics

Lee (2000: 216) states that by-stander honorifics are respect form for objects seen from the subject and objects among interactions, without involving the speaker. But the use of the term "without involving the speakers", is an absolute rule. This is because the subject in the speech can be seen from side of the first person as a speaker and the second person as speech subject. The following is a formulation of the interaction in by-stander honorifics.

Picture 1. By-Stander Honorifics Interaction Patterns



The relationship between the speaker and the object can also be designed in the form of respect for the object by following the speech interaction. In this interaction, the subject and object are not narrated as actors in the speech. It shows a relationship interaction on an expression of honor.

2. Translation Quality Assessment

Determining the quality of the translation according to Prof. Quality Theory of Translation Results from Prof. Rudolf Nababan from Sebelas Maret University, as Professor of Translation, is assessed using an instrument that can measure the accuracy of message transfer, the acceptance level of the translated text, and the readability level. Translation experts agree that a translated text can be said to be of quality if: 1) the translated text is accurate in terms of content or message; 2) the translated text is disclosed in accordance with applicable principles and does not contradict the norms and culture prevailing in the target language; and 3) the translated text can be easily understood by the reader (Zaman, Nababan, Djatmika, 2018).

Method

This study applies a qualitative method with a descriptive approach, namely a problem-solving procedure by describing the state of the research object based on the facts that appear as they are (Raco, 2010: 80). Embedded with Sociolinguistics and translation studies are descriptive of this research. Data sources are a source of data acquisition that is qualitatively able to become a reference and basis in the distribution of information and evidence of phenomena in the focus of research (Santosa, 2017: 51). The research data is divided into two parts, namely primary and secondary data. Primary data refers to data collected by researchers from the research location directly. Meanwhile, secondary data refers to data collected by other researchers to support their study (Santosa 2017: 52). This research pattern primary data in 4 Okky Madasari Novel entitled *Entrok*, 86, Maryam, and *Pasung Jiwa*. Then, the secondary data comes from espousal articles, book, and proceeding. Data collection techniques that examine documents and archives are content analysis, because they study the content of written or printed information in the mass media (Ardi, 2010: 59). The data analysis of this study is following the reviews of Siyoto and Sodik (2015: 109), namely a series of activities to study, group, systematize, interpret and verify data so that a phenomenon has social, academic, and scientific value.

Discussion

By-stander honorifics expressions are declared to people who are the object of utterances between speakers and speech partners in their language contacts. In this case, the object is not in the speech audience scope (Lee and Ramsey, 2000). By-stander honorifics expressions accommodate 7 addresses. The 7 addresses are scattered with details of 1 relative kinship, 1 personal pronoun, 1 peerage, 2 non-kinship of public summon, 1 non-kinship of job, and 1 non-kinship of religion.

1. Relative Kinship

Of the 7 identified by-standard honorifics, 1 data has been investigated as kinship data. This family address is represented in greeting brotherhood. Kinship term here is the greeting in the presence of blood ties (descent) from the marriage of a parent's brother or sister. So, kinship is very typical, starting from the address for older siblings or parents, to younger siblings from parents to descendants below. The following is application in the social phenomenon data:

Data 1. ENTROK-NOVEL/C4/ST-175

"Ooh... itu teman saya dari Surabaya. Dia datang melayat Kang Teja."

The contained data in the Entrok Novel is "Kang" address, for Teja is in the object of talk, which explains if a friend of the speech partner is mourning the speech object with this address. In the use of word "Kang", the position of the speech partner is the wife of the utterance object. So, it is categorized as a kinship address of the context of marital relationships. Furthermore, this data is delineated to translation study based on the social phenomenon data.

ENTROK-NOVEL/C4/TT-167

"Ooh... that's a friend of mine from Surabaya. He came for Teja's funeral".

Direct address through the point "Kang" in the data occurs deletion at the word level. The translator removes it because it is stated as redundancy, but can reduce the accuracy of the reader's message. The deletion translation technique is a translation technique by removing some or all of the information terms from the source language, thereby reducing the meaning of the target language and changing the conveyed message. Thus, deletion affects to inaccurate and acceptable of translation quality assessment .

2. Personal Pronoun

Of the 7 identified by-stander honorifics, 1 data is the personal pronoun address data. This pronoun is represented by third persona pronoun (other speech involved). The following is application in the social phenomenon data:

Data 2. PASUNG JIWA-NOVEL/C4/ST-251

*Sambil menunggu orang tersebut, Jali mengambilkanku makan dan minum. Katanya, **beliau** akan pulang setelah zuhur.*

The contained data in the Pasung Jiwa novel, where the address "beliau" replaces the older and respected person (in this story means *Ustadz*). The address has a position as an object of communication, because "*katanya*" is referred to the utterance object. So that the use of this address is appropriate to interact as a third person pronoun. Furthermore, this data is delineated to translation study based on the social phenomenon data.

PASUNG JIWA-NOVEL/C4/TT-213

The Habib would arrive after zuhur, I was told. Jali brought me something to eat and drink.

In the reference word data for the pronoun "*beliau*", which means the third person (object of discussion) is translated "*The Habib*" which refers to the meant person, he is like the professor in the Islamic boarding school context. Explication translation technique here aims to target language information explicit and make it easier to understand the translation. The term data in the source language below is implicit, so it requires detailed information regarding the meaning for the target language. Thus, explication affects to accurate and acceptable of translation quality assessment.

3. Peerage

Of the 7 identified by-stander honorifics, 1 data is peerage. The title is a summon to a class of honorable-mentioned people (nobility) in the stratification of society that is tailored to the mainstream of communication doer. The following is application in the social phenomenon data:

Data 3. MARYAM-NOVEL/C1/TT-44

Orang-orang Gerupuk sering datang ke desa itu. Disana mereka biasa mendengarkan ceramah dari para tuan guru.

The contained data in the Maryam novel is depicted that "*Tuan Guru*" address in *Sasak* language (Lombok) means those who have understood religious aspects that is respected and elevated in society. The address is speech object, it is narrated by lecturing or guiding to the speech subjects in the area. So that the honorary title given by speech subject based on the stratification of society. Furthermore, this data is delineated to translation study based on the social phenomenon data.

MARYAM-NOVEL/C1/TT-44

The Gerupuk villagers often went there to listen to the Tuan Guru preach.

The indirect address through reference word "*Tuan Guru*" is the summon of the Lombok regional community for a sign of honor. "*Tuan Guru*" in the *Sasak* language (Lombok) is interpreted as a pious person and has the same meaning as "*Kyai*" in the Javanese area. This reference is maintained to get an honorific entity and mandate because it relates to religious and local culture terms of the community utterance in Lombok tribe. "*Tuan Guru*" cannot be equivalent toward English terms because it is related to the term diversity universally. Generally speaking, translators use this technique, namely pure borrowing naturally, to avoid translation errors as

well as to introduce indigenous-rich summon that is not available in English. Thus, pure borrowing naturally affects to accurate and unacceptable of translation quality assessment.

4. Non-Kinship of Public Summon

Of the 7 identified by-stander honorifics, 2 data are summons for general public. Those are addresses which are commonly used as a result of language contact developing in society aspect. The following is application in the social phenomenon data:

Data 4. ENTROK-NOVEL/C2/ST-66

Orang – orang bilang itu pasti Mbah Soleh, imam di masjid. Dia pasti yang nyoblos Partai Islam.

The contained data in the *Entrok* novel presents "Mbah" address is narrated through the speech subject that he was the one who voted for Islamic party. This summon is commonly used by the language contact community for people who are older than their parents. Furthermore, this data is delineated to translation study based on the social phenomenon data.

ENTROK-NOVEL/C2/ TT-61

People said that one of them must have been Old Man Sholeh, the imam at the mosque. It must have been him who voted for the Islamic party.

Indirect address through the reference word "Mbah" in the data is translated by providing the usual equivalent of "Old Man" which means no longer young. This is due to the specific term for old man or old woman in English so that it is paired by word Man to make address equivalent. The established equivalent translation technique is commonly used by translating terms of source language according to contained terms in the dictionary or generally spread in target language. Thus, established equivalent affects to accurate and acceptable of translation quality assessment.

Data 5. 86-NOVEL/C1/TT-16

Bu Woro selalu mengulang cerita tentang siaran radio pidato Pak Karno yang didengarkan bapaknya saat ibunya sedang mengejan.

Simultaneously, the data in the 86 novels are as well prove address "Pak" through the narrative between *Bu Woro* and readers if the object of interaction is *Pak Karno* (Soekarno). This address is commonplace heard in all circles and considered as general honorifics following his very acceptable

role. Furthermore, this data is delineated to translation study based on the social phenomenon data.

86-NOVEL/C1/ TT-16

*She told me the story over and over again of how her father as listening to the radio address by **Soekarno** when her mother was going into labor.*

Direct address through the summon "Soekarno" in the data occurs deletion at "Pak" level. The translator removes it because it is stated as redundancy, but can reduce the accuracy of the reader's message. The deletion translation technique is a translation technique by removing some or all of the information terms from the source language, thereby reducing the meaning of the target language and changing the conveyed message. Thus, deletion affects to inaccurate and acceptable of translation quality assessment .

5. Non-Kinship of Job

Of the 7 identified by-stander honorifics, 1 data is job titles. Job summon is an address that binds the communicator in a person's profession. So that there is a lexicon structure marker on its reference. The following is application in the social phenomenon data:

Data 6. ENTROK-NOVEL/C2/ST-63

*Tentara – tentara itu makin tak sabar. Mereka mendatangi Pak Tikno tiap hari. **Pak Lurah** dan **Pak Camat** juga turun tangan.*

The contained data in the Entrok novel narrates through characters soldiers who are the utterance subject, address "Pak Camat" and "Pak Lurah" becomes the story object to sustain story. Reference word contributes a meaning "Pak Camat", an entrusted man becomes leader of sub-district, and "Pak Lurah", an entrusted man becomes leader of village. So that these lexicons refer to an honor as men in charge. Furthermore, this data is delineated to translation study based on the social phenomenon data.

ENTROK-NOVEL/C2/TT-59

*The soldiers grew impatient. They came to see Mr. Tikno every day. **The ward chief** and **the subdistrict chief** also got involved.*

Integration of translation techniques has an impact on "Pak Lurah - Pak Camat" which is translated as "The Ward Chief - The Sub-District Chief" is implicitly translated and generated of the reference words, but it does not completely eliminate the message of addressing the positions of village and sub-district leaders. This translation technique is an integration of translation techniques that implicitly implied information in the source language without

omitting the message, with translation techniques under the terms contained in the dictionary or commonly used in the target language community. In other words, common reduction and equivalent translation techniques are translation techniques that are oriented to the target language by imitating the source language and generalizing it according to the use of terms in the target speech community. Thus, reduction and established equivalent translation techniques affect to less accurate and acceptable of translation quality assessment .

6. Non-Kinship of Religion

Of the 7 identified by-stander honorifics, 1 data is religious term. Religious address is a summon in language contact of religious context, with lexicon markers by location, participant, and situational. The following is application in the social phenomenon data:

Data 7. ENTROK-NOVEL/C2/ST-55/TT-51

Dia mengajarku untuk nyuwun. Katanya, semua yang ada di dunia milik Mbah Ibu Bumi Bapa Kuasa.

Contained data in the *Entrok* novel shows that summon of ancestral term binds a religious sect "*Mbah Ibu Bumi Ayah Kuasa*" to be the interaction object which is narrated that the subject teaches speaker to pray by worshiping the unjustified and dubious God. Furthermore, this data is delineated to translation study based on the social phenomenon data.

ENTROK-NOVEL/C2/ST-55/TT-51

She taught me how to do it. She said that everything on Earth belongs to the Gusti.

Indirect address through the religious term "*Mbah Ibu Bumi Ayah Kuasa*" translated to "*The Gusti*". The term of target language borrows from the source language, but with the addition of "the". The cause of the modulated borrowing is not yet known, because the use of words from utterance in the object of research is still meaningful among communication doer. However, the researchers and the evaluators of the translation quality agree that the data is still under the rules of interaction concerning the communication doer. This X (modulated) borrowing translation technique is a new finding of researchers and rater in discussing the combined translation technique between pure and modulated borrowing. Furthermore, this translation technique is a translation technique using other terms from the

source language as a target language. Thus, X (modulated) borrowing translation technique affects to accurate and unacceptable of translation quality assessment.

Conclusion

By-stander honorifics expressions confirm uniqueness of language contact among interactors. Their social phenomenon of Okky Madasari's novels successfully integrates 7 addresses that consist of 1 relative kinship, 1 personal pronoun, 1 peerage, 2 non-kinship of public summon, 1 non-kinship of job, and 1 non-kinship of religion. Simultaneously, relative kinship is formulated by deletion translation technique, personal pronoun is patterned by explication, peerage is designed by pure borrowing naturally, first non-kinship of public summon is formatted by established equivalent, second non-kinship of public summon is toned by deletion, and non-kinship of job is schemed by reduction combined with established equivalent, as well as non-kinship of religion is reinforced with X (modulated) borrowing translation. The integration among applied linguistics (sociolinguistics and translation studies) enriches linguistic patterns in utterance development.

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THE IMPLEMENTATION OF PODCAST AUDIO ON TEACHING LISTENING COMPREHENSION

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Abstract

The E-learning today has influenced more aspects of pedagogy including in learning foreign language such as English language for non-native speakers, and one of format of e-learning is podcast. podcasting is being introduced into academic fields as an e-learning tool. The existence of podcasting contributes to help teaching learning activities running well. However, there were difficulties for the students to attain the meaning in listening subject. It was because that listening comprehension is becoming complex process to comprehend spoken language on English Foreign Language learner. This study aimed to investigate the use of audio podcast in achieving listening skill in teaching activities. This study used library research using systematic reviews method to find the effectiveness of audio podcast in teaching listening on all level of students. According to literature reviews, this study revealed the use of audio podcast in teaching listening is effective for the students both in classroom and out-door class.

Keywords: *Listening Comprehension, Podcast Audio, Teaching*

Introduction

Podcast is one of media application which is used to deliver audio recording by internet connection. Podcast is a digital media file or a series such files which is distributed over the internet using syndication feed for playback on portable media players and personal player (Yamaguchi,2005). It is a process of capturing an audio, song, news or speech then posting as digital sound to a web or blog in RSS 2.0 envelope (Meng, 2005). This application provides several types of audio recording and appropriate material for the students using internet connection then the learner can download using their gadget or computer.

Podcasting is an innovative technology for broadcasting audio files which has been introduced in 2005. Anyone can make recording or audio podcast without downloading from internet. Everyone can create the content of podcast using a computer, microphone and a software program (Ducate, 2009) and distribute it over the internet via subscription services. Therefore, anyone can decide the content of audio podcast base on their need to learn

Podcasting is an innovation approach to use podcast application in language teaching (Selingo,2006).It is believed that language teaching can be better developed for both instructed and non-instructed learners using podcast media. The audio recording such news in English program, broadcast, film, song,may help the learners to gain learning target such kind of listening aspect (Carter, 2002). This is a rapid advanced for the teacher to use this media in teaching English listening.

English teacher believes that the main goal of teaching listening in classroom is comprehending the meaning from the spoken language. Listening comprehension lies at the heart of language learning, but it is the least understood and least researched skill in language learning, and the listening process is often disregarded by foreign and second language instructors (Field, 2008). In addition, Meaning is a part and goal in listening and speaking course (S. S. P. a. N. J. Nation, 2009). It means that to get comprehension, The learner should know the meaning of the spoken language and comprehension is a key in listening skill especially in understanding meaning in English spoken or word text.

The teachers believe that guesing the meaning and word context are so difficult for students in listening activities. Based on previous study about meaning word in reading skill, The students use clue to find difficult word in guessing the meaning (Yin, 2013). This study claimed that the students should use clue by using students' background knowledge in finding difficult word and get the meaning to comprehend the word text. It indicated that finding the meaning from spoken text like audio sound may also difficult for them if they do not have good background knowledge because the potential purpose in listening activities are based on determining meaning of auditory input and developing the gist, a global or comprehensive understanding of spoken language (D. Brown, 2004). Guesing the meaning of word from context involves macroskill of listening comprehension (Jack Richards, C, 1983).

In addition, Burns claimed: "In relation to language learning, It is important to remember that learners are unlikely to be able to process language simply by hearing it; They must also be able to make sense of what they hear (Burns, 1997). So that, Determining meaning of word from the text is an important aspect needed in teaching listening activity. The main focus of this study is to describe different way to apply podcast media by focusing in audio podcast. It may give new experience for student about how to apply podcast media effectively for learning so that the research questions of this study are the identification of current literature about the Audio podcast in teaching activities and the investigation current literature the effectiveness of audio podcast in teaching listening comprehension.

Literature Reviews

In this phase, the writer tries to find similar research finding about the use of podcast or audio podcast in any field. It was about the positive and negative effect of using podcast. These finding will contribute to answer the hypothesis which was arranged by the writer in the beginning of this paper. The first finding, podcasting offers great opportunity for learning through listening so that listening became more interesting than reading activities (Cabeci & Tekdal, 2006). It means that learning everything was more enjoyed than reading activity. In this finding, the writer assume that podcasting gives positive effect in learning.

The second finding was from Hasan & Hoon. Their research found that podcast motivated learner in improving their language learning especially in listening object (Hasan & Hoon, 2012). Besides, Podcasting

also as a tool to entail designing reflective learning tasks whose accomplishment require listening to a podcast (Ng'ambi, 2008) It means that the learners were motivated learning listening through podcast

The third finding was from the University of Minnesota. Podcasting involves a shift from e-learning to m-learning. It provides to wide experiences of the students beyond campus settings through the use of mobile devices such as laptops, mobile phones, MP3 player and iPods (Minnesota, 2006). It means that to access the information from institutional academic was easier through podcast.

The next finding states that podcast was useful in helping students gained control of their own learning. The students can focus from knowledge transmission to knowledge creation, a tenet on constructivism. Podcast also allows the students to engage in constructing knowledge and understanding while using same devices already used for social and entertainment purposes (Edirisingha, Salmon, & Nie, 2008). The students also build upon previous knowledge about the material of learning by consolidating concepts and discussed it with the lecturer. It also facilitate students learning viewed from a constructivist perspective (Ng'ambi & Lombe, 2012). Thus, podcasting contributes to help the students to make their own learning base on their need.

The other research, podcast contributes In English language learning. Learners can use the podcasted lectures of some others language to learn a new language. podcasted lecturer can help the students especially for slow learners in learning English as second language. the students can use note –taking strategies by using podcasted lecture in gaining the missing material (P Panday, 2009). Besides, podcasting is an opportunity to extend and improve lectures beyond classroom especially for courses such as music, theater, language etc. (Cabeci & Tekdal, 2006). Because the content of podcast is audio learning. It was better for the auditory learner learning through listening (Downes, 2004). Podcast also assumed as innovative way of practicing listening skill which enable learners to conduct the activity at their own pace and at the convenient time (Kavaliauskiene & Anusiene, 2009). These findings conclude that podcasting is an opportunity for raising language awareness especially in listening skill.

Method

This study was to develop a framework for integrating Audio podcast into macroskill of listening. The framework was based on empirical finding of an investigation. the systematic review will include only relevant papers, which have been submitted from 5 to the present time and will exclude older materials. The search for materials will be limited to data from journals kept in databases.

Discussion

Podcast is a media which is used to share audio recording or information to public over internet access. Podcast is an audio recording that can be downloaded from the internet (History, 2014). Podcast also defined as audio or video content that can be downloaded on a computer or fed to a mobile music player (Learning, 2014). It is a digital recording of audio or web/visual content (web conference, radio program or music), made available on the internet for downloading to a personal computer or MP3 player (www.readytalk.com). Podcast were originally audio files uploaded to the internet to be downloaded onto a mobile devices such as a cellphones, mp3 player, iPod or else simply to be listened to directly from the computer. (Fox, 2008). It can be played on a computer or on any device that has the ability to play digital audio files. The file format that used is MP3. Thus, anyone can find the audio podcast from internet.

The term of podcasting derives from Apple's "iPod" and word "broadcast". Podcasting is delivering audio content usually over the internet to iPod and other portable media player (sheet, 2008). It is a simple process of disseminating audio content tends to overwhelm many first time users (PP Panday, 2009). It is also an optimum way of using the music devices, especially mp3 players, for the purpose of education. So that. media application like apple's iPod can support podcast content to share information for education purpose.

There are some programs to get content of podcasting. Podcasting uses standard Really Simple Syndication (RSS). It is designed to automatically refresh internet content without the user having to re-search for updates the news content. RSS was only suitable for text files. Podcast can be displayed on websites with clickable links to audio files. Subscribes then download the files to iPod, cell phones, iTunes directory, computers or other locations to listen to whenever they want. The common programs used to play podcasts include iTunes, windows media player, Win Amp, real

player and QuickTime player. Many of these programs come bundled with operating systems or can be downloaded for free.

The equipment needed to make podcast content is sound recorder such provide on smartphones, tablet and computer. Besides, it also needs microphone to catch our sound before uploading the content. The user also can use Audacity software to edit audio program. So that, it needs high quality tool to get best audio recording.

Figure 1. **Audacity software to edit audio recording**



The steps to make audio podcast are; transfer the audio files from the sound recorder to a computer. Then, create a backup of these unedited files. next open the audio files with Audacity, save file as a new project file. next, edit the audio, finally export audio file into MP3 files.

Figure 2. **The steps on making audio podcast**



The other step is to produce audio podcast are the publisher needs to create audio file. This needs to be in mp3 format and can be created using software such Microsoft sound recorder. Then, create the RSS file for

extension tags. The text editor is needed to achieve this by using code to create an RSS tag (Pettersson, 2006). The next step is the audio is published by the server. After producing audio podcast, the content of audio can be downloaded by anyone. They only subscribe to RSS and download the audio that they need and transfer into their tool like iPod or smartphones. This figure showed the complete process of producing unit consuming audio podcast.

Figure 3. Complete process of podcast publishing



Type of Podcast

There are different types of podcast – public podcast, personal podcast and professional podcast (educational or corporate). Podcast can also be classified by the format of content- basic podcast, enhanced podcast and video podcast. Public podcast is usually to share information that the publisher would like to share with the world. personal podcast is to share a private photo album, private video to a public. Professional podcast means share everything that be needed for educational purpose such information (report Text), story, academic information and information for institution.(PP Panday, 2009). These types contribute to help anyone in get information through podcast.

Podcasting can be considered as a complimentary tool to e-learning because some contents of audio podcast give advantages for pedagogic fields. It was a great way of telling children and parent what is going on at school. The teacher can deliver educational content for listening or viewing on a computer or MP3 player. Teacher can emphasize important aspects of course if the students absent to get access to classroom interaction. Besides, students can create and publish content and deliver their work to teacher and their friend. The teacher also shares lesson plan before conducting teaching

learning activity. In language learning, the students can practice sound and word and share to classmates when they get difficulties in learning language. Thus, that why podcasting is so important for educational field.

Teaching Listening

Listening involves one aspect in language learning. Lund Steen stated that listening is the first process that people do to acquire language because it provides the basis for the other language aspects (Lundsteen, 1979). So that, It is believed that the first aspect which students must acquire in language learning is listening skill. Listening is also believed as dominant aspect in language learning. Rankin stated that listening skill was the most dominant skill for the mode of human communication because listening occupies almost 50%, speaking (30%), reading (16%), and writing (9%) of our daily communications (Rankin, 1926). Base on the percentage, It is known that listening skill is most dominant than the other skill. If human has good listening. It will give good influence others skill such, reading speaking and writing.

Listening demonstrates as an active process. Listening defines as a process entailing hearing, attending to, understanding, evaluating, and responding to spoken messages (Floyed, 1985). So, listening is active olein comprehending a message from the spoken discourse in human daily communication. Listening is a basic precursor to speaking. It is the first “stages” of language development in a person’s first language because oracy and literacy development need ongoing attention in first language education (G. Brown, Anderson, A., Shillcock, R. and Yule, G, 1984). In the view of language learning, listening is the way of learning the language such that the learner will develop their knowledge base on the information that they get (I. S. P. a. N. Nation, Jonathan, 2009). Thus, listening is a starting point for the person in learning everything.

Acquiring listening skill seems complicated for learner. It needs several aspects to help them. Brown states that listening needs students’ prior knowledge to get the message and information from the other speaker (S. Brown, 2006). Vandergrift also stated that listening comprehension is a complete process where listeners take an active role in differentiating between sounds, comprehending vocabulary and grammatical pattern,

interpreting intonation and pronunciation, and finally, making use of all the skills that should be respond, interpreting the utterance within the socio-cultural context (Vandergrift, 1999). Besides, the difficulties in learning listening are the learners not only hear spoken discourse but also, they listen and comprehend the meaning of utterance. So that students need more effort and exercises to learn how to get the meaning from the sounds that they hear clearly to overcome their difficulties in learning listening.

Richards stated that there are two perspectives in teaching listening; listening as a comprehension and listening as acquisition. Listening as comprehension means that the main function in listening is to facilitate understanding of spoken discourse. while as acquisition, listening serves the goal of extracting meaning from messages (J Richards, C, 2008). The teacher needs to combine both two perspectives to gain the purpose in teaching listening activities base on students need in the classroom.

The activity to teach listening in classroom must be done base on process of listening. They are Bottom up and Top down process (J Richards, C, 2008). It includes strategies in listening activity for students. Bottom-up processing refers to using the incoming input as the basis for understanding the message. Clark and Clark (Clark, 1977) summarize this view of listening in the following way:

1. Listeners take in raw speech and hold a phonological representation of it in working memory.
2. They immediately attempt to organize the phonological representation into constituents, identifying their content and function.
3. They identify each constituent and then construct underlying propositions, building continually onto a hierarchical representation of propositions.
4. Once they have identified the propositions for a constituent, they retain them in working memory and at some point, purge memory of the phonological representation. In doing this, they forget the exact wording and retain the meaning

Learners need a large vocabulary and a good working knowledge of sentence structure to process texts bottom-up. Exercises that develop bottom-up processing help the learner to do such things as the following:

1. Retain input while it is being processed
2. Recognize word and clause divisions
3. Recognize key words
4. Recognize key transitions in a discourse

5. Recognize grammatical relationships between key elements in sentences
6. Use stress and intonation to identify word and sentence functions

In traditional way, many classroom still use bottom up processing activities with exercises such as dictation, cloze listening, the use of multiple choice questions after a text, and similar activities that require close and detailed recognition, and processing of the input. They assume that everything the listener needs to understand is contained in the input.

In the classroom, examples of the kinds of tasks that develop bottom-up listening skills require listeners to do the following kinds of things:

1. Identify the referents of pronouns in an utterance
2. Recognize the time reference of an utterance
3. Distinguish between positive and negative statements
4. Recognize the order in which words occurred in an utterance
5. Identify sequence markers
6. Identify key words that occurred in a spoken text
7. Identify which modal verbs occurred in a spoken text

Top-down processing, on the other hand, refers to the use of background knowledge in understanding the meaning of a message. Whereas bottom-up processing goes from language to meaning, top-down processing goes from meaning to language. Exercises that require top-down processing develop the learner's ability to do the following:

1. Use key words to construct the schema of a discourse
2. Infer the setting for a text
3. Infer the role of the participants and their goals
4. Infer causes or effects
5. Infer unstated details of a situation
6. Anticipate questions related to the topic or situation

The following activities develop top-down listening skills:

1. Students generate a set of questions they expect to hear about a topic, then listen to see if they are answered.
2. Students generate a list of things they already know about a topic and things they would like to learn more about, then listen and compare.
3. Students read one speaker's part in a conversation, predict the other speaker's part, then listen and compare.

4. Students read a list of key points to be covered in a talk, then listen to see which ones are mentioned.
5. Students listen to part of a story, complete the story ending, then listen and compare endings
6. Students read news headlines, guess what happened, then listen to the full news items and compare.

Generalization and Principles

From explanations from theory of podcast, theory of listening and review of research finding, there were known that learning activities can be effective through podcast. The content of podcast can help the students get many information about knowledge. the students know the information by listening. It makes the students concern to sharpen their listening skill. Because of some contents of podcast in MP3 player format. the students more interest and replay the audio every time they want. Podcast make them more enjoy and motivate in their learning activities. The students also were motivated to learn language because they can choose the material that they want to learn. They will be independent learner because the teacher just be facilitator in their activities. So that the existence of podcast media can help them to build their awareness to learn. The use of audio podcast will be efficacious in learning language such listening in classroom. They can listen and memorize the information that they listen. The students can improve their listening skill by emphasizing their mind or cognitive aspect to concern in listening the vocabulary in audio podcast.

The core of listening activities in learning languages to comprehend the content of the text and to know the meaning of content the audio. It is believed that learning the language is “building a map” of meaning in the mind (Nord, 1980). It begins from listening activities then the learner practices it to talk base on they listen.

In addition, Podcast-Audio helps the teacher convey information, news and entertainment in teaching and learning process(Adams, 2006).The use of podcasts can be utilized for both extensive and intensive listening activities. Besides, Podcasting also motivate the learner in learning listening comprehension (Shiri, 2015). Based on the previous study, The researcher believes that it may be useful to influence the student’s ability in comprehending an English listening skill. The learners not only listen the audio but also see the trancript by using audio podcast. Thus, It may be easy

for the students to guess, to find the meaning of word and comprehend the text by listening the recording before seeing the transcript.

Based on the research finding about the function of podcast in listening skill, it was believed that The use of audio podcast helps students to gain the macro skill of listening such Recognize the communicative functions of utterances, according to situations ,participants and goal, Infer situations, participants, goal using real –world knowledge, Infer links and connections between events, deduce cause and effect , and detect such relation as main idea ,supporting idea, new information, generalization and exemplification, Detecting keyword and guessing the meaning of word from context. Therefore, the writer assume that audio podcast can help the learner to detect keyword and guessing the meaning of word from context.

Conclusion

The identification of literature of audio podcast in teaching activities revealed that the use of audio podcast gives advantages for the learner. It provides material that they want to learn or need. Students will aware to learn because the material of learning is available on their smartphone or gadget. The audio recording allows the students to have vast amount of material. They free to play audio material anytime that they want. Therefore, they become independent learner by using podcast. Besides, students can be motivated to learn English especially in listening comprehension through audio podcast. The use of audio podcast is also effective for learner. The students can be active to get the material by downloading the content of podcast from internet. Besides, the teachers assumed that the use of bottom –up in listening process such recognize word and clause divisions, recognize key words, recognize key transitions in a discourse, recognize grammatical relationships between key elements in sentences and use stress and intonation to identify word and sentence functions, the learner can accomplish to master the macro skill of listening through podcast.

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INVESTIGATING GRAMMAR LEARNING STRATEGIES EMPLOYED BY FRESHMEN AT UNIVERSITY OF DARUSSALAM GONTOR

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This study explored types of grammar learning strategies (GLS) used by freshmen of University Darussalam Gontor and their ways in applying GSL in grammar class. This research employed survey research design by gathering data from questionnaire adapted from Bayou which was modified from Oxford Language Learning Strategies Classification and open-ended interview. As many as 35 of 60 students (58.3%) who consisted of males and females completed the questionnaire voluntarily. The data were analyzed in simple numerical statistics for the RQ1 and described in details for the RQ2. The result of the study revealed that compensation strategies were the most preferred strategy used by students as many as 75%. It meant that the students were more conscious in using the strategy of grammar knowledge. These results of percentage illustrated that the students employed direct strategies more than indirect strategies. Further, the ways students employed GLS in grammar classroom were described in details.

Keywords: *Grammar, Learning Strategy, Freshmen*

Introduction

Students possess their own uniqueness in learning a language. It refers to their own characters, interests, motivations, learning styles, and learning strategies. Among these, learning strategies are believed as ways to help students in achieving target language. However, most of students are not aware of and understand about what strategies they employ in learning. Understanding their own learning strategies is crucial since it helps them comprehend the materials properly. It is supported by Hakan, et.al (2015) who asserted that language learning strategies (LLS) help learners to understand materials and store them as well as encourage and also speed up the learning.

In relation to language learning, grammar as one of three basic components of English that students have to master has become the most complicated one. It is in line with Zhou (2017) who stressed that grammar is the most challenging and complicated element in English language teaching and learning. It was because that both teachers and students need spend more time to understanding the rules on how words arranged to create meaningful and comprehensible sentences as well as to use them in target language. Moreover, some students who have understood grammar well experienced difficulties in practicing it in real communication (Nagaratnam & Al-mekhlafi, 2011). Therefore, students need a strategy in learning grammar which is further called as grammar learning strategies.

Several studies dealing with grammar learning strategies have been conducted by some researchers. The first study was conducted by Gurata (2008) who explored university students' GLS and some differences related to gender, proficiency level, and achievement on grammar tests. This quantitative study showed that all variety of learning strategies were applied by students. Moreover, students' proficiency level and gender affected their GLS preferences which lead to their grammar achievement. Second research about GLS was conducted by Mystkowska-Wiertelak's (2008) who investigated the use of grammar learning strategies of Polish secondary school students. The result of the study indicated that the students used all the six strategies of GLS by applied modern technology to establish and sustain contacts with the native speakers instead of using traditional teaching media such as dictionaries and grammar books.

The third study was conducted by Bayou (2015) who investigated GLS employed by grade 11 students focusing on genders by using survey research design. Grammar Learning Strategies Questionnaire (GLSQ) modified from Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) was applied by SPSS analysis. The finding revealed that the most frequent strategies used was compensation and genders have preference differences towards GLS used in the classroom practice. In addition, Zhou (2017) investigated high school students' GLS in Hubei Province of China. The finding revealed that students' GSL was low in which students tended to employed cognitive strategy. Moreover, grammar learning strategies did not have correlation with English grammar achievement. Yet, genders affected students' GLS preferences their grammar scores.

Reviewing several previous studies above, the current researcher found some differences in which the first, third and fourth studies focused on the GLS employed by students in correlation with genders, grammar proficiency level, and grammar achievement. Moreover, the second, third, and fourth were conducted at senior high school level while the first was at university level. In addition, all of the mentioned previous studies employed quantitate researches using SPSS. Referring to those, it can be concluded a gap that there is rare study which investigate students' ways in details on how university students apply GLS in the grammar class. Therefore, this current study intends to explore (1) what the GLS applied by freshmen are and (2) how they used them in grammar class.

Literature Review

Grammar learning strategies help students comprehend and master English grammar knowledge. It is supported by Oxford, Rang Lee & Park (2007 as cited in Pawlak, 2009) who explain that grammar learning strategies as actions and thoughts that learners intentionally used to make language learning easier, more effective, more efficient, and more enjoyable. Further, Zekrati (2017) stated that grammar learning strategies has become one of the critical methods that will help the effective learning of a new language and processing the different characteristics. There are some taxonomies dealing with grammar learning strategies proposed by many experts. This study will focus on the use of Oxford's taxonomies (1990) in which she grouped them into two sub categories, direct strategies (memory, cognitive, and compensation strategies) and indirect strategies (metacognitive, affective, and social strategies).

Direct strategies refer to ways which are directly employed in language learning. These strategies involve mental processing of language such as identification, retention, storage, or retrieval of words, phrases, and other elements of the target language. These strategies are classified into three categories, namely memory, cognitive, and compensation strategies. The first, memory strategies enable students to link L2 item with one another. For example, students can retrieve information via an orderly string (i.e., acronym), sounds (i.e., rhyming), images (meaning, message), body movement, or location (on page). These strategies often used for memorizing vocabulary and grammatical items for beginners. Therefore, these strategies do not always positively relate to L2 proficiency.

Second, Cognitive strategies helped students to manipulate language materials in direct way (i.e., reasoning, analysis, note taking, summarizing, synthesizing, outlining, reorganizing information to develop stronger schemas (knowledge structures), practicing in natural setting, and practicing structures and sounds formally. Therefore, these strategies are significantly related to L2 proficiency. The third, Compensation strategies enable students to make up for lack of knowledge. These include guessing meaning from context, using synonyms, using paraphrases, or using gestures, etc. Therefore, these strategies do not always positively relate to L2 proficiency. Meanwhile, indirect strategies refer to the management of learning which include some activities such as need assessment, activities planning and monitoring, and outcome evaluation. These strategies are classified into three categories, namely metacognitive, affective, and social strategies.

Firstly, metacognitive strategies are used to manage the overall learning process. These include identifying learners' learning style preference and needs, planning for L2 task, gathering and organizing materials, arranging a study space and a schedule, monitoring mistakes, evaluating task success, and evaluating the success of any type of LLS. Secondly, affective strategies include identifying one's mood an anxiety level, talking about feelings, rewarding oneself for good performance, and using deep breathing or positive self-talk. Therefore, these strategies are significantly related to L2 proficiency. The third, social strategies enable learners work with others and understand the target culture and language. These strategies include asking question to get verification, asking for

clarification for confusing points, asking for help in doing language tasks, talking with native speakers, and exploring social culture and norms. Therefore, these strategies are significantly related to L2 proficiency.

Method

Research Design

This research employed survey research design in the form of quantitative data to answer the RQ1 and qualitative data to answer RQ2. The survey was intended to investigate students' belief, opinion, characteristic, and past or present behavior dealing with their grammar learning strategies used. It is supported by Sugiyono (2015) who asserted that survey is appropriate for research questions about self-reported belief or behavior.

Population and Sample

The participants of this study were freshmen of English Language Education Department of Tarbiyah Faculty of University of Darussalam Gontor in the first semester in the academic year of 2020/2021. A total of 35 students were involved in this research from a population of 60 students who completed the questionnaire (58.3%). The participants consisted of 18 (51.4%) male students and 17 (48.6%) female students who come from 2 classes of three classes. The researcher used non probability sampling since the sampling technique was not given to all populations as sample equally (Sugiyono, 2015). Further, the researcher administrated purposive sampling as sampling technique implemented was based on researcher' subjective assessment in certain characteristic of sample which is believed has relationship with characteristic of population which known before (Dessy, 2012).

Data Collection Technique and Instrument

This study gathered data from GLS questionnaire adapted from Bayou (2015) which was modified from Oxford (1990) Language Learning Strategies Classification in form of closed-ended or structured questionnaire by ticking those question items to answer RQ1 and open-ended interview to answer RQ2. This research applied GLS questionnaire adapted from Bayou (2015) which was modified from Oxford (1990) Language Learning Strategies Classification to answer RQ1. The questionnaire had 35 questions in which the students had to choose "YES/ NO" to decide their tendency related to their grammar learning strategies. The second instrument of this research was open-ended interview to answer RQ2. The interviews were conducted to several students by recording their information about how they

used grammar learning strategies in the class.

Data Analysis

Simple descriptive statistics was applied to display the result of the questionnaires depicting percentages of students’ grammar learning strategies. The number of students having each strategy of grammar learning was divided by the total number of responses to determine the percentage. In addition, the interview results were transcribed to draw conclusion or verification based on their ways applying grammar learning strategies.

Finding and Discussion

1. The Types of Grammar Learning Strategy Applied by Students

The items 1-35 of GLS questionnaire adapted from Bayou (2015) which was modified from Oxford (1990) Language Learning Strategies Classification were designed to investigate the overall grammar learning strategy used by the students. The results of freshmen’s GLS were depicted in the Table 1 as follows:

Table 1. **Result of GLS Questionnaire**

Part 1: Memory Strategies		Freq	%
1	I think of the relationships between the grammar structures what I have already known and new structures I learn in English.	24	85.7%
2	I use new structures in a sentence to remember them well.	15	53.6%
3	I try to remember English grammar information by using their location on the page in the text book	11	39.3%
4	I review grammar lessons regularly.	7	25%
5	I underline or circle structures to remember them.	19	67.9%
6	I try to remember a new structure that I learnt by making a mental picture (imagine) of a situation in which the form might be used.	15	53.6%
7	I try to remember orally emphasized structures (through loudness or repetition).	14	50%
Mean			53.6%
Part 2: Cognitive Strategies		Freq	%
8	I write down structures, exceptions, and examples from several reference materials.	15	53.6%
9	I try to use grammar rules that I learnt by saying and writing several times.	11	39.3%

10	I try to use the different grammar rules that I know in different ways, such as to write letters, messages, stories, etc.	12	42.9%
11	I watch TV shows and/or movies in English to develop my grammar knowledge.	23	82.1%
12	I read different texts written in English to learn how to use correct grammar (e.g. Magazines, Newspapers, fictions etc.)	11	39.3%
13	I try to find out the rules from sentences by breaking the sentences into parts.	14	50%
14	I try to apply the rules I learnt in a meaningful context as in participating in conversation.	16	57.1%
15	I make summaries of the rules that I learnt or read from different resources.	15	53.6%
Mean			52.2%
Part 3: Compensation Strategies			Freq %
16	I try to discover the underlying grammar rules of different sentences based on all clues.	22	78.6%
17	If I am not sure of using one structure in my speech or writing, I try to use other structure to deliver my message clearly.	20	71.4%
18	I try to improve my grammatical mistake when someone gives me corrections.	21	75%
Mean			75%
Mean of DIRECT STRATEGIES			60.3%
Part 4: Metacognitive Strategies			Freq %
19	I try to search for ways how to apply the rules that I know.	21	75%
20	I pay attention to the rules provided by the teacher or reference books.	21	75%
21	I try to notice my grammatical mistakes and try to look the difference with the correct version.	23	82.1%
22	I have clear goals to improve my English grammar.	24	85.7%
23	I try to find out ways how to become better learner of English grammar.	26	92.9%
24	I evaluate my progress in learning English grammar.	17	60.7%
25	I look for people that I can talk to in English in order to improve my grammatical proficiency.	14	50%
26	I plan my schedule for grammar revision.	2	7.1%
Mean			66.1%
Part 5: Affective Strategies			Freq %

27	I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using ungrammatical sentences.	21	75%
28	I encourage myself to use the rules I learnt in my speech even when I am afraid of making mistake.	20	71.4%
29	I give myself a reward when I do well in English grammar.	5	17.9%
30	I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying grammar.	15	53.6%
31	I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning grammar such as teacher, friend, and relatives.	10	35.7%
Mean			50.7%
Part 6: Social Strategies			
		Freq	%
32	I practice grammar rules by working with other students.	12	42.9%
33	I ask others for help to check my sentences to see if I apply the rule correctly.	13	46.4%
34	I listen to any feedback that the teacher gives me about the structure I use.	25	89.3%
35	If I am not clear with my teacher's explanation of a new structure, I ask him/her for clarification.	19	67.9%
Mean			61.6%
Mean of INDIRECT STRATEGIES			59.5%

The table reports the percentage of the six categories of GLS covering memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, and social strategies in which students responded by choosing their tendencies “yes/no” about their GLS. In general, the data revealed that the participants applied all the six categories of GLS. According to six strategy categories stated in the table, compensation strategies were significantly higher than others by having percentage as many as 75%. These strategies enabled students to overcome limited knowledge by relating the clues to the context. On the other hand, the percentage of affective strategies as many as 50.7% was reported as the lower than all six strategy categories. It meant that the students were quite rational without involving their feeling during learning.

Turning to details, the second most commonly GLS applied by students were metacognitive strategies. The students applied a number of 66.1% metacognitive strategies in learning grammar by managing their own learning. Then it was followed by social strategies with the percentage of 61.6% since the cooperation with proficient users were important.

Meanwhile, Memory strategies as the fourth preferred strategy with the percentage of 53.6% were used to relate how students remembered English grammar. These strategies helped the students in remembering the grammar rules. The fifth strategies were cognitive strategies which had the percentage of 52.2% since students found their way in rethinking about their learning English grammar.

In regard to two sub scale strategy categories, the students employed both direct and indirect grammar learning strategies. They applied direct strategies by involving conscious mental processes with the percentage of 60.3%. This sub scale strategy categories consisted of memory strategies (53.6%) as the second higher and cognitive strategies with the value 52.2% as the lowest in this sub scale categories compared to compensation strategies. Meanwhile indirect strategies which involved unconscious mental process possessed percentage of 59.5%. This sub strategy categories covered metacognitive strategies with value 66.1% as the highest strategy employed by students followed by social strategies with percentage of 62.6%. The least one of this sub scale categories were affective strategies.

In conclusion, compensation strategies were the most preferred strategy by student. It meant that the students were more conscious in using the strategy of grammar knowledge. These results of percentage illustrated that the students employed direct strategies more than indirect strategies.

2. Students Ways' in Employing Grammar Learning Strategy

The interview was conducted to get data in details related to students' specific ways in applying GLS. It involved 7 students voluntarily. The specific strategies applied by students were explained clearly as follows:

a. Memory Strategies

In grammar learning, students employed memory strategies by storing and retrieving information. Further, they are able to memorize grammar structures in their brain. According to the item- 1-7 questionnaire and interview, students specifically managed their specific ways by creating mental linkages, applying images and sounds, and reviewing well. ***Creating Mental*** linkages refers to the process of recalling the information of grammar knowledge by relating one grammar rule or one word to another. Based on questionnaire and interview, students implemented two actions, namely (1) ***Relating New Grammar Structure to the Rule already in Memory*** as stated in the item number 1 of questionnaire which attain the highest percentage (85.7%). It was also supported by a student's statement from interview which said *"I love English. So, I usually study English from songs, movies, or*

videos. When it comes to learning grammar, I try to connect what I already knew with the new one (structure)” [INT-S1]. (2) Using New Grammar Structure in Written Utterances as mentioned in the questionnaire item number 2 (53.6%) and proven by a student’ interview result “*By writing several examples of each material and trying to simply explain to myself by using my own words/sentences so that these are more understandable and easily to be remembered”*. [INT-S4]

Applying Images and Sounds enable students in remembering grammar structures by means of meaningful visual imagery, either in mind or in an actual drawing such as pictures, objects, locations (Bayou, 2015). These ways can be done by; (1) *Arranging Grammatical Concept by Putting the Key Concept by Underlining, Circling, and Linking Via Lines or Narrows. (Semantic Mapping)* related to item number 5 (67.9%) and an evident from interview with a student, “*By writing summaries of materials and then marking each sentence by underlining, coloring, or giving information, such as ‘S’ for subject, ‘V’ for verb, and ‘O’ for object”* [INT-S5]. (2) *Representing Sounds in Memory* can be done by getting information to its sound. For instance, repeat grammar structures by mumbling as a student reported in the interview, “*Repeatedly mumbling the forms”* [INT-S6]. *Reviewing well* can be done by reading and comprehending the material which have been learnt from teacher or reference books again and again. It is in line with a student’s interview statement, “*Focus on materials discussed by a lecturer and re-read materials from her/his in my spare time”*. [INT-S7]

b. Cognitive Strategies

Cognitive strategies helped students to understand and produce new grammar items by manipulating grammar structure to make sense of them. Based on the results of questionnaire and interview, students applied several ways, such as practicing, receiving and sending messages, and creating structure for input and output. *Practicing* refers to students’ efforts in repeating the grammar rules over and over by (1) *Recombining* among many sources as stated by a student in interview, “*I usually searched for other materials in internet to understand”* [INT-S2]. (2) *Applying Grammar Structures naturally in Conversation* enabled students to remember well how to use these grammar structures as a student revealed in the interview, “*Making my own sentences to in order to make them easily to be remembered*

and practicing them in my daily conversation” [INT-S4].

Receiving and sending messages required students to find out several resources in developing their English grammar as stated in the questionnaire item number 11 which got highest percentage in this category as many as 82,1%. Students who have this strategy not only watching English movie but also watching YouTube and searching internet all about structure on grammar that they want to know more as proven by S1 in his interview, “As I said before that I usually study English from songs, movies, or videos in YouTube since these are fun, less stressful” [INT-S1]. **Creating structure for input and output** was employed by **Summarizing and Taking Notes** as stated in the questionnaire item no 15. During English grammar class, students took notes all the materials explained by lecturer. They also summarized longer materials in order to make them easy to understand as a statement said by a student in interview, ‘I often take notes of my lecturer’s details explanation and make table for learning tenses since it is easier for me to understand’ [INT-S7].

c. Compensation Strategies

Compensation strategies helped students to use the new language for either comprehension or production despite limitations in knowledge (Oxford, 1990). Students employed these strategies by (1) **guessing intelligently** to make up their limitations of grammar structure in sentence. It means that the students guess the meaning although they didn’t know the meaning of all sentences or words. They **used the clues** to help them attain the meaning as stated by S7, “If I do not know the meaning, I usually guess it based on the clue or context. When I had midterm exam several weeks ago, for example, I forgot the meaning of ‘sewn’, then there were word ‘clothes’ and ‘yesterday’, so I guess it ‘menjahit /sew’ in past form.” [INT-S7]

Moreover, students were able to overcome their imitation in speaking and writing grammar structures by (2) **getting help** as stated in the questionnaire item no. 18 with the percentage of 78.6% that ‘I try to improve my grammatical mistake when someone gives me corrections’. Students learned more when they got feedback of their mistakes as revealed by S6 in her interview, “When you (teacher) corrected my grammar structure, I become more aware and understand about my mistakes so that I will not get wrong later.” [INT-S6]

d. Metacognitive Strategies

Metacognitive strategies reflected to actions which go beyond cognitive devices and provide a way for learners to coordinate their own

learning process. It helped students to control, regulate, or manage their own grammar learning process. The specific metacognitive strategies obtained from this research were implemented by arranging and planning grammar learning in which students had ***Purpose in Learning English Grammar*** as depicted in the questionnaire item no. 22. It was in line with a statement of S4 who said, “*By learning grammar, it is easy for me to learn English, especially speaking and writing because I know the structures.*”

Another specific strategy employed by students in this category were ***Finding out the Way of Learning to be Better Student of English Grammar***. Students made some efforts to find out how language learning works and helps students to improve their own language learning (Oxford, 1990) as stated in their interview results, “I am not afraid to ask when I do not know and keep practicing with friends, sometimes”. [INT-S3] It was supported by S7 who stated that “I try to practice on grammar exercises and find out other references in internet so that I can understand better.”

e. Affective Strategies

Affective strategies helped students to regulate and control their emotion and attitudes as well as motivate them to develop self-confidence. This condition may give positive impact, such as creating effective and enjoyable grammar learning in the class. These strategies can be applied by lowering anxiety and encouraging in learning grammar. ***Lowering anxiety*** helped students to keep calm to face the condition during English grammar learning. It facilitated students to perform grammar learning activities and do the tasks effectively. Lowering anxiety was done by ***Having Relaxed during English Grammar Learning*** as listed in the questionnaire no 27 with the percentage of 75%. It is similar to S6’s statement in the interview, “I try to relax in the class because the materials are almost similar to KMI’s but they are more details. [INT-S6].

The next strategies employed by students based on the result of interview were ***Encouraging in learning grammar***. This strategy could be implemented by ***Making Positive Statement*** as stated in the questionnaire item no 28 “I encourage myself to use the grammar rule even when I am afraid of making mistakes” with percentage of 71.4%. The way they encourage was proven by some students according to the interview results as follows; “*I’m eager in getting A in this course because I have already studied*

it since I was at an elementary school." [INT-S5]. Another student gave the same statement by saying, *"I love English. So, I wanna to get A."* [INT-S44].

f. Social Strategies

Social strategies require students to interact with others in learning grammar. Social strategies offered students involved in interaction with both other students and lecturer. The students needed create cooperation with other in order to develop and improve grammar knowledge. Specific strategy was applied by asking and cooperating with proficient users of the new language. Doing that strategies, students get clarification of grammar structure and receive correction for their work from their lecturers. Based on questionnaire and interview, the students did this strategy by discussing and practicing grammar rules and also receiving correction and feedback from their lecturers. It can be proven by S3 who said, "When I did not understand to lecturers' explanations, I ask them clarification." Moreover, S7 added that "When I got wrong, I listened to the lecturers' feedback so that I will not make the same mistake in the future."

Discussions

1. Type of GLS Employed by Students

Based on the percentage in finding, the most grammar learning strategies used was compensation strategies with percentage (75%). This finding was in line with Bayou's work (2015) which the results showed that compensation strategies were the most frequently used strategy category by learners. However, these results were contrary to Oxford (1990) whereas cognitive strategies are typically found to be the most popular strategies with language learner (1990). Moreover, as can be seen from others finding (Saricoban, 2005; Gurata, 2008; Pawlak 2008; Hui He, 2013) that cognitive strategies were employed more by students in grammar acquisition. Nevertheless, Mystkooswka-wiertelak (2008) found that the most strategy used was metacognitive strategies.

Meanwhile, the less used of grammar learning strategies in this study was affective strategies with percentage (50.7%). This finding was in line with Bayou's (2015) and Mystkoswka-wiertelak's work which the results showed that affective strategies ranking last on student's preference scale and it was be the ones that were least frequently used. Conversely, this finding was contrary to Pawlak (2008) that affective and social strategies were classified into the two categories were reported by only a minority of the subjects. In addition, Saricoban's finding (2005) was different in which the

students are not very effective in applying metacognitive strategies.

According to the percentage on the finding of two sub scale strategy categories, it revealed that students employed direct strategies (60.3%) more than indirect strategies (59.5%). It means that the highest strategies used were direct strategies. This finding was in line with Bayou's work (2015) which stated that the students used both direct and indirect strategies. The learners used direct strategies more than indirect strategy. It meant that students were aware to employ the strategies during learning English grammar. They were conscious about the usefulness these strategies on their learning. It relied on Richard and Platt (2012) that learning strategies are consciously selected by learner and they are aware of what works best for them, according to the learning objective or situation.

2. Students' Ways in Applying the Strategies

The findings showed that students applied more than one strategy. They applied specific strategies in each sub-strategy. Those specific strategies were based on Oxford (1990) language learning strategy classification. The first strategies used by students were memory strategies. Memory strategies helped students for storing and retrieving information in grammar learning by memorizing grammar structures in their brain. The students used some strategies related to memory strategies to learn and retrieve grammatical rules. The actions employed by students regarding memory strategies are creating mental linkage (relating new grammar structure to the rule already in memory; using new grammar structure in written utterances), applying images and sounds (arranging grammatical concept by putting the key concept by underlining, circling, linking via lines or narrows; representing sounds in memory), and reviewing well (reviewing and reading the grammar material). Those specific strategies are included in Oxford's (1990) language learning strategy classification.

The second strategies were cognitive strategies which enabled students to understand and produce new grammar items by manipulating grammar structure to make sense of them. The specific strategies employed by students were practicing (recombining; applying grammar structures in conversation), receiving and sending messages (using several resources to develop English grammar), and creating structure for input and output (summarizing and taking notes). In addition, creating structure for input and output was strategy

to create structure which is necessary for both comprehension and production in the new language (Oxford, 1990). It means that students created new structure by rewriting structure they have learnt in simplicity in order to easily understand grammar structure itself and producing grammar structure in language production (written and spoken).

The third strategies were compensation strategies. Compensation strategies enabled learners to use the new language for either comprehension or production despite limitations in knowledge (Oxford, 1990). They used the strategy for enabling to use English grammar when they encountered problems related to the limited knowledge they have in English grammar. According to Bayou (2015), learners overcome their limitations by guessing intelligently using linguistic and non-linguistics clues to compensate the absence of complete grammatical knowledge. Students could produce and understand grammar structure in both written and spoken expression without complete instruction. Students' actions regarding compensation strategies were in line with Oxford's theory of language learning classification. These strategies were guessing intelligently (using linguistics clues), and overcoming limitations of grammar structure in sentence (getting help by using dictionary). The students guess by using linguistic clues with highest percentage. It means that they had ability to guess the clue to find the message in communication. As stated in Rubin (1975), the good language learner is a willing and accurate guesser. He uses his feel for grammatical structures, clues from the lexical items he recognizes, and clues from redundancy in the message in order to make inferences as to the purpose, point of view of a message or communication.

Then the next strategies were metacognitive strategies. Metacognitive strategies were actions which go beyond cognitive devices and provide a way for learners to coordinate their own learning process. It enabled students to control, regulate, or manage their own grammar learning process. The specific strategies applied by students were arranging and planning grammar learning (having purpose in learning English grammar; finding out the way of learning to be better student of English grammar). During learning English grammar, the students had their purpose why they should learn it. There were some positive impacts about applying metacognitive strategies in language learning. Firstly, centering the learning helped learners to converge their attention and energies on certain language tasks, activities, skills, or materials (Oxford, 1990). According to Bayou (2015), setting a purpose helped students be better prepared before the learning process. Making efforts to find

out how language learning works helps students to improve their own language learning (Oxford, 1990).

Affective strategies were the least preference strategies used by students. Affective strategies helped students to regulate and control the emotion, attitudes, and motivate students to develop self-confidence. The ways done by students regarding to attain affective strategies are lowering anxiety (having relaxed during English grammar learning) and encouraging in learning grammar (making positive statement). These strategies also were included in Oxford's (1990) language learning strategy classification. Pawlak's finding (2008) supported this current finding that various ways of lowering anxiety, encouraging oneself referred to the application of affective strategies. It suggested that the application may depend on personality factors, learning styles, prior educational experiences. The last strategies were social strategies. Social strategies required students to interact with others in learning grammar. Students employed specific strategies by asking and cooperating with other (discussing and practicing grammar rules with proficient user of new language and receiving correction and feedback). The students needed to create cooperation with other in order to develop and improve grammar knowledge.

Concerning to the findings, student will be a good language learner by using various strategies in learning grammar as long as students aware how to apply it well, Students can improve their grammar competence by applying the appropriate strategies in their English grammar learning. Pawlak (2008) supported by stating that another important finding was that some of the students, again usually the more successful ones, were aware of the close relationship between learning styles and GLS as well as the need to carefully match the two to enhance the effectiveness of learning.

Conclusion

The result of this study revealed that compensation strategies became the most frequently applied GLS by freshmen of English Language Education Department of University of Darussalam Gontor. Since compensation belongs to direct strategy, it described that the students were more conscious in applying the GLS. Moreover, this study also describes in details about students' ways in employing six categories of GLS by Oxford (1990)

modified by Bayou (2015) in the Grammar classroom.

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ERROR ANALYSIS OF ENGLISH WRITTEN TEXT OF HIGHER-LEVEL ENGLISH FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNERS

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Abstract

The main purpose of this research is to analysis of errors based on surface strategy taxonomy on the students' English written text. It aims at developing further analyzing of error analysis in second language learners. The approach of research is qualitative descriptive. The samples were taken from the written text made by 20 students in writing development skill class. The findings resulted in: the most common error occurred is omission 45,45%. The second place of frequent is misformation 21,81% as the score. The third is addition 19,09%. The fourth is error on mis-ordering 13,63%. The sources of errors of this research were mother-tongue influence. It was influenced by the native language which interferes with target language learning.

Keywords: *Error analysis, Surface strategy, Taxonomy, Written text.*

Introduction

English is an international language that is crucial to be learned. On the other words, English language is used by almost people around the world. It is used as official language in several countries and as second or foreign language among people in different country. Therefore, learning English is an essential that it must be learned by the language learners.

The English skills are listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Writing is an important skill which has to be learnt, due to it is used to communicate, people not only communicate in oral context but also in written context. According to Ramli (2013) writing is a way to express feelings, ideas, arguments, willingness and thoughts in the form of words in sentences. It means that people who learn English can express their feelings, ideas, arguments, willingness, and thoughts in written context as the result of their comprehension after read the text.

Writing skill is always as a part in English language learning syllabus. “When writing, students frequently have more time to think than they do in oral activities. They can go through what they know in their minds, and even consult dictionaries, grammar books, or other reference material to help them” (Harmer, 2008: 31).

Mousapour (2011: 299) said that writing must be related to the content, the language and grammatical rules. In order to avoid misunderstood, the students have to use correct sentences by creating a well written text and giving attention to the arrangement of words their composition to express their idea and to give the value of the writing to readers.

Learners need more time to write their written context as English language learner. Langan (2010:6) defines “In writing any idea that you advance must be supported with specific reasons or details”. Based on the statement, the process and result on writing must be procedural, systematical, clear, and easy to be understood by the reader. As stated by Hogue (2008: 3) academic writing requires certain skills. These skills include sentence structure (how to arrange words in a sentence), organization (how to arrange ideas in a paragraph) and grammar and punctuation.

Besides being challenged for students, the activity of writing is also a tough job for the teachers. They are demanded to devote a great deal of time and energy especially in giving feedback on students' works. Adapted from Shih 1986 (cited in Brown, 2000),

Even though writing is crucial as elaborated above, it is still a matter in our education. A study conducted by Diharyono (1990:1) indicated that students known or had the ideas what they were going to write but they did not know how to put them into sentence. Based on pre research, it is found out that most of the students in IAIM NU Metro made o number of the grammatical error mostly occur the researcher found 124 (46.8%), In omission error, the second semester is the 49 (39.5%), In mis-formation error, the second semester is 45 (36.3%), In Addition error, the second semester is the highest one, 22 (17.7%), In mis-ordering error, the is the highest, 5 (7.7%).

There are four descriptive taxonomies most useful and commonly used as the Basis for error classification; they are (1) Linguistic Category Taxonomy, (2) Surface Strategy Taxonomy, (3) Comparative Taxonomy, and (4) Communicative Effect Taxonomy. However, the errors would be classified based on Surface Strategy Taxonomy. In Dulay, Burt, and Krashen's Surface Structure Taxonomy (1982 cited in Ellis and Barkhuizen, 2005, p. 61), four categories were proposed to explain how sentences derivate from the correct forms because the learners change the surface structure. Those categories are omission, addition, misinformation, and mis-ordering.

Khan and Khan (2016: 232-233) define an error is the use of language item in a way that a fluent or native speaker of the language regards it as showing faulty or incomplete learning. As said by Norrish in (Khan and Khan, 2016: 233) the error elaborately as a systematic deviation, when the learner has not learnt something and consistently get its wrong. Still, in Khan and Khan (2016:233), Cunning worth states that errors are systematic deviations from the norms of the language being learned. Also stated by Corder (in Khanom, 2014:40) that Errors are systematic, i.e., likely to occur recurrently and not recognized by learners. Based on elaboration, it can be resumed that error is the process of learning language that they cannot correct when they make errors. Learning error analysis provide an opportunity to us better insight into the process of learning. Hence, error is now considered as a very important tool for diagnostic in language teaching.

Erdogan (2005:263) emphasizes, “Error analysis deals with the learners’ performance in terms of the cognitive processes they make use of recognizing or coding the input they receive from the target language. In this research, the writer focuses on analyzing grammatical error in writing discussion text made by the second-year students. Discussion text is one of the texts that should be mastered by the students. To analyze learner language in an appropriate perspective, it is crucial to make a distinction between mistake and error, because mistake and error are two different phenomena.

Moreover, Richard and Schmidt (in Al-Khasawneh, 2014: 89) say that language errors can be classified into two main parts: inter-lingual and intra-lingual errors. Inter-lingual errors can be detected as transfer errors caused by learners’ mother tongue merits such as lexical errors, grammatical errors, or pragmatic errors. Intra-lingual errors can be attributed to the ignorance of rule restrictions, imperfect implementation of rules, and false concepts assumed which all lead to overgeneralization. Still in AL- Khasawaneh (2014:89) Ellis states that overgeneralization errors are caused when learners provide irregular structures unlike the target language structures, whereas unawareness of rule restrictions is related to the rule implementation in improper contexts.

In Hasyim (2002: 47), Norrish classifies the causes of errors into three causes. The first is carelessness. It is often closely related to lack of motivation. Many teachers will admit that it is not always the student’s fault if he loses interest, perhaps the materials and/or style of presentation do not suit him. The second cause of error is first language interference. Norrish states that learning a language (a mother tongue or a foreign language) is a matter of habit formation. When someone tries to learn new habits, the old ones will interfere the new ones. It causes of error is called first language interference”. Then translation is as the third causes of error. This happens because a student translates his first language sentence or idiomatic expression in to the target language word by word. This is probably the most common cause of errors.

Related to grammatical error, Shumaila Khan and Mohammed Riaz Khan (2016: 283) who analyzed error on English written by Saudi students of Jazan University classified the types of grammatical into the following: Verb Tense and Form, Subject-Verb Agreement, Word Order, Prepositions,

Articles, Auxiliaries, Spellings, Pronoun, Passive Voice, and Run-on Sentence. Brown suggests an error as noticeable deviation from the adult grammar of a native speaker, reflecting the inter language competence of the learners. Errors are systematic which are characteristic of the learner's linguistic system at a given stage of learning. The key point is that the learner is using a definite system of language at every point in his development, although it is not that of the second language. The learner's errors are evidence of this system and are themselves systematic. Errors arise due to the imperfect competence in the target language. mistake refers to performance error that is either a random guess or a slip in that is failure to utilize a known system correctly (2007: 257-258).

James proposes that the learners' erroneous version is different from the presumed target version. This highlights the ways surface structures are altered. The students may omit necessary items or add unnecessary one, they may mis-form the items or disorder them. Errors can be classified into four types: omission, addition, mis-formation and mis-ording. Then, James adds blend error as the category of surface strategy taxonomy.

a) Omission

When a learner is leaving off necessary items that must emerge in a well-performed utterance, that learner is doing omission error¹¹. As an example, we know that morpheme or words can be distinguished into two classes: content word (e.g., noun, verb, adjective, and adverb) and grammatical word such as noun and verb inflection (-s, -ed, -ing), the article (a, an, the), verb auxiliaries (is, am, are, will, can, must etc.), preposition (in, on, at, etc.). language learners generally omit grammatical morpheme much more frequently than content word such as in John new student, He speak English well, and she eating dinner.

b) Addition

Addition errors, which are the contrary of omission, are characterized by the presence of items that should otherwise not appear in a well-performed utterance.¹² Generally, it occurs in second language acquisition of the learner. Regularizations, double markings, and simple addition are kind of addition error which have been examined in the speech of both first language and second language learner.

c) Mis-formation

Mis-formation are the error that characterized by the use if the wrong from of a structure or morpheme.¹³ there are three type of mis-formation namely, regularization error (neglecting exception and dissemination rules to

domain where the learner don't use the rules transformation of verb and countable or uncountable noun, for instance-fallen, rune, woman, phenomenon, criterions, etc.) arch-form (selection of one member of a class of form to represent other on the class,

d) Mis-ordering

Mis-ordering errors are characterized by the incorrect placement of a morpheme in an utterance. They come about systematically for both first and second language learning in construction that already been acquired. For instance: He is all the time late all the time is mis-ordered.

Method

In this research, the researcher analyzes the English language learners' errors in writing a descriptive text. A descriptive text is a text which says what a person or a thing is like. The aim of descriptive text is to describe and reveal a particular person, place, or thing. The researcher chooses descriptive text because many students do not understand well how to write this text correctly, especially the content of descriptive text, that is: identification and description.

By considering the elaboration above, the research about students' errors in written descriptive text. The writer intends to identify what type of errors most frequently occur from learners. The researcher observed Error Analysis of Students' Writing Descriptive Text Based on Surface Strategy Taxonomy. They had studied English writing especially writing descriptive texts on freshmen. In this research, the researcher analyzed the errors based on surface strategy taxonomy. The researcher described the errors by following surface strategy taxonomy for researcher concerned with identifying cognitive processes that underlie the learner's reconstruction of the new language. Finished, it is key to know how many types of errors in writing to help them understand writing skill well.

Discussion

The aim of research is to identify, and to investigate the grammatical errors that frequently occur on student's English written text. This research will be conducted in qualitative descriptive method. A qualitative research by Gay and Airasian (2000: 627) is the collection of extensive data on many variables over an extended period of time, in a naturalistic setting, in order to

gain insight not possible using other types of research. Descriptive research, according to Gay and Airasian (2000: 275) is a study to determine and describe the way things are. Therefore, this research study will concern on the data which taken from the essay test.

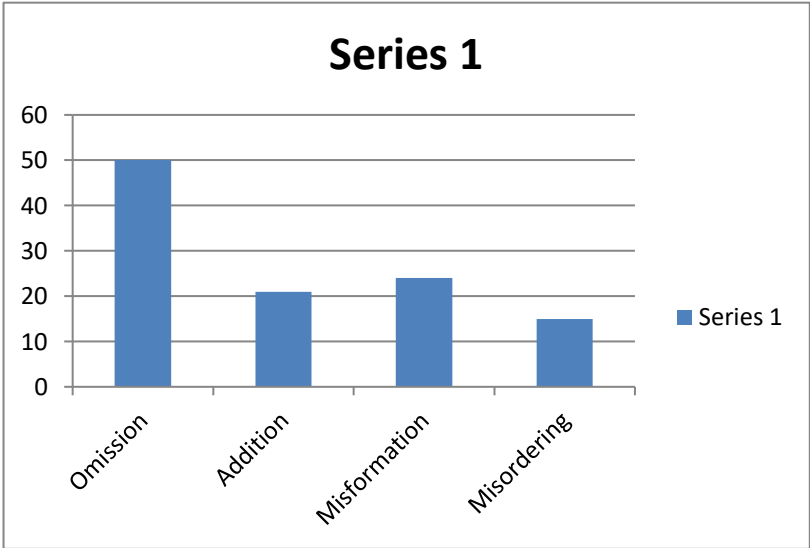
The participants of this research were 20 students at University of Darussalam Gontor on first term that took writing development skill mid examination. The essays they wrote, then, were collected. In analyzing data, there are five steps of error analysis (Corder, 1974 cited by Ellis and Barkhuizen, 2005: 57-67), as follow: 1) Collection of a sample of learner language, 2) Identification of errors, 3) Description of errors, 4) Explanation of errors, and 5) Error evaluation. The errors will be analyzed based on the grammatical errors proposed by Azar (2002). The data derived from students' descriptive writings showed that there was different number of errors occurring their written. The percentage and total number of each type are figured as follows:

Table 1. **Students' Error Based on Surface Strategy Taxonomy**

No	Types of errors	Total errors	Percentage
1.	Omission	50	45,45 %
2.	Addition	21	19,09 %
3.	Mis-formation	24	21,81 %
4.	Mis-ordering	15	13,63 %
Total		110	100 %

Based on Table 1 above, it can be inferred that omission is the highest among the types, reaching 50 items of errors or (45,45%). On the other hand, the number of errors in addition amounts to 21 items of errors or (19,09%), the mis-formation is 24 items of errors or (21,81%), and Mis-ordering is only 15 items of errors or (13,63%). So, it can be inferred that based on surface strategy taxonomy, omission the most errors made by the students in writing descriptive texts. The researcher calculated the type of errors based on the percentage and classified the errors committed by students. Then, the types of errors are discussed here by considering the frequency and percentage of the errors based on surface strategy taxonomy.

Chart 1. Frequency and Percentage of Students' Errors



The diagram shows that the total errors appeared in their descriptive text is 110 items, it can be inferred that the highest frequency of errors based on surface strategy taxonomy is omission 50 items of errors or 45,45%. Most students failed to complete the grammatical rules. They commit errors in terms of part of speech, such as then they missed to put linking verbs. The second place is mis-formation by accumulating 24 items of errors or 21,81%.

The third category of error is addition numbering of 21 items of errors or 19,09%. Almost similar to mis-formation, most students' made errors in they forgot to add s/es after plural pronoun. Mis-ordering is the type of error with the lowest frequency, it only amounts 15 items of errors or 13,63%.

Based on the result of the research, the students' errors in writing descriptive text can be classified into four types based on surface strategy taxonomy: omission, addition, mis-formation, and Mis-ordering. It can be inferred that the highest number of errors in writing descriptive is omission which consists of 50 errors or 45,45%, followed by misinformation which consists of 24 errors or 21,81%, then addition is 21 errors or 19,09% and the last is Mis-ordering which consists of 15 errors or 13,63%.

Based on the data in Chart 1, the highest students' errors frequency is omission of verb which consist of 50 errors or 45,45% and the lowest frequency is Mis-ordering which consist of 15 errors or 13,63%. This result

is similar to the previous research on the error in the students writing done by Suhono (2016) which shows the highest frequency of students' errors is omission 73,46% and the lowest is Mis-ordering 3,40 %. Below is the table of the result based on the research by the writer and Suhono.

Table 2. **Error Comparison based on writer's research and Suhono's.**

No.	Types of errors	Percentage	
		Researcher's	Suhono's
1.	Omission	45,45%	46,8%
2.	Addition	19,09%	17,7%
3.	Misformation	21,81%	36,9%
4.	Mis-ordering	13,63%	2,5%
	Total	100%	100%

In the table above, omission takes place at the highest level. Then, misinformation has placed the second level in both researches, but in the different percentage. In the current research the total number of misformation is about 21,81%. The third is addition which consist 19,09%, the students committed addition because they failed to arrange the correct sentences. The lowest error based on Surface Strategy Taxonomy is Mis-ordering. The percentage of this type of error is only 13,63%. Takes for the sample, the sentence above “I will be teacher language Arabic”. The words teacher language Arabic in that sentence is incorrect, since it is wrong in ordered. This error is caused by the influence of first language Bahasa Indonesia. It is in line with the Ellis (2002:223-236) states that the second language learners may be confused to recognize the use the second language because of their first language's influences.

In identifying error, the researcher must know why they make errors. As we know that the students begin learning a language from their mother tongue, Indonesian language (L1), the second language, Javanese Language (L2), and finally the foreign language, English (L3). Most of the students speak Indonesian at home. When they are at school, they speak Indonesia, Javanese, Arabic. They sometimes do difficulties in aspect grammar. Anyhow, it is their strategy to accomplish the target language they learn. Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982) state that there are some major sources that cause the learner's error, they are: inter lingual error, intra lingual error and context of learning. After the researcher analyzes the data, she finds two dominant sources of errors: intra lingual error and inter lingual error.

1. Inter lingual Transfer

According to Richard (1974: 173), inter lingual error is caused by the interference of the learner's mother tongue, they usually transfer the system of their mother tongue into foreign language. It means that, language learners use the structure of first language in target language

2. Intra lingual Transfer

Intra lingual transfer refers to items produced by the learner who does not reflect the structure of mother tongue but generalization of the target language. It is caused by negative transfer between the elements in the target language itself. If the learners have acquired the new system, more and more intra lingual transfer is manifested. Negative intra lingual transfer can be illustrated in these utterances

From the table, the writer tells the order of types of errors which is the highest, the second, the third, and the lowest in percentage. Since the difference of those percentage in both researches do not reveal the one is better than the other. From the table, it can be inferred that both researches have the same order in four types of error. The highest or the first is omission. The misinformation is second place, while addition is the third place and Mis-ordering is the lowest place. It can be inferred that in both research the subjects still did many errors in writing, since they were still developing their learning.

Conclusion

The conclusions can be drawn as follows: In students' writing, based on surface strategy taxonomy, the total errors committed by the students were 110 items of errors. Most learners committed all error types of surface strategy taxonomy. The percentage of the errors (ranked from the type of error that is mostly occurred) resulted from the students' descriptive writing based on surface strategy taxonomy is omission consist of 50 or 45,45%, the second is mis-formation that consists of 24 or 21,81%, then the third is addition consists of 21 errors or 19,09%, and the last is Mis-ordering of phrase that consists of 13 or 13,63%. it can be inferred the highest frequency of errors is omission which consist 50 errors or 45,45% and the lowest is Mis-ordering which consist 13 or 13,63%.

After analyzing the data, the errors consist of interlingual transfer. It is caused by mother language. It is considered as the major barrier of learning a

second language or foreign language. While Intralingual errors occurs during the learning process the learners have nor really acquired the knowledge. It also dubbed as a developmental error. It was caused by the transition or transformation form one language to another.

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THE TEACHING OF LISTENING IN A *PESANTREN*-BASED UNIVERSITY DURING COVID-19 PANDEMIC

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Abstract

This study explores the teaching of listening in *pesantren*-based university during COVID-19 pandemic. There are 18 male students and 6 female students taking part in the study. They are taking Listening for Daily Conversation course for 7 meetings. The data is collected using questionnaire in the form of Google Form. There were two aspects asked to the respondents; 1) about the materials and 2) about the teaching and learning activity. The study found that; (1) the level of difficulty used by the lecturer teaching Listening for Daily Conversation class needs to be adjusted to students' current level of competence, (2) lecturer teaching the course at the male campus gave less questions in the assignment compared to lecturer teaching in the female campus who give more questions to the students, (3) male students' answers are more homogeneous compared to female students' answers, (4) male students tend to show more happiness and gratefulness compared to female students showed more sadness, (5) almost all of the male students think that them could not meet the lecturers do not affect them. Meanwhile, the female students are more affected, (6) students from both campuses needed assistance from the Internet, books, dictionary, and their friends, and (7) lecturers from both campuses provided assistance to the students. Being an effective English lecturer requires being able to help and assist students in their learning process. It is hoped that this study will contribute to the body of knowledge in terms of the teaching of listening during COVID-19 pandemic.

Keywords: *COVID-19 pandemic, The teaching of listening, Pesantren-based university.*

Introduction

COVID-19 or SARS-CoV-2 is a virus originated from Wuhan, China. It halts all activities in the world because of its infectious nature, makes it a pandemic since then. One of the social aspects in the world disrupted by COVID-19 pandemic is higher education, not to mention in Indonesia. Teaching and learning activities are shifted to online classes so as not to risk the lecturers and students' health. This results in lecturers using online educational platforms such as *Google Meet*, *Zoom*, *Google Classroom*, *Edmodo*, *Emails*, *WebEx*, etc. Okmawati (2020) in her study found that *Google Classroom* is very beneficial to enhance students' competence and independence because they are expected to operate it themselves. In other words, it is extremely essential for students to adapt to the so-called 'new normal' in the teaching and learning activity especially in the teaching of listening.

In the case of teaching listening in university, lecturers are challenged to use platforms which suit them best. Some lecturers teaching listening courses use emails by sending the audios and worksheets to students, or use platforms such as *Google Classroom*. First of all, different from conventional teaching of listening where lecturers can discuss the materials after playing the audios, teaching listening during COVID-19 pandemic hinders the lecturers to do so. It results in students being unable to learn because they do not know whether or not their questions are correct. Secondly, choosing emails or *Google Classroom* as the platform rejects one of the essential aspects of teaching listening which is activating prior knowledge or schemata. Activating prior knowledge is essential for students since it helps them to understand the audios better.

Furthermore, *Pesantren*-based university is established based on Islamic values with *Kiai* as the central figure, *Mosque* as the place for worship, and *Santri* as a name given to the students. Indonesia as a country with the biggest Moslem population in the world does have thousands of *pesantren*, with few of them establishes universities. Male and female students are separated, usually by different campuses. This results in the different treatments and administration for both campuses.

Subsequently, there has been a body of literature discussing the teaching and learning activity during COVID-19 pandemic: (Nabilah (2020), Asmara (2020), Bestari et al. (2020), Cao et al. (2020), Altam (2020), Sahu (2020), Hoq (2020), Atmojo (2020), Mulyani (2020), Wargadinata (2020), Okmawati (2020)). It is worth noting that since teaching and learning activity is twofold, that is, both the teachers and the students are involved, both perspectives need to be taken into consideration. However, research on students' perspectives and beliefs need to be explored more since students are the objects in the teaching and learning activity. Moreover, knowing students' wants and needs is essential in order to improve the quality of teaching and learning activity, in this case is the teaching of listening.

From the aforementioned backgrounds above, this study tries to explore the teaching of listening in a *Pesantren*-based university during COVID-19 pandemic to obtain perspectives from students on both the materials used in Listening for Daily Conversation course and the teaching and learning activity. Therefore, the present study tries to answer the following research questions: (1) The perspectives of English department students in a *pesantren*-based university on learning in term of materials during COVID-19 pandemic; and (2) What are the perspectives of English department students in a *pesantren*-based university on learning in term of teaching and learning activity during COVID-19 pandemic?

Moreover, Wargadinata, et al. (2020) found that online learning is the only successful way that to uphold physical distancing and it serves as a significant effort towards the success of the teaching and learning activity at UIN Maulana Malik Ibrahim Malang during the COVID-19 pandemic. In the same vein, Asmara (2020) in the findings of her study found that WhatsApp was considered as the most supportive application for students' virtual class. Moreover, Bestari, et al. (2020) reports that Instagram caption is used as an online learning media on the Extended Writing course during COVID-19 pandemic. Furthermore, Hoq (2020) reports the implementation of e-learning in Saudi Arabia during COVID-19 pandemic. He found that 100% of the teachers use desktop computer for various purposes, in which 92% use Blackboard to share learning materials. Subsequently, Atmojo, et al. (2020) found that there are a lot of challenges faced by EFL teachers in teaching English during COVID-19 pandemic. Lastly, Mulyani (2020) found that e-learning gets positive perceptive because it is flexible and effective. Based on the aforementioned background above, the researcher investigated the present study.

Method

This study uses qualitative research design using questionnaire as the main instrument. It aims at obtaining data of English department students in a *Listening for Daily Conversation* course in two campuses; male and female students. Google Form was used to distribute the questionnaire to the students. The questions are divided into 2 parts; (1) About the materials used in the course and (2) About the teaching and learning activity. In this case, students from both campuses have the same questions. The question specification can be seen below in Table 1.

Table 1. Questionnaire Specification

No	Question Topic	Item No	Question statement	Options (For multiple choices)
1	About the materials	1	How is the difficulty level in every assignment of <i>Listening for Daily Conversation</i> class?	a. Always difficult b. Always easy c. Sometimes difficult d. Sometimes easy
		2	For every assignment in <i>Listening for Daily Conversation</i> class, how many questions are there?	a. There are 1-5 questions b. There are 6-10 questions c. There are 11-20 questions d. There are 21-25 questions e. There are 26-30 questions
		3	What is the question type used by the lecturer in the <i>Listening for Daily Conversation</i> class?	a. Always Multiple Choice b. Always Fill in the Blanks c. The question types varied
		4	Is the worksheet always suitable with the audios given in the <i>Listening for Daily Conversation</i> class?	a. They were always suitable b. They were never suitable c. Sometimes they were suitable d. Sometimes they were not suitable

		5	In every assignment, did the audios have good quality?	<div>a. The audios always had good quality</div> <div>b. The audios always had bad quality</div> <div>c. Sometimes they had good quality</div> <div>d. Sometimes they had bad quality</div>
2	About the teaching and learning activity	1	What do you think about the fact that you cannot have face-to-face class with your lecturer at <i>Listening for Daily Conversation</i> class during COVID-19 pandemic?	<div></div> <div></div> <div></div>
		2	Does the fact that you could not meet your lecturer affect your performance in completing the assignment?	<div></div> <div></div> <div></div>
		3	Did your lecturer of <i>Listening for Daily Conversation</i> once provided assistance in completing the assignments?	<div></div> <div></div> <div></div>
		4	Did you need any assistance while working on the assignments of <i>Listening for Daily Conversation</i> class? If you did, from whom? In what way? Please explain.	<div>a. Yes, she did.</div> <div>b. No, she did not.</div>

		5	What do you think can be improved from your lecturer's way in teaching?	<div></div> <div></div> <div></div>
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In relation to data collection, the followings are steps in collecting the data in the present study.

1. The researcher developed the questionnaire specification. In this stage, the specification was based on two aspects in the teaching listening which are; (1) about the materials, and (2) about the teaching and learning activity. The specification results in each aspect having 5 questions, therefore there were 10 questions in the questionnaire.
2. The researcher presented the study to the students. This phase aims at giving the students as respondents what the present study is about. It is expected that the respondents would understand which results in the accuracy of their answers.
3. The researcher developed the questionnaire. The questionnaire development lies on several aspects; (a) determining the wordings of the questions as well as the options (b) determining types of options, be it Multiple Choice or Fill in the Blanks.
4. The researcher distributed the questionnaire to male students at Campus for Boys. Since the male students are living in boarding school, this stage was done by distributing the questionnaire to the male students. The questionnaires were given back to the researcher on the same day.
5. The researcher distributed the questionnaire to female students at Campus for Girls. Since Campus for Girls are located far away from the central campus, the researcher distributed the questionnaire by sending it via emails to the respondents.
6. The researcher obtained the questionnaires from students of both campuses. The data were then included in the tables to make it easier to be collected and analyzed.

Discussion

The followings are discussions of the study presented in the form of tables.

a. About the materials

Table 3. Question 1

No	Question	Options	Male students	Female students
1	How is the difficulty level in every assignment of <i>Listening for Daily Conversation</i> class?	a. Always difficult	2	1
		b. Always easy	1	1
		c. Sometimes difficult	12	10
		d. Sometimes easy	1	0

From Table 3 above, it shows that both male and female students think that the questions from their lecturers are sometimes difficult. The level of difficulty used by the lecturer teaching *Listening for Daily Conversation* class needs to be adjusted to students' current level of competence. This is advocated by Krashen (1985) with his so-called '*comprehensible input*' with *i+1* as the formula. In this case, 'i' refers to students' current level of competence and '1' refers to assignments or tasks given by the lecturers which are slightly above students' competence.

Table 4. Question 2

No	Question	Options	Male students	Female students
2	For every assignment in <i>Listening for Daily Conversation</i> class, how many questions are there?	a. There are 1-5 questions	8	1
		b. There are 6-10 questions	5	8
		c. There are 11-20 questions	3	3
		d. There are 21-25 questions	0	0
		e. There are 26-30 questions	1	0

It is clear from Table 4 above that lecturer teaching the course at the male campus gave less questions in the assignment compared to lecturer teaching in the female campus who give more questions to the students. In this notion, in determining number of questions, it is undeniable that lecturers are looking at the audios used in the teaching and learning activity. The longer and more difficult the materials, the more questions made from the audios.

Table 5. Question 3

No	Question	Options	Male students	Female students
3	What is the question type used by the lecturer in the <i>Listening for Daily Conversation</i> class?	a. Always Multiple Choice	1	0
		b. Always Fill in the Blanks	2	8
		c. The question types varied	13	4

It can be interpreted from Table 5 above that male students’ answers are more homogeneous compared to female students’ answers. Out of 16 students, 13 students were sure that the questions are varied, while 8 female students have different views from 4 other students in terms of the question type.

Table 6. Question 4

No	Question	Options	Male students	Female students
4	Is the worksheet always suitable with the audios given in the <i>Listening for Daily Conversation</i> class?	a. They were always suitable	14	11
		b. They were never suitable	0	0
		c. Sometimes they were suitable	1	0
		d. Sometimes they were not suitable	0	1

From the table above, it can be inferred that students from both campuses think that the audios are matched with the worksheets given. It is essential for lecturers to make sure that the assignments given are suitable with the audios, otherwise there will be confusion among the students especially in online classes where the lecturer cannot clarify the mistakes. This becomes one of the fatal mistakes a lecturer might make in teaching listening during online classes.

Table 7. Question 5

No	Question	Options	Male students	Female students
5	In every assignment, did the audios have good quality?	a. The audios always had good quality	3	10
		b. The audios always had bad quality	0	0
		c. Sometimes they had good quality	11	2
		d. Sometimes they had bad quality	2	0

From the findings above, it is found that students in a female campus think that the audios always had good quality. In contrast, students from male campus think that the audios sometimes had good quality. It is undeniable that good quality audios help the students to understand and thus answering more correct answers. This notion is advocated by Hernandez-Ocampo & Vargaz (2013) by reiterating that teachers can develop learners' acquisition by choosing the appropriate audios for the students.

B. About the teaching and learning activity

Table 8. Question 1

No	Question	Male Student	Male students' perspectives	Female Student	Female students' perspectives
1	What do you think about the fact that you cannot have face-to-face class with your lecturer at <i>Listening for Daily Conversation</i> class during COVID-19 pandemic?	Ss 1	I think I could understand and know the course better	Ss 1	I felt really sad because this is my first-year studying in university
		Ss 2	I always feel happy as long as it's not boring	Ss 2	It makes me curious
		Ss 3	I think it's very beneficial because I could grasp the materials easily	Ss 3	In my opinion, having face-to-face teaching is better because it

					enables the lecturer to explain the difficult vocabulary
		Ss 4	I am very grateful being able to meet my lecturer in the teaching and learning activity	Ss 4	I think face-to-face teaching is better because I I could know the meaning of difficult vocabulary items
		Ss 5	I am very happy because it makes it easier for me to understand the materials given	Ss 5	I dislike it because I cannot understand the materials given by the lecturer
		Ss 6	Alkhamdulillah. Thank God	Ss 6	I felt really sad because face to face teaching makes me more enthusiastic
		Ss 7	I think it makes it easier for me to learn	Ss 7	Everybody is facing this difficult situation and so am I
		Ss 8	I think it is effective in the teaching and learning activity	Ss 8	I felt really sad because I couldn't get direct explanation

					and correction from the lecturer
		Ss 9	I think it's really good	Ss 9	I think having online classes is very difficult, especially if the signal is unstable during Zoom meeting
		Ss 10	I am very grateful because I feel lucky to be face-to-face with my lecturer, unlike students from other universities	Ss 10	Online classes are not effective at all, in my opinion
		Ss 11	I think it is very beneficial for me because I could get knowledge from the lecturer directly	Ss 11	I felt really sad because I need explanation from the lecturer
		Ss 12	I think it's really good because the knowledge can reach the students very well	Ss 12	I don't really have a problem with online classes because it has good purpose. Classes must go on with or without the lecturer present
		Ss 13	I am very grateful because I could learn directly from my lecturer		

		Ss 14	In my opinion, having face-to-face interaction with the lecturer enables me to obtain knowledge better because I could learn by the lecturer directly		
		Ss 15	Yeah. I think face-to-face interaction in the classroom is very effective		
		Ss 16	I am really happy because I could obtain the knowledge directly from the lecturer		

From Table 1 Question 1 above, it can be interpreted that male students tend to show more happiness and gratefulness since they are able to meet their lecturer face-to-face. Meanwhile, female students showed more sadness over the fact that they cannot meet their lecturer. It is undeniable that COVID-19 has caused psychological battles among college students. Sahu (2020) stated that the closure of universities as the effect of COVID-19 pandemic has produced a massive level of stress and anxiety among college students. This is due to the fact that learning is twofold, that is, comprised by efforts made by both the teachers and the students. The absence of the teachers becomes an unmet need on the behalf of the students.

Table 9. Question 2

No	Question	Male Student	Male students' perspectives	Female Student	Female students' perspectives
2	What do you think about the fact that you cannot have face-to-face class with your lecturer at <i>Listening for Daily Conversation</i> class during COVID-19 pandemic?	Ss 1	Well, it doesn't affect me much	Ss 1	Yes, it does. I couldn't ask the lecturer directly about the materials
		Ss 2	No, it doesn't affect me in any way	Ss 2	Yes, in a positive way. In this course, the lecturer emailed us the audios and assignments so I could repeat the audios as many as possible until I get the answers correct
		Ss 3	No, it doesn't	Ss 3	Yes. It affects me because I couldn't ask the difficult vocabulary directly to the lecturer
		Ss 4	Yeah, because the materials that we get are decreased	Ss 4	Yes. It's because i had to complete the assignments without the lecturer caring about me

		Ss 5	No, it doesn't affect me because I could learn in any situation, with or without COVID-19 pandemic	Ss 5	No, it doesn't.
		Ss 6	It doesn't affect me in completing the assignment	Ss 6	Yeah, it does because in online classes the lecturer emails us the materials so I could repeat the audios and have more time to understand them.
		Ss 7	No, it doesn't affect me	Ss 7	No, it doesn't affect me
		Ss 8	Yeah, it does. I could ask the lecturer about the materials		
		Ss 9	Yeah, it does. I could ask the lecturer about the materials		
		Ss 10	Yeah, it affects me in the process of understanding the assignment and so on		

		Ss 11	Yeah, in terms of focus. With the lecturer's presence, it helps me to be more focused		
		Ss 12	No, not yet		
		Ss 13	Yeah, in term of remembering something because in listening I do not only listen but also retain information		
		Ss 14	In my opinion, having face-to-face interaction with the lecturer enables me to obtain knowledge better because I could learn the lecturer directly		
		Ss 15	Yeah. I think face-to-face interaction in the classroom is very effective		
		Ss 16	I am really happy because I could obtain the knowledge		

			directly from the lecturer		
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It is shown in Table 9 Question 3 above that almost all of the male students think that them could not meet the lecturers do not affect them. Meanwhile, the female students are more affected by saying in terms of treatments they could not get from the lecturer such as explanation, interaction, and being taken care of. In a ‘normal’ teaching and learning activity, it is indeed essential for students to have interaction in the classroom with their lecturers. This is in line with what Roorda et al. (2011) reiterated in their study that the influence of teacher-student relationships is weaker for boys and stronger for girls. In this notion, it is no surprise that students in the Campus for Girls are more affected than students residing in the Campus for Boys.

Table 10. Question 3

No	Question	Male Student	Male students’ perspectives	Female Student	Female students’ perspectives
3	Did you need any assistance while working on the assignments of <i>Listening for Daily Conversation</i> class? If you did, from whom? In what way? Please explain.	Ss 1	Yes, from the Internet and books	Ss 1	Yes, I needed a dictionary to translate the difficult English vocabulary and my friends to explain the difficult sentences.
		Ss 2	Yes, from my friends and vocabulary	Ss 2	No, I did not.
		Ss 3	The helps come from the materials	Ss 3	Yes, I needed earphone or headset

			which are shared to learn		because it is very useful and it helps me to focus, undisturbed by other people's activities, and very personal
		Ss 4	No, I don't need help	Ss 4	I needed the assistance to ensure what I heard.
		Ss 5	Not yet	Ss 5	No I did not because in this course I have to sharpen my hearing.
		Ss 6	No	Ss 6	I think I need injury time to listen to the audios
		Ss 7	No	Ss 7	I need my friends to remind me about the assignments because I tend to be forgetful of the assignments given by my lecturer.
		Ss 8	Yeah, there are a lot of various references		
		Ss 9	No		
		Ss 10	Yeah, I got help from the examples and consulting with others		
		Ss 11	I need help from		

			audiovisual and songs		
		Ss 12	Yeah, from Google		
		Ss 13	Yeah, I need help from the lecturer to improve my listening skill		
		Ss 14	Yes, to translate some vocabulary		
		Ss 15	Yes, the sound system		
		Ss 16	Yeah, from the Internet and books		

From Table 10 above, it can be emphasized that students needed assistance from the Internet, books, dictionary, and their friends. These strategies are deemed essential in helping the learners to improve their listening skill. In the same vein, Serri et al. (2012) stated that teachers can teach students cognitive, metacognitive, and social/affective strategies in listening comprehension without looking at their characteristics, ages, or gender.

Table 11. **Question 4**

No	Question	Options	Male students	Female students
4	Did your lecturer of <i>Listening for Daily Conversation</i> once provided assistance in completing the assignments?	a. Yes s/he did	13	6
		b. S/he never did	3	2

From Table 11 above, it can be interpreted that lecturers from both campuses provided assistance to the students. Being an effective English lecturer requires being able to help and assist students in their learning process. In this case, Park (2006) found in her study that being helpful to students inside and outside the classroom is one of the characteristics of effective English teachers in Korea. English teachers may provide assistance to the students by approaching them to their desks and helping them to understand the materials.

Conclusion

The findings of the present study can be concluded as follows.

1. The level of difficulty used by the lecturer teaching Listening for Daily Conversation class needs to be adjusted to students' current level of competence.
2. Lecturer teaching the course at the male campus gave less questions in the assignment compared to lecturer teaching in the female campus who give more questions to the students. In this notion, in determining number of questions, it is undeniable that lecturers are looking at the audios used in the teaching and learning activity. The longer and more difficult the materials, the more questions made from the audios.
3. Male students' answers are more homogeneous compared to female students' answers.
4. It can be interpreted that male students tend to show more happiness and gratefulness since they are able to meet their lecturer face-to-face. Meanwhile, female students showed more sadness over the fact that they cannot meet their lecturer.
5. Almost all of the male students think that them could not meet the lecturers do not affect them. Meanwhile, the female students are more affected by saying in terms of treatments they could not get from the lecturer such as explanation, interaction, and being taken care of.
6. It can be emphasized that students needed assistance from the Internet, books, dictionary, and their friends. These strategies are deemed essential in helping the learners to improve their listening skill.
7. From Table 11 above, it can be interpreted that lecturers from both campuses provided assistance to the students. Being an effective English lecturer requires being able to help and assist students in their learning process. English teachers may provide assistance to the students by approaching them to their desks and helping them to understand the materials.

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THE USE OF EXTENSIVE READING TO ENCOURAGE STUDENTS' READING ABILITY

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Abstract

This study investigates the use of extensive reading to encourage students' reading skill as well as students' attitude toward it. Descriptive qualitative research design was employed in this study. The data obtained through classroom observation, questionnaire, and interview. The participant of this study was a class of first semester students of the university in Ponorogo. The findings showed that extensive reading is useful in teaching reading. It is known that the students' extensive reading improves their vocabulary and their reading comprehension. To monitor students' extensive reading, the lecturer asked the students to write a reading report once a week. Therefore, group discussion also implemented in the extensive reading class to activated students' critical thinking. Besides, the result also showed that extensive reading assist students to comprehend new terms in several fields such as law, economics, health, politics etc. Overall, extensive reading help students to open their mind toward current issues and also boost students' reading ability.

Keywords: *English linguistics, English literature, English teaching, Article, Journal.*

Introduction

Reading is one of the important skills that should be mastered by the students since it has many advantages for them. A good reading competence is a necessity for students for those studying English. By reading, students are able to update current information and knowledge that will be benefit for their language improvement. However, students often find difficulties in reading since they do not understand the meaning of the sentences or words in the text. It is due to the position of students as L2 learners. Thus, it needs more effort for them to comprehend the meaning of the text. This is one reason why students are likely to be hesitant readers (Cahyono and Widiati, 2006) because reading in a foreign language is not easy. Moreover, students need more time to understand the text given by the lecturers in the class. Sometimes the time used in the class is not enough for students to be able to comprehend the book or passage well. It is in line with Ruzin (2019) that students reading a book or text in the classroom usually only have short time, so it causes students not able to figure out what they read, such as the content or the information from the text. Therefore, lecturers need to find appropriate teaching technique to encourage students' motivation and interest in reading. There are many teaching techniques that can be used for teaching reading, one of them is applying extensive reading in the class.

Reading is one of English skills that need to be mastered by language learners. Reading can be defined as a process to understand the meaning of a written text (Richards and Schmidt, 2010). As we know, the position of English language in our country is as a foreign language. It means, it needs certain learning method to comprehend it well. Since it is not our mother tongue, so it tends to difficult for us to comprehend what we read directly. Reading receives a special concentration in many second and foreign language teaching situations (Richard and Renandya, 2002). In the classroom context, students also stated that reading an English text is difficult to be understood. Then, it affected their reading performance in the class. To make them familiar with English texts, they have to build their reading habit and forced to read as many as English books.

The existence of extensive reading is different from intensive reading. In intensive reading, students are accustomed to read short texts with close guidance from the teacher. It is closely related to reading in the class or reading for academic purposes. Then, the main goal of intensive reading is to develop students' reading skill. According to Renandya (2007) the aim of intensive reading is to help students obtain detailed meaning from the text, to develop reading skills such as identifying main ideas and recognizing text connectors and to enhance vocabulary and grammar knowledge. On the other hand, to facilitate students' need in reading, students need reading activity that can make them happy and enjoy the activity of reading itself. Here is the role of extensive reading. The aim of extensive reading based on Extensive Reading Foundation (2011) is to help the student become better at the skill of reading rather than reading to study the language itself. However, extensive and intensive reading should not be separated because both of them have complementary goals.

Furthermore, extensive reading is one of right method to improve reading skill Ruzin (2019). Through extensive reading, students are able to choose their own books or passages. Thus, it will make them enjoy the reading activity. Extensive reading is a technique in teaching reading which is defined as a situation where students read a lot of materials in their level in a new language; they read for general, for overall meaning, and for information at one with enjoyment (Day and Bamford, 2004). Furthermore, Richards and Schmidt (2002) state that extensive reading is intended to develop good reading habits, to build up knowledge of vocabulary and structure, and encourage a liking for reading. The main purpose of implementing extensive reading is to motivate students to read more. Besides, it is expected through extensive reading activity, students are also able to improve their English skills. Therefore, the principal goal is to motivate students to read and enjoy reading in order to develop their reading ability (Meng, 2009). Because of this, reading is a pleasurable activity for students, promoted as much as possible by the teacher. According to Nation (2005), during extensive reading, students should be interested in what they are reading and should be reading with their attention on the meaning of the text rather than on learning the language features of the text.

In extensive reading activity, students are free to choose their own reading materials. One of the reasons why students take pleasure in extensive reading program is that they can choose what they want to read (Day and Bamford, 2004). Besides, students also able to do this activity outside the

class hour. Although students assigned to read outside the class, this activity should be monitored by the teachers. To keep track with students reading, teachers should encourage them to report back their reading in certain ways (Harmer, 2007) for example by employing reading journal. Moreover, the benefit of reading journal or reading report is it can be used to know how far the progress of students' reading. Another activity that can be utilized by students to do extensive reading is by discussing the text. This activity requires the students to actively engage in the discussion with their classmates. They can share their personal thought, opinion, or ideas toward the extensive reading materials they have read. It is in line with Sweet (2000) who suggests that student should be involved in group discussion where critical readers and learners are more likely to happen; students engage in daily discussions about what they read. Subsequently, students can share the result of their discussion to a classroom.

Method

This research was a descriptive qualitative study. The design fits with the requirements stated by Bogdan and Biklen (1992) that it has actual settings as the direct sources of data. The researcher functions as the key instrument in the study. This study is descriptive in nature since the data were in the form of words recorded in the interview transcript, field notes, and personal documents. The researcher used descriptive method in order to collect information and give description of the use of extensive reading to encourage students' reading ability. The participants of this study were 17 freshmen from a private university. The researcher also will use triangulation technique to avoid bias. It aims to examine the truth of the data. Furthermore, there were three instruments in collecting the data used in this study; classroom observation, questionnaire, and interview. Classroom observation was done four meetings in this part. Observation sheet and field notes were utilized to record notes about participants' behavior and performance during the observation (Creswell, 2012).

The reading class held once a week. In the first meeting, the observation sheet was not used because the lecturer directly gave a text and asked the students to had discussion. It means the lecturer did not implement extensive reading activity. On the other hand, in the second, third and fourth meeting lecturer used extensive reading activity in reading class. In the fourth

meeting, after the class is over, the lecturer gave questionnaire to the students. The questionnaire used open-ended questions to collect the data and it consists of 10 questions. The questions on the questionnaire covered students’ attitude toward extensive reading activity, students’ motivation in reading, students’ opinion toward group discussion in reading class, and students’ favorite reading activity.

The interview also done to clarify the findings. Besides, the lecturer also gave reading report to be filled by the students. It aimed to know about students extensive reading material. The reading report included information about the title of the book, passages or article, summary, list of new vocabularies, and moral value of the text. The interview also used to complete the findings in this study. It was done to the representative of the students. Seven from seventeen students interviewed to obtain more information toward their attitude of extensive reading.

Table 1. Instruments and variables

Instruments	Variables	Date of Data Collection
Class Observation	Students’ perspective on extensive reading, reading activity in the class, classroom atmosphere in reading class	20 August 2020 and 27 August 2020
Questionnaire	The Students’ perception on reading class, students’ perception on extensive reading, students’ opinion toward the use of reading report, students’ reading preferences	3 September 2020
Interview	Students’ perception on reading class, students’ opinion toward the use of reading report, students opinion on the benefit of extensive reading activity, students’ difficulties in reading	10 September 2020

Discussion

The findings from classroom observation showed that students had positive opinion about extensive reading. In the first meeting of reading class, the students might feel bored because the lecturer only asked them to read the text and after that she asked the students to discuss about the text they have read in the class. Sometimes the lecturer also gave several questions to the students related to the text. However, in the next meeting, the class atmosphere was different from previous meeting. The students more enthusiast in learning in the class. The reading class began with reading the students’ reading report one by one. After that they asked to make a group

consisted of four members. Then, they discussed about the text that they have read one by one in the group. The other members were given freedom to ask questions or add more information about their friends’ report. They looked more enthusiast in reading class because they can share their opinion with their friends. The result of the observation also showed that students’ perception or opinion toward extensive reading changed to positive way. The data from observation were also supported by the close-ended questionnaire.

Table 2. Percentage of Students’ Questionnaire

No	Statement	Percentage for Each Statement			
		Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1.	I enjoy reading outside the class	23 %	69%	8%	0%
2.	Extensive reading improves my vocabulary	69%	23%	8%	0%
3.	Extensive reading activity improves my reading comprehension	23%	77%	0%	0%
4.	I enjoy writing the reading report	0%	100%	0%	0%
5.	Group discussion encourages me to share the information I have read	0%	100%	0%	0%
6	Extensive reading motivates me to read more reading materials	54%	46%	0%	0%
7.	I agree if extensive reading used as a regular activity in my class	15%	85%	0%	0%
8.	Extensive reading helps me to understand new terms in several fields (economics, politics, health, etc.)	54%	38%	8%	0%
9.	Extensive reading helps me to improve my knowledge	77%	23%	0%	0%
10.	I enjoy sharing my opinion and ideas form the text I have read through group discussion	23%	77%	0%	0%

Furthermore, the finding from questionnaire reveals that the students enjoy doing extensive reading activity because they can choose their own reading text or passage. The students seemed very enthusiast when they asked to present their opinion or ideas to their friends. This finding is in line

with Day and Bamford (2004) statement that students take pleasure in extensive reading program because they can choose what they want to read. It means that giving freedom to students for choosing their own reading materials is important. Besides, it also gives benefit for students to build their reading habit easily by choosing their own reading materials. From the interview, it also obtained information that students can add more vocabularies through extensive reading.

On the other hand, while using extensive reading, lecturer should able to monitor students' reading progress. The statement about the use of extensive reading to boost their vocabulary mastery, took 9 students or 69% strongly agree with this statement while three of the students or 23% agree and 8% disagree about this statement. The findings of the observation revealed that students enjoy doing extensive reading since they asked to write reading report related to their text that they have read. It makes them more motivated in reading the text or passage. Through the reading report, it is also known that students enjoy the extensive reading because they can learn new vocabularies. Richards and Schmidt (2002) state extensive reading is intended to develop good reading habits, to build up knowledge of vocabulary and structure, and encourage a liking for reading. After they found new vocabularies then they directly found the meaning of those words. From the interview, it also obtained information that students can add more vocabularies through extensive reading. This is the result of interview with the students.

Kalau lagi baca bacaan Bahasa Inggris sering nemuin kata-kata baru dan ga tau artinya. Tapi kalau kita disuruh baca santai gini jadi ada waktu untuk buka kamus dan cari tau artinya. (When I read an English text, I usually found new vocabularies and I don't know what the meaning. But if we asked to read for pleasure, we have more time to open the dictionary and find the meaning of those new vocabularies). [Students 3]

The next question was about the role of extensive reading related to students' reading comprehension. Based on the result of questionnaire, three students or 23% strongly agree about this and 77% of the students agree that by extensive reading they are able to improve their reading comprehension. It is in line with Suk (2016) that extensive reading increases students' reading ability such as reading comprehension, reading rate, and vocabulary acquisition. By implementing extensive reading, it is expected that students will read more books or articles, so they will be more familiar with English text and they can understand it easily.

The result also revealed that students also enjoy having discussion with their friends related to the text they have read. Group discussion also the most favorite activity in reading class since it agreed by all of the students in the class. Sweet (2000) suggests, student should be involved in group discussion where critical readers and learners are more likely to happen; students engage in daily discussions about what they read. Moreover, discussion also able to activate students 'critical thinking in reading because in this activity they can share their opinion or taught about an issue. They were free to ask the questions to their friends. Besides, it also able to add students' knowledge toward current issue by having discussion with their friends.

Thus, from the questionnaire it is known that extensive reading also affected students' motivation in reading. Extensive reading also motivated students to read more reading materials. Seven students or 54% strongly agree about this statement wrote 46% agree. They said that they were motivated in reading because it is fun activity and they reading for pleasure. This builds confidence and motivation which makes the learner a more effective user of language (Rahmawati and Nasir, 2018). Whereas for the reasons why they were motivated and fairly motivated to reading English in general were because the texts were interesting, learning method and activities were enjoyable, there was reading homework and reading journal, and there was an opportunity to know English more (Meng, 2009). It is clearly stated that reading a lot of various reading sources make students more motivated in learning especially reading. It is due to reading usually claimed as boring activity for the students. However, when they asked to choose their own reading materials, they will be more enthusiast and they said they want to read more because there is no burden in doing that. They just read for themselves and the bonus is they can add their knowledge also obtaining new terms or vocabularies.

Furthermore, related to the continuity of extensive reading activity, it is better if it can be done regularly, for example every meeting or once a week. Moreover, students also agree that extensive reading used as a regular activity in reading class. Eleven students or 85% of the students agree while 15% or two students strongly agree about this statement. The regular reading activity will build students reading habit. The more our students read, the

better readers they become (Rasoli). On the other hand, students also agree that extensive reading assist them to comprehend new terms in several fields such as economics, politics, etc. It showed that by implementing extensive reading activity in the class, students able to open their mind wider toward several fields.

To be specific, from the result of questionnaire it showed that students enjoy extensive reading activity since it can boost their knowledge especially in English. The last statement was about extensive reading to help students to improve students' knowledge. As many as 77% or ten students strongly agree and 23% or three of them agree about this statement. It is in line with Ruzin (2019) statement that extensive reading has been proven as an appropriate way to upgrade students' reading ability in many aspects. When the students interviewed about this part, they also said that the like this activity because they can read various reading materials from several sources.

Saya suka bacaan tentang hukum. Maka dari itu ketika mendapat tugas ini saya cari bacaan tentang hukum. Dari situ saya jadi tau banyak tentang istilah-istilah yang digunakan dibidang hukum yang saya belum tau sebelumnya. (I like reading about law. That's why when I assigned to read, I directly chose the reading materials about law. From this activity I know about new terms used in law field that I did not know before). [Student 5]

Moreover, the result of questionnaire and interview also showed that students enjoy sharing their ideas and opinion through group discussion. In this part, students asked to discuss their reading experience to their friends in a group. Then they can tell everything related to the text or passage that they have read to their friends. It aims to activate their critical reading by having discussion with their friends. They also given freedom to ask questions to their friends related to the text. The students encouraged sharing what they acquired from their group discussion because they had read the text before and they also had group discussion related to the text (Ferdila, 2014). This suggests that several benefits from repeated reading exposure are "more positive attitudes toward reading, increased reading time and more active in-class participation" (Guo, 2012).

Conclusion

This study triggered from class observation in reading class. Most of the students might feel bored to the reading activity in the class. Thus, this study intended to know about the implementation of extensive reading in encouraging students' reading ability. This study also aimed to obtain

information about the role of extensive reading in assisting students' reading ability. Not only that, this study also tried to dig more information from students' attitude about extensive reading activity.

The study found that students really enjoy extensive reading activity and it can change their perception about reading into positive way. All this time, they always have perception that reading is a boring activity and it caused them reluctant to join reading class. It is due to reading class usually have monotonous activity. They only asked to read and then answer the questions. From the interview it is revealed that this activity cannot really help them in boosting their reading ability. However, by implementing extensive reading they are very enthusiast to read and report what they have read.

The most important thing is students able to improve their vocabulary mastery from extensive reading activity. It is because they are given freedom to choose their own reading materials. This is also become the main reason why they really enjoy this activity. Before that, the lecturer always utilized intensive reading only as their main activity in the reading class. By choosing their own reading materials, they can read as many texts, articles or books as they want. It turns out that they were more enthusiast in learning when they interested in that certain theme or field. Besides, students also argued that through extensive reading activity they can develop their reading comprehension. It is because they were assigned to read more than usual.

Furthermore, in extensive reading activity, the group discussion also raised to activated students' critical thinking. Besides, the atmosphere of the class will be different if the lecturer used discussion in the reading class. The students more enthusiast because they have chance to speak up to deliver their opinion or ask questions to their friends. Through group discussion the students also able to exchange their opinion to other members of the group. On the other hand, the lecturer also used reading report to monitor or keep the track students' reading progress. According to students, they enjoy writing the reading report since it can help them summarize the content of what they have read.

Thus, extensive reading also motivates students to read various text since they are given freedom to choose their own reading materials from

several sources. It is also affected their reading frequency because they can read more from different sources. Then, students also agree if the extensive reading activity used as regular activity in their reading class. It aimed to make them more familiar with reading and able to build a better reading habit. They realized that by read more texts or books, it can open their eyes wider toward the current issues or information. Not only that, by reading various topics from several sources such as economic, health, law, politics etc. They become more familiar with new terms from those fields.

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MULTILINGUALISM AND CODESWITCHING IN LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

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Abstract

There are more languages than the number of countries all over the world. This causes the existence of multilingualism in which a group of society can speak more than one language. Somehow, in the middle of the speech, a speaker unintentionally and intentionally changes their language to the other language to highlight the speech or to make it easier to understand. Hence this paper reviews research findings on one of the key issues to which language contact in an educational setting has given rise, namely, the rationale for codeswitching practices in language acquisition. This is a library research presented in descriptive qualitative data. The data are taken from related literatures and observations. In particular, it reports on why bilingual teachers and students sometimes resort to codeswitching, and whether classroom codeswitching is an impediment or a resource to learning.

Keywords: *Codeswitching, Language acquisition, Multilingualism.*

Introduction

Multilingualism is to be expected as a very common phenomenon all over the world, considering that there are almost 7.000 languages and about 200 independent countries all over the world (Lewis, 2011). It happens because not only there are more languages than countries but also that the number of speakers of the different languages is unevenly distributed in their daily life. Multilinguals speaker can be those of minority indigeneous language (e.g Gayo in Indonesia, Dayak in Malaysia) who need to learn the dominant state language.

In other cases, multilinguals are immigrant who speak their first languages as well as the target languages or language of their host countries. To be related, languages are learned and spread internationally and it is considered as that they open doors for better economic and social opportunities. Currently this is the case of English, which is the most widespread language and is commonly used as a school subject as well as a language instruction in school and universities all over the world (Kirkpatrick & Sussex, 2012). Since this is a complex phenomenon, it can be studied from different perspectives in diciplines such as linguistics, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics and education. Hence this paper will focus on the perspectives of sociolinguistics which is cannot be separated from the use of codeswitching in a converstion.

Codeswitching deals with the intersentential alternating use of two or more languages or varieties of a language in the same speech situation. Over the past 30 years, codeswitching has been one of the most researched topics in sociolinguistics (Rubdy, 2007; Heller, 2008; Jacobson, 2010; Blom & Gumperz, 2012; Ferguson, 2013; Myers-Scotton, 2013; Kachru, 2018; Kamwangamalu & Lee, 2019). Especialy in multilingual society, the use of codeswitching appears more than twice in a single sentence.

A related term, codemixing, refers to the intrasentential alternating use of two or more languages or varieties of a language and is often used in studies of grammatical aspects of bilingual speech (Muysken, 2010; Poplack & Meechan, 2015). Grammatical studies of codemixing are concerned with, among other things, determining the types (e.g. nouns, verbs, etc.) of codemixing patterns that occur often in bilingual speech and why; investigating whether codemixing is syntactically random or rule governed;

and exploring whether the rules or constraints that govern codemixing are universal or language-specific.

Traditionally a distinction is made between codemixing and codeswitching, however current literature generally uses the term codeswitching, and this will be the case in the rest of this paper, as a cover term for all instances of bilingual language alternation, whether intra or intersentential. Auer (2015) refers codeswitching as the alternating use of two or more languages as code alternation. He uses the term code alternation to cover 'all cases in which semiotic systems are put in a relationship of contiguous juxtaposition, such that the appropriate recipients of the resulting complex sign are in a position to interpret this juxtaposition as such' (Auer, 2015: 116).

Gumperz (2012) remarks that code alternation is one kind of contextualization cue. Contextualization cues are constellations of surface features of message form by which speakers signal and listeners interpret what the activity is, how semantic content is to be understood and how each sentence relates to what precedes or follows (Gumperz, 2012: 131). Codeswitching signals contextual information equivalent to what in monolingual settings is conveyed through prosody or other syntactic or lexical processes. It generates the presuppositions in terms of which the context of what is said is decoded (Gumperz, 2012: 98). Codeswitching, henceforth CS, is a by product of language contact. As Haugen (2012) observes, when two or more languages come into contact, as is the case in multilingual communities around the world, they tend to color one another. This coloring has termed interlingual contagion, manifests itself in language contact phenomena such as CS, borrowing, code-crossing, diglossia, language shift, to name but a few (Haugen, 2012).

CS is different from the other language contact phenomena in many respects. Then it goes on to review some of the perspectives from which CS has been investigated to provide the reader with a broader view of CS, namely the interactional, markedness and political ideological approaches. Following that, it is required to highlight findings on: Why do bilingual teachers and students sometime use CS in the classroom? This will be followed by a discussion of the implications of CS classroom for the English only argument in Indonesia, as well as in ESL/EFL classrooms worldwide.

Codeswitching, Borrowing and Language Shift

Borrowing across languages is defined with reference to the 'end product' rather than the process (Kamwangamalu, 2010: 296). Gumperz

(2012: 66) defines borrowing as the introduction of single words or short, frozen, idiomatic phrases from one language into another. The lexical items in columns A and B below, for instance, are examples of borrowings from English into two Indonesian and Malay languages, respectively. Indonesian language is the national language of Indonesia and is spoken as first language by about 267,7 million people. Malay language is the national language of Malaysia and is spoken by about 31,53 million people as first language.

A. Indonesian language	B. Malay language
<i>aktor</i> ‘actor’	<i>bambu</i> ‘bamboo’
<i>bom</i> ‘bomb’	<i>kati</i> ‘caddy’
<i>kartun</i> ‘cartoon’	<i>kesuari</i> ‘cassowary’
<i>detektif</i> ‘detective’	<i>geko</i> ‘gecko’
<i>fesyen</i> ‘fashion’	<i>pantun</i> ‘pantoum’

These items provide support for the view that when a linguistic item is borrowed, it is integrated, phonologically, morphologically and syntactically, into the grammatical system of the borrowing language (Poplack, 2008). In some cases, however, the borrowed items may resist integration. Poplack (2008) calls such items ‘*nonce borrowings*’, and defines them as linguistic items from one language (e.g., French) used in discourse in the other language (e.g., English) which do not show any adaptation, at least in their written form, to the linguistic system of the borrowing language. Examples of nonce borrowings include English phrases such as ‘*charge d’affaires, déjà vu, comme ci, comme ça*’ and lexical items such as *chauffeur, coiffeur*, etc., all of which are borrowings from French. It is worth noting that despite their lack of adaptation, in terms of social integration (Hasselmo, 2012: 180), nonce borrowings are a part and parcel of the linguistic system of the borrowing language. Hasselmo (2012) uses the term *social integration* to refer to the degrees of consistency, regularity, and frequency with which linguistic items from one language are used in discourse in the other language.

Borrowing, whether nonce or integrated, does not require or presuppose any degree of competence in two languages, but CS does. Put differently, borrowing can occur in the speech of both monolingual and bilingual speakers alike; however, CS is strictly speaking a characteristic feature of the linguistic behavior of bilingual speakers. Also, in terms of

function, generally speakers use borrowing to fill lexical gaps in their languages. However, they engage in CS for a variety of reasons, such as the following: to express in group solidarity, to exclude someone from a conversation by switching to a language the person does not understand, to emphasize a point by repeating it in two languages, etc. (Myers-Scotton, 2013; Finlayson & Slabbert, 2017). Further, unlike borrowing, CS can lead to the formation of mixed language varieties including pidgins (e.g. fanagalo and Tsotsitaal in South Africa, pidgin English in Nigeria) and creoles (e.g. Franglais in Mauritius, Haitian creole) or to language shift (Myers-Scotton, 2013).

Concerning language shift, Fasold (2014) explains that it is a gradual process in which a speech community, for one reason or another, gives up its language and adopts a new one. The process of language shift, as Fishman (2011) puts it, refers particularly to ‘speech communities whose native languages are threatened because their intergenerational continuity is proceeding negatively, with fewer and fewer users or uses every generation’ (Fishman, 2011: 1). Over the past few years, Kamwangamalu (2010) had informally observed language shift as it happens in immigrant African families in the Washington DC area. It seemed that soon after they arrive in the United States younger African children in particular become bilingual in English and their original African language. However, it does not take long before they start speaking English only, especially when interacting with peers or with siblings. As Romaine (2014) notes, the starting point of language shift is bilingualism, often accompanied by diglossia, as a stage on the way to monolingualism in a new language, in this case English. Romaine (2014) explains that ‘typically, a community which was once monolingual becomes bilingual as a result of contact with another (usually socially and economically more powerful) group and becomes transitionally bilingual in the new language until their own language is given up altogether’ (Romaine, 1994: 50).

Codeswitching and Diglossia

The concept of diglossia has received considerable attention in the literature over the years (Ferguson, 2013; Fishman, 2011; Schiffman, 2017). Ferguson (2013) uses the term diglossia to refer to a situation where two genetically related varieties of a language, one identified as the H(igh) (or standard) variety and the other as the L(ow) (i.e. nonstandard) variety, have clearly distinct functions in the community. Ferguson (2013: 236) notes that the H variety is used in formal settings, whereas the L variety is used in

informal interactions. More specifically, the H variety is used, for instance, for giving sermons in mosques or churches, speeches in the parliament, formal lectures at universities, broadcasting the news on radio and television and for writing editorials in newspapers. In contrast, it is observed that the L variety is used for giving instructions to servants, waiters, workers and clerks; in conversations with family, friends and colleagues; and in folk literature and soap operas on the radio.

According to Ferguson (2013), anyone who uses H while engaged in an informal activity like shopping, or who uses L during a formal activity like a parliamentary debate, runs the risk of ridicule. Generally, H is learnt at school, while L is more spontaneously acquired in informal settings. H is generally perceived as more aesthetically pleasing and beautiful, and has more prestige than L. H has a literary tradition, whereas L does not. And if there does exist a body of literature in L, it is usually written by foreigners rather than by native speakers. Taking the above characteristic features of diglossia into account, Ferguson defines diglossia as:

“a relatively stable language situation in which, in addition to the primary dialects of the language (which may include a standard or regional standards), there is a very divergent, highly codified (often grammatically more complex) superposed variety, the vehicle of a large and respected body of written literature, either of an earlier period or in another speech community, which is learned largely by formal education and is used for most written and formal spoken purposes but is not used by any sector of the community for ordinary conversation.” (Ferguson, 2013: 245)

Although Ferguson’s definition of diglossia is concerned specifically with two varieties (H and L) of the same language, Fishman (2011: 75) has extended the definition to include situations where two genetically unrelated languages are used in the community, one in formal settings and the other in informal settings. This extended or broad diglossia as it has come to be known, best describes the relationship that holds among languages, especially in multilingual post colonial settings (Kamwangamalu, 2010: 103). In such settings, former colonial languages, for instance French, Portuguese, Spanish and English in Africa; English in parts of Asia (e.g. the Philippines, Malaysia, Singapore, etc.) and Spanish and Portuguese in Latin America, coexist with local languages in a diglossic relationship, where the

ex colonial language is the H language and the local languages are the L languages.

Most studies of diglossia have, expectedly, focused on the functional dependency or complementarity between the participating languages, arguing that where one language is used the other is not and vice versa. For instance, in his study of vernacular–Swahili–English triglossia in Tanzania, Mkilifi (2008) describes the functional distribution of the three languages, pointing out that each of the languages is assigned to certain domains in the community: the vernacular is used as an intra group language and is associated with rural African culture-related activities; Kiswahili is associated with pre-industrial, non technological urban type of African culture; English is associated with technology and official business. Wald (2016) makes a similar point about Yakoma and Sango in the Central African Republic, noting that the former is the L language and the latter is the H language.

However, in spite of the strict compartmentalization of languages that is at the heart of the concept of diglossia, research shows that CS involving H and L is widespread in multilingual communities around the world (MacSwan, 2000; Proshina & Etkin, 2005; Watkhaolarm, 2005; Heller, 2008; Jacobson, 2010; Blom & Gumperz, 2012; Auer, 2015; Kachru, 2018). Also, there is evidence that CS can and does occur in any domain of language use, formal (including the classroom) or informal; its occurrence in either domain is determined by variables of the context of situation, especially the topic and the interlocutors (Bamiro, 2006; Martin-Jones, 2015; Li, 2018). And yet, it seems that the relationship between CS and diglossia in a formal context such as the classroom has hardly been explored. This constitutes a fertile area for further research into CS. Also, the very fact that CS can occur in a formal domain such as the classroom calls for a redefinition of diglossia, for modern language practices in multilingual communities around the world are at odds with the premise on which diglossia is based, namely, strict functional compartmentalization of languages.

Codeswitching and Code-crossing

Earlier it was pointed out that CS is a contextualization cue in the sense Gumperz (2012) defines. Related to CS as a contextualization cue is what Ben Rampton has termed code-crossing, a concept that is central to Rampton's book titled *Crossing*. Rampton describes code-crossing as 'code alternation by people who are not accepted members of the group associated with the second language they employ. It is concerned with switching into

languages that are not generally thought to belong to you' (Rampton, 2015: 280). An example of this phenomenon would be, in the case of the United States, a non-African American rapper using African American Vernacular English, a variety with which the artist may not be associated in the wider American society. CS differs from code-crossing in many respects. First, code-crossing is an out-group phenomenon; but CS is an in-group phenomenon, restricted to those who share the same expectations and rules of interpretation for the use of the two languages. Usually it is seen as a device used to affirm participants' claims to membership and the solidarity of the group in contrast to outsiders' (Woolard, 2018: 69–70).

Second, the difference between in-group CS and out-group code-crossing, argues Rampton (2015: 282), resides in the fact that in in-group practice, both languages can also be used in the unexceptional conduct of everyday life. Code-crossing, however, does not have this flexibility: 'the code-alternation it entails is much more likely to be "flagged" (e.g., marked by pauses, hesitation phenomena, repetition and metalinguistic commentary)' (Rampton, 2015: 282).

Third, unlike CS, code-crossing involves a disjunction between a speaker and code that cannot be readily accommodated as a normal part of ordinary social reality (Rampton, 2015: 283). However, whatever code or language is selected not only carries social meaning (Rampton, 2015: 284), but it is also prestigious and powerful (Rampton, 2015: 286).

Fourth, unlike CS, code-crossing bears the distinctive characteristic of being always marked in the sense Myers-Scotton (2013) defines, that is, it always entails use of the least expected language or language variety in a given linguistic interaction. Finally, the occurrence of CS in bilinguals' interactions presupposes no violation of the norms that govern language use in the community of which the participants are members. In code-crossing, however, the speaker may choose to challenge these norms by diverging from the 'referee' and converging toward the audience, namely the addressee. In this regard, the 'audience' may have more than one circle. While in every interaction there is a second person whom the speaker directly addresses – the addressee – in some instances, there may also be third parties who, though not physically present, are actually ratified participants of the interaction. As noted elsewhere (Kamwangamalu, 2010: 90), these third

parties or the referee as Bell calls them, sometimes possess such salience for a speaker that they influence his/her speech even in their absence. This influence can be so great that the speaker diverges from the addressee and converges toward the 'referee'. Despite the differences outlined above between CS and code-crossing, both phenomena are, again, contextualization cues as defined in Gumperz (2012). As such, they can serve as acts of identity: through them the speaker may 'project his/her inner universe, implicitly with the invitation to others to share it, at least insofar as they recognize his/her language as an accurate symbolization of the world, and to share his/her attitudes towards it' (Le Page & Tabouret Keller, 2015: 181). Having discussed the difference between CS and related language contact phenomena such as borrowing, language shift, diglossia and codecrossing, the following section discusses briefly some of the approaches from which CS has been studied. It aims to underscore the fact that classroom language practices are a microcosm of language practices in the wider bilingual or multilingual society.

Method

The design of this research was library research presented in descriptive qualitative data. It aims to give some explanations and comparisons about the existing theories. The data are taken from related literatures and observations. In particular, it reports on why bilingual teachers and students sometimes resort to codeswitching, and whether classroom codeswitching is an impediment or a resource to learning.

Discussion

This section discusses the approaches to codeswitching. CS has been investigated from a number of approaches, among them grammatical, psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic approaches. The goal of grammatical approaches to CS has been presented previously. Psycholinguistic approaches to CS explore, among other issues, how CS sentences are processed, whether CS sentences take longer to process than monolingual sentences, whether CS derives from the interaction of monolingual grammars or from a separate grammar, the so called third or CS grammar (Costa, 2014; Lederberg & Morales, 2015).

Sociolinguistic approaches to CS seek to determine why bilingual speakers sometime engage in CS. This section concentrates on the latter approaches, for they provide the background against which classroom CS can be understood better. Some of the approaches to be discussed below

include the interactional approach (Gumperz, 2012), the markedness approach (Myers-Scotton, 2013) and the political–ideological approach (Heller, 2008).

The interactional approach to codeswitching

The interactional approach's focus is not so much on details of constituent structure but rather on the social meaning of CS and, as Milroy and Muysken (2015: 9) note, on the discourse and interactional functions that CS performs for speakers. In this approach, CS is viewed as a contextualization cue, as Gumperz (2012) defines. Myers-Scotton (2013: 57) comments that within the interactional approach, speakers are understood to use language in the way they do not simply because of their social identities or because of other factors. Rather, they exploit the possibility of linguistic choices in order to convey intentional meaning of a sociopragmatic nature. Code choices then, including CS, are not just choices of content, but are discourse strategies.

Gumperz's interactional approach to CS is mostly known for the distinction it makes between situational codeswitching and metaphorical codeswitching. A parallel distinction can be found in Oksa (2012: 492), who uses the terms external codeswitching and internal codeswitching, or in Jacobson (2018), who distinguishes between sociologically conditioned codeswitching and psychologically conditioned codeswitching. Situational CS (i.e. external or sociologically conditioned CS) has to do with the social factors that trigger CS, such as the participants, the topic, and the setting. The bilingual's code choice is partly dependent on them. Metaphorical CS (i.e. internal or psychologically conditioned CS) concerns language factors, especially the speaker's fluency and his/her ability to use various emotive devices.

The Gumperz approach has been criticized for its taxonomic view of CS (Myers-Scotton, 2013: 52–55), which consists in listing the functions of CS in a particular speech situation. The criticism stems from the fact that language is dynamic. Not a single individual speaks the same way all the time, nor does anyone, including monolinguals, use a single register or style in every speech situation. Also, there are a variety of domains, topics and situations in which bilingual speakers may use CS. Therefore, listing the

functions of CS, as the Gumperz approach does, distracts from the search for generalizations on the functions of CS in multilingual societies.

Notwithstanding these criticisms, Gumperz' approach supports the idea, documented by many scholars including Gumperz himself, that CS is not meaningless or a deficit to be stigmatized. Rather, it can and does indeed serve a wide range of functions in bilingual interactions, such as to express modernization, confidentiality, solidarity or in-groupness identity, sympathy and intimacy, to list a few (Gumperz, 1982; Kachru, 2018).

The markedness approach to codeswitching

The markedness approach has evolved from Myers-Scotton's research into CS in East Africa, especially in Kenya. The main claim of this approach is that all linguistic choices, including CS, are indices of social negotiations of rights and obligations existing between participants in a conversational exchange (Myers-Scotton, 2013: 152–153). These rights and obligations are said to derive from whatever situational features are salient to the exchange, such as the status of the participants, the topic and the setting. It is the interplay between these features and more dynamic, individual considerations that determines the linguistic choices that individuals make about media for conversational exchanges.

The markedness approach predicts CS as a realization of one of the following three types of negotiations (Myers-Scotton, 2013: 156). First, in conventionalized exchanges, CS may be an unmarked choice between peers, unmarked in the sense that it is the expected choice for the exchange in question and its use signals solidarity and in-groupness identity amongst the participants. Second, with any participants in such exchanges CS may be a marked choice, that is, it is the unexpected choice in that exchange and therefore signals social distance amongst the participants. Third, in no conventionalized exchanges or uncertain situations, CS is an exploratory choice presenting multiple identities. It is explained that in these situations, since there is no apparent unmarked choice, speakers nominate an exploratory choice as the basis for the exchange. In other words, speakers 'negotiate' one code first as a medium for the exchange and, depending upon the outcome of the negotiation, they may negotiate another code until they are satisfied that they have reached the balance of rights and obligations required for that particular conversational exchange.

The markedness approach has indeed contributed significantly to our understanding of why bilingual speakers use their languages the way they do in their communities. However, it has been criticized for being too static

to account for the social motivations for CS across languages and cultures (Kamwangamalu, 2016). Consider, for instance, the following conversation between a lecturer and her students in a lecture room at the University of Sebelas Maret, Surakarta Central Java. The lecturer (a native speaker) negotiates an early date for a test with her students, but the students would prefer to write the test later because they have already committed to writing tests for other courses. Not to challenge the lecturer openly, one student switches to Javanese in appealing to fellow students for support against writing the test sooner. The student uses Javanese so that the lecturer, not a Javanese speaker herself, would not understand what the student is saying. Following the markedness approach, the switch from English to Javanese is clearly a marked choice intended to create distance between the lecturer and the students, for Javanese is the least expected medium of communication in a University lecture room, especially if the parties involved all do not share this language. Note, however, that from the speaker's perspective, CS to Javanese also qualifies as an unmarked choice, for it is intended to create solidarity between the speaker and her fellow students. What this means is that CS as a marked choice can be a double-edged sword: it can simultaneously exclude and include; it can create rapprochement and distance, much as it can reinforce the whiteness versus the otherness among the participants in a conversational exchange.

Javanese-English CS (Dipta, 2015)

Lecturer: What if I gave you a short test tomorrow.

Students: No, Mam, tomorrow we are writing a test for another course.

Lecturer: When do you think we can write it? We should definitely have one this week.

One student (turning to his fellow students):

He cah! Ojo do gelem nggarap tugase iki yo. Mosok iyo saben minggu adewe kudu ngerjakno tugase dekenen rumangsane adewe mung njupuk mata kuliah iki tok to yo (Translation: Hey, guys! Never agree to write the test! Every week we write her tests as if this is the only course, we are taking this term)

Lecturer (to the student who was addressing his classmates): What are you saying?

The Student: I'm saying, Mam, what if we write it next week.

[The rest of the class laughs]

This example of Javanese-English classroom CS shows clearly that CS as a marked choice does not necessarily or always entail social distance among the participants. This point holds also for CS as a marked choice in other formal settings, such as political rallies, church services, etc. For instance, when politicians use CS at public rallies or in formal meetings, their aim is not so much to distance themselves from their audiences or addressees. Rather, they use CS to create an opposite, no matter how symbolic, effect: rapprochement, oneness and solidarity with their audiences.

Internationally, other examples of CS as a marked choice include cases discussed in Kamwangamalu (2010: 291–292): Koffi Annan's use of French-English CS in his 1997 maiden speech at the UN to seek rapprochement with the French, who had reportedly opposed his candidacy as UN Secretary General; Nelson Mandela's use of Afrikaans-English CS at meetings with the Afrikaners while negotiating the end of apartheid in South Africa; a Zimbabwe mayor's use of Ndebele-English CS in the legislature. Contrary to the predictions of the markedness approach to CS, the unexpected (i.e. marked) use of French, Afrikaans and Ndebele, respectively in these cases is clearly intended to create rapprochement rather than distance between the speakers and their audiences.

A similar criticism of the staticness of the markedness approach to CS can be found in Meeuwis and Blommaert (2014). In particular, they call into question the key claim of the markedness approach that the negotiation of identities, rights and obligations is the explanation for all the uses, functions and meanings of CS in every CS society. Specifically, they are very critical of what they call 'the disappearance of ethnographic specificity' in Myers-Scotton's approach to CS. In their view, Myers-Scotton (2013: 412) neglects ethnographic description because of 'her ambitions to postulate innateness and universality as the level at which CS should be explained'. In making a 'quantum leap over and beyond ethnography', the markedness approach is a social and fails to account for the community specific empirical facts that account for most of the social in communication.

Indeed, one cannot explain the function of CS in bilingual or multilingual societies solely in terms of the negotiation of identities in interpersonal communication, for, as we will see below in the discussion of the ideological-political approach, CS is sometimes used for political gains (Heller, 2012). Nevertheless, there seems to be no justification in Meeuwis and Blommaert's describing as a-social a theory, the markedness theory, which attempts to account for the social motivations for CS.

The political–ideological approach to codeswitching

While Myers-Scotton maintains that all linguistic choices including CS are indexical of social negotiations of rights and obligations, there are studies of code choice in which the political and language–ideological dimensions of CS are stressed (Heller, 2012; Kamwangamalu, 2010; Lin, 2016). In these studies, CS is seen as a point of entry into the exploration of processes whereby dominant groups use conventions of language choice to maintain relations of power, while subordinate groups may (at times simultaneously) acquiesce to, resist or even exploit conventions of language choice to redefine them (Heller, 2012). Accordingly, CS is seen as *linguistic capital* and one of the powerful and potentially effective strategies that people have at their disposal and that they use to achieve pre-determined social goals, such as exercise power over others or identify with certain groups for political gains (e.g. votes). The distribution of this capital in the community is related in specific ways to the distribution of other forms of capital (e.g. economic capital, cultural capital, etc.) that define the location of an individual within the social space (Bourdieu, 2011).

In some communities the linguistic capital itself may, as Bourdieu (2011) notes with regard to Fabian's (2012) study of French Swahili CS in former Zaire, now the Democratic Republic of Congo, be the locus *par excellence* of conflict and contest in language. In his study, Fabian documents resistance against 'standard' norms of communication, noting that neither the 'standard' nor the 'heretic' is neutral: both are political instruments either at the service of hegemony or at the service of resistance to this hegemony. Similarly, Heller's (2012) study of language choice and French-English CS in Quebec, Canada, reveals that like Fabian's study, CS is not arbitrary but concerns relations of power – different ways of seeing the world in struggle with each other. The individuals who participate in this struggle are said to have different aims – some will seek to preserve the status quo, others to change it – and differing chances of winning or losing, depending upon where they are located in the structured space of their respective positions in society (Bourdieu, 2011). Heller (2012: 140) concludes in her study that 'in order to understand the role and significance of CS, it is essential to understand not only its distribution in the community, but also how that distribution is tied to the way groups control both the

distribution of access to valued resources and the way in which that value is assigned'. In this regard, Bourdieu (2011) theorizes that people make choices about what languages to use in particular kinds of markets, which he defines as places where different kinds of resources or capital are distributed. Multilingual classrooms represent one such market where decisions about language choice are made. The following section is highlighted key findings on why bilingual teachers and students sometime choose to use CS in this particular market, the classroom.

Pedagogical Motivations for Codeswitching

Classroom CS entails simultaneous use of two languages including a target language (L2) such as English and students' first language (L1), or of two varieties of the target language, one standard and one nonstandard, for classroom interaction and instructional exchanges. The use of both Javanese English and Standard American English in the classroom, for instance English. The pre observation indicates that some teachers support the promotion of Javanese as a variety of English in its own right; but others oppose it in favor of Standard American English (Rinda, 2015). This issue is discussed later in the implications of classroom CS for the (Standard) English-only argument in Indonesia, as well as in English-medium or ESL/EFL classrooms worldwide.

CS involving L1 and L2 in education has been documented in many countries around the world, for example Edstrom (2016), Franquiz and del Carmen (2014) and Flowers (2010) in the United States; Arthur (2011) in Botswana and Tanzania; Merritt *et al.* (2012) and Bunyi (2018) in Kenya; Peires (2014) in South Africa; Canagarajah (2015) in Sri Lanka; Rubdy (2017) in Singapore; Lin (2016) in Hong Kong; Liu *et al.* (2014) in Korea; Slotte-Luttge (2017) in Finland; etc. The central quest of this research has been to explain why bilingual teachers and students use CS in the classroom and especially whether classroom CS is an impediment or a resource to learning. Those literatures have shown that classroom CS is not detrimental to the acquisition of the target language or variety. Rubdy (2017: 320) notes that on the contrary and far from being a dysfunctional form of speech behavior, as some educational authorities have implied, classroom CS can be an important, even necessary, communicative resource for the management of learning.

As such, classroom CS is a teaching learning aid that can be used to meet a wide range of classroom needs, it can be used: to build rapport and provide a sense of inclusiveness (Rubdy, 2017); to compensate for a lack of

comprehension (Edstrom, 2006); to manage the classroom and transmit content (Butzkamm, 2018); to express solidarity with the students (Camilleri, 2016); to praise or scorn (Moodley, 2013), and so on. For instance, in an investigation into the use of Singlish (Singapore Colloquial English) in education in Singapore, Rubdy (2017) reports that despite the stigma with which it is associated, Singlish is more often than not used in the classroom. Indeed, the official mandate stipulates that only Singapore Standard English should be used in the classroom. However, it seems that teachers switch to Singlish because it best serves their teaching needs: it empowers them to explain difficult points or concepts, to inject humor, to establish a warmer, friendlier atmosphere in the classroom, to encourage greater student involvement, etc. (Rubdy, 2017: 314, 322).

In a similar but practitioner research study, Edstrom (2016) documents her own teaching practices using English in an otherwise Spanish classroom in the United States. In particular, the author sought to discover how much English she used in a first semester Spanish course, to identify the functions or purposes for which she used it, to compare her perceptions, and those of her students, with her actual practices, and to critique her L1/L2 use in light of her own pedagogical belief system. Edstrom reports that she found Spanish/ English classroom CS useful. She used it, for instance, for grammar instruction, classroom management, and for compensating for a lack of comprehension (Edstrom, 2016: 283). Edstrom cautions teachers not to adhere blindly to a professional guideline, but rather to identify, and perhaps re-evaluate their moral obligations to their students and their objectives for the language learning process (Edstrom, 2016; 289).

Likewise, Hadjioannou (2019: 287) remarks that instead of alienating or disenfranchising dialect speaking students by rejecting their mother tongue and stigmatizing its use in school, teachers should develop a healthier attitude toward diglossia to foster student academic success. Ferguson (2013) anticipated this point, in noting that as both members of a profession and members of the local community, teachers may wish from time to time to step out of their teachers' persona and stress co membership of the local vernacular community with their students. They can do so, for instance, by switching to the vernacular when they scold or praise the students. In this regard, Liu *et al.* (2015, cited in Rubdy, 2017: 322) argue that in an

increasingly globalized world, CS may need to be added as curriculum objective, a required life skill.

Other scholars, such as Franquiz and del Carmen (2014), make an even stronger argument in their study of language practices in the education of Mexican–American students. In particular, the authors argue that teachers should practice a humanizing pedagogy to foster healthy educational orientations for their students. A humanizing pedagogy entails ‘valuing the students’ background knowledge, culture, and life experiences, and creating learning contexts where power is shared by students and teachers. Teachers who practice a humanizing pedagogy make use of ‘the funds of cultural knowledge’ of their students’ heritage community; that is, in their literary practices such teachers focus on what students can do and achieve with the linguistic and cultural resources they bring to the class room from outside of school (Franquiz & del Carmen, 2014: 49).

It is crucial, then, that teachers reflect seriously on how they respond to the linguistic resources that their students bring to learning. As McKay (2018: 23) observes, in classrooms in multilingual contexts where the teacher shares a first language with the students, teachers need to carefully consider how they can best make use of their students’ first language to enhance their competence in a target language. The literature suggests that where teachers do not share a first language with the students, other teaching strategies, such as peer-teaching or peer-tutoring, should be employed. Peer-teaching refers to any activity involving students helping one another to understand, review, practice and remember. It entails switching to the language that the learners know best, their L1 or ‘a conversational lubricant’, and use it as a springboard for acquiring a target language. More specifically, peer-teaching involves using learners as models, sources of information, and interactants for each other in such a way that learners assume roles and responsibilities normally taken by a formally trained teacher (Gaies, 2015: 131). By using peer-teaching the teacher sub-contracts, as it were, some of his prerogatives to pairs or small groups of students headed by surrogate teachers. Instructional exchanges between teachers and students or between students and students provide opportunities for learners to practice L2 skills, to test out their hypotheses about how the language works, to get useful feedback and, in short, to make ‘real attempts at communication’.

Peer-teaching, a much-publicized practice in contemporary education, has emerged as a response to the challenges and changes in the language teaching profession and to the need to make language instruction as effective

and meaningful as possible. This method of teaching attained great popularity in Britain during the early 20th century. The appeal of using children to teach other children was due to the very promising reports about the academic and social effects of tutoring programs (Gartner *et al.*, 1971, quoted in Allen, 2016: 10). The reports showed that the tutor (the pupil teacher) and the tutee (the pupil learner) did not only gain in academic achievement, but there was also improvement in social behavior, attitudes and self-esteem as well. Also, in entrusting the tutors with the task of tutoring their less proficient classmates, the teacher acknowledges that these aides are good at what they are doing. In doing so, the teacher instills confidence in the tutors and stimulates them to work even harder in their studies. On the other hand, the tutees are constantly stimulated and perceive the level of their tutors as more easily attainable than that of native speakers, their teacher or other language models.

The English-only Argument

The research reviewed in the foregoing sections indicates that classroom CS is a resource rather than an impediment to learning. Very often, however, the question whether a native language or language variety should be used in the classroom has been a source of controversy and debate among applied linguists and policy makers of all persuasion, as pointed out earlier with respect to the Javanese English controversy in Indonesia.

The debate, which has come to be known as the English-only argument or Teach-English-Through-English (TETE) in Asia and in many English-medium or ESL/EFL countries worldwide, seems to be far from over (Auerbach, 2013). As Auerbach (2013: 14) notes, the proponents of the English-only argument, just like the proponents of what may be called the 'TETE' argument in Asia and elsewhere, claim that English is best taught monolingually, that the more English is taught, the better the results, that using students' L1 or variety will impede the development of thinking in English, and that if other languages are used too much, standards of English will drop (Auerbach, 2013). Contrary to these claims, several studies including those cited above have shown that students' L1 has an important role to play in an English-only classroom, especially for learners who are less proficient in the target language, English (Cook, 2001).

For example, in a study comparing academic oral interaction in TETE (i.e. English-medium) lectures and Indonesian-medium lectures, Rinda (2015: 15) reports that, due to their limited proficiency in English, students encountered more difficulty expressing themselves in TETE lectures than in Indonesian-medium lectures. It is observed that not only did the students have more difficulty with lecture comprehension and note-taking in TETE lectures than in Indonesian-medium lectures, but they also had difficulty participating in small group discussions, oral presentations, and whole class discussions in English-medium lectures (Rinda, 2015: 14). In a similar study investigating Javanese teachers' attitude toward TETE, Rinda (2015: 68) notes that teachers experience a high degree of anxiety associated with TETE, for they themselves, like their students, have limited proficiency in English. It seems that using students' and teachers' L1 (i.e. Indonesian) in the classroom would help both teachers and students develop proficiency in the target language, English.

As already pointed out, research shows that L1 plays a positive role in L2 learning. For instance, Dipta (2015) provides an account of the use of learners' L1 in accelerated ESL classroom at senior high school 2 Ponorogo, East Java. At the Center, students are allowed to start writing about their future dream in their L1. With the assistance of more proficient learners or bilingual tutors, the texts produced by the learners are translated into English, the target language. The outcome of this exercise is that it validates the learners' lived experience, provides the learners with opportunities to experiment and take risks with English, and constitutes a natural bridge for overcoming problems of vocabulary, sentence structure and language confidence (Dipta, 2015: 72). Moreover, Rinda provides several examples of classroom CS in science lessons in junior high school 2 Madiun East Java, noting that the switch to the learners' home language serves to render the culturally unfamiliar familiar, make the implicit explicit, provide contextualization cues, and raise learners' metalinguistic awareness (Rinda, 2015: 25).

Requiring the students not to use their L1 in the classroom, as is customary in ESL teaching both locally and globally as well as in many EFL countries, can have a detrimental effect on the learners' academic development. Consider, for instance, the case of Mexican–American ESL students. Research shows that a school's attempt to assimilate young Mexican–American students into the dominant society by subtracting their language and culture has a damaging effect on the students' academic

performance. Goldstein (2003) notes that *subtractive schooling* and that demands that students invest only in the dominant (Euro-American middle class) school culture and divests them of important social and cultural resources, leaves the Mexican–American youths vulnerable to academic failure (2003: 248). Along these lines, Ribadeneira in Auerbach (2013) points out that Spanish-speaking pupils tend to drop out of school when they are forced not to speak Spanish in the classroom because they feel that.

“[they] are treated like garbage. I kept getting suspended because when I spoke Spanish with my homeboys, the teachers thought I was disrespecting them. They kept telling me to speak in English because I was in America. I wasn’t going to take that. So I left and never went back. Some of those teachers don’t want us. That hurts, that really hurts.” (Ribadeneira, 2012, quoted in Auerbach, 2013: 9)

A similar situation exists in most post-colonial settings around the world as well. In South Africa, for instance, formerly ‘Indian’ and ‘white’ schools have admitted large numbers of African pupils who learn English as L2. Since in many of these schools English is the sole medium of instruction, students are sometimes punished or fined when they use their L1 within the school compound. Press reports indicate that ‘some school principals speak with pride about beating children to stop them speaking their native tongue’ at school (*Mail & Guardian*, July 5, 2017). Raising educators’ awareness about the resourcefulness of classroom CS should help them re-assess their attitude toward L1 and its role in L2 learning.

Conclusion

The previous sections have highlighted research findings on why bilingual teachers and students sometime use CS in the classroom. Research shows that classroom CS, just like CS in the wider multilingual society, is not random. Rather, teachers and students have recourse to CS to meet delineable classroom needs, such as to compensate for a lack of comprehension, encourage greater student participation, build rapport and express solidarity with the students, and so on.

It has also briefly discussed the relationship between classroom CS and other language contact phenomena such as diglossia. Here is argued that by the very definition of diglossia, CS involving an H language and an L language or variety should not occur at all in the classroom or in any other

formal context, since diglossia is premised on a strict functional compartmentalization of languages. And yet, as research has shown, CS can and does occur in any domains of language use, formal or informal; its occurrence in either domain is governed by the context of situation and the communication needs of the participants. Accordingly, the concept of diglossia needs redefining to reflect not only general language practices but also classroom language practices in multilingual communities around the world.

Finally, it has discussed the implications of classroom CS for the English-only argument in Indonesia, as well as in English medium or ESL/EFL classrooms worldwide. It was noted that using L1 in an L2 classroom validates learners' lived experience, provides the learners with opportunities to experiment and take risks with English, and constitutes a natural bridge for overcoming problems of vocabulary, sentence structure and language confidence. In spite of its significance for classroom management and interaction, L1–L2 classroom CS has been viewed by some as an impediment rather than a resource to learning, and as a mark of linguistic deficiency. Research is needed to educate teachers and language policy makers about the benefit of classroom CS, to change their attitudes toward classroom CS, to raise their awareness about the significance of CS for classroom interaction, and to underscore the importance of L1 in L2 learning.

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SYNTAX INTERFERENCES ON TRANSLATION OF INDONESIA-ENGLISH TEXT

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Abstract

English is one of the important foreign language learned by Indonesian people since long time ago. There are several problems occur while learning this language, one of them is syntax interferences among L1 and L2 in translation. This study aims to describe the type of syntax interference in the translation of Indonesian text into English, where students are given a text containing 300 words to be translated into English. The method used in this research is descriptive with distributional and equivalent studies. The data is taken from the translation of the text which is then analyzed for errors. The results showed that there was a syntactic problem that emerged from the translation results of students. Some of the syntax interferences that were found included reversed English phrase arrangement, parallelization, absence of articles, absence of to be, and lack of passive sentence structure.

Keywords: *Interferences, Syntactic, Translation.*

Introduction

English is a language whose existence is increasingly important. This is understandable because English has become a world language with a very wide spread of its user. The United Nations has also made this language as one of the official international languages. To develop science and technology, mastery of English is very a must because based on data published by UNESCO, approximately 71% of scientific research is written in English occupying 62% of the output (Alwasilah, 2011). Indonesia is a country which has an interest in English. As a developing country, of course, for international relations, the Indonesian people feel the importance of mastering English. Moreover, in this global era, information dissemination is carried out through English media. Thus, English is the first foreign language that should be mastered by the international community.

In Indonesia, English has long been taught in junior high schools, senior high schools, and universities. Even today, in some places, English is given at the primary school level. This shows that English is very important and needs to be mastered by students for the benefit of science. It cannot be denied that science generally comes from the West. English, like other languages, has grammatical rules. The characteristics of English concern also on the inflectional nature of language. This is different from Indonesian which is agglutinative. Related to verbs, English has a temporal conjugation system. Thus, the use of English verbs is heavily influenced by the tense. Indonesian does not have its rule. Therefore, in English it is often found the error usage concerning to this problem. The following example shows the incompatibility of the verb form towards past tense or the present perfect (Dittmar: 2007):

- (1a) The history shown that the important factor which determines ...
- (1b) The history showed that the important factor which determined ...
- (1c) The history has shown that the important factor which determines ...

Compare this with the English structure (1b) which periodically past tense and (1c) which periodically is present perfect:

An important agreement regarding to pronoun and verb (agreement), as shown in the following example:

(2a) The several changes are local fluctuation which have a little impact in nature. In example (2a), there is no agreement between subject and verb, while the noun *change* is singular. With this patterns, the the noun indicates plural. Another characteristic regarding the writing of phrases that follow the rules of the Indonesian language is explaining (D-M) in example (3a) below:

(3a) The research background is the understanding of teacher regarding exact matter subject in teaching learning activities. [*Latar belakang penelitian ini adalah pemahaman guru mengenai mata pelajaran pada kegiatan kegiatan belajar Mengajar*].

This mistakes are not only found in those who are learning English at the beginner level, but are also found at the university level. In sociolinguistic literature, linguistic symptoms stated above are called interference. According to Weinreich, interference is a change in a language system occurred because there is cross understanding towards patterns of other language elements used by bilingual speakers (in Chaer and Agustina, 2010: 159).

Many researches concerning to interference have been carried out. Some experts who had reviewed the interventions case of the language are Rusyana (2006), Mustakim (2004), and Agustina (2003). Rusyana examined the interference in relation to the writing of the dissertation. The references he studied were related to the morphology of Sundanese into Indonesian in the essays of elementary school children. Mustakim examined Javanese language interference in Indonesian language newspapers. Meanwhile, research on Indonesian language interference towards elementary school students' mastery of learning English had been conducted by Agustina. The types of interference studied were morphological interference through English test worksheets that were processed in a narrative-descriptive qualitative manner. The results show that English morphological interference is only found in the morphological process of reduction.

Another interference is syntactic which can be identified by the absence of *be* (*is*, *are*), the absence of the article, and the reverse in the arrangement of the adverbs in English grammar. According to Weinreich, interference from two languages that make contact is determined by structural and nonlinguistic linguistic factors (Dittmar: 2010). Structural linguistic factors can be predicted from a comparison (difference and equivalence) of the phonological, grammatical, and lexical systems of the two languages. Meanwhile, the typical forms of inference, however, can only be predicted from the sociolinguistic imagery connecting the linguistic structural forms with extralinguistic factors, such as the role of sociocultural background, the function of language in bilingual groups, the suitability between linguistic and sociocultural, language standardization as a symbol of language loyalty, duration of contact between languages, crystallization of new languages, and language change.

In addition, Hartmann and Stork (Chaer and Agustina: 2010) state that interference also occurs due to the carrying out of the spoken habits of the first or mother tongue into the second language. Weinreich stated as cited in Dittmar (2007) supported by Rindjin (Denes et al. 2004) divides grammatical interference as follows: (1) use of the morpheme of language A into language B, (2) application of the grammatical relationship of language A into the

morpheme of language B, or denial of the grammatical relation of language B which does not have a model in language A, (3) changes in morpheme function through identities between one particular morpheme of language B with a certain morpheme of language A, which causes changes (expansion or reduction of the morpheme functions of language B based on a grammatical model of language A).

According to Jendra (see Denes, 2007: 18), semantic interference can still be divided into three types, namely: (1) expansion semantic interference is used when there is a review of cultural concepts and the name is occasional, (2) additional semantic interference occurs. when new forms appear with new meaning values also coexist with other forms, and (3) substitution semantic interference is when the meaning of a new concept is displayed as a substitute for the meaning of the old concept. This study aims to describe the form and type of interference from Indonesian to English in article abstracts in scientific journals.

The method used in this research is descriptive method. The descriptive method was chosen because the research aimed at describing the data naturally. This is in line with the opinion of Djajasudarma (2003) which states that the descriptive method aims to make factual and accurate descriptions of the data, the nature of the data, and the relationship between the phenomena under study. The technique used in data collection is the observation technique in the writing data instrument technique. The first step, data regarding interference is recorded on the data card, then the data is grouped according to the interference seen in the data. Furthermore, each data set is identified and studied to obtain conclusions that are relevant to the research objectives.

The study method used in this research is the distribution method and the equivalent. Distributional methods are used to sort data based on certain criteria in terms of structure. The disaggregated data is analyzed based on the syntax interferences. The equivalent method is used to study sloppy English sentences by searching / their counterparts in Indonesian. Thus, the cause of the lack of writing sentences in English can be identified.

Discussion

In this research it was found some interferences in some sentences below:

Data 1

There is a classical drama in class 8. Main character of this drama consist of twenty person of member class

Data 2

The plot of the story may caused by various factor among others: geogrphical, historical and the media ones.

Data 3

....., we can perform an object more interactively and realistic

Data 4

Background research is the understanding of teacher including exact matter subject in teaching learning activities

Data 5

N-Hexane, ethyl acetate and ethanol extract capable to inhibition of xanthine oxidase enzyme, except water extract

In this study, several interferences were found related to syntax errors. In data 1, it can be seen that some of the mistakes made by students were the mismatch between the subject and the verb. About 40% of the students made this error. In data 1, some students still make mistakes about the arrangement of noun phrases. The second data on the results of the analysis of student translation, there were still errors in the form of incomplete passive arrangement that should have been in the sentence to be. In addition, there is an error regarding the structure of paralels in which the third word should also use the same tense as before.

Data 3 on the observation of the results of student translation shows that there is an error in the parallelization arrangement pattern where the parallel pattern should use the adverb and adverb pattern. Data 4 on the results of this study shows that students made mistakes in the rules of writing phrases and the absence of articles at the beginning of the sentence. so that in general it can be seen that some of the syntactic errors made by students in translating text are the reversal of the arrangement of English phrases, parallelization, absence of articles, absence of to be, and complete lack of passive sentence structure and phrasing patterns in property relationships. Badudu (2001: 53) states that Indonesian is a language that has an "agglutination" system (sticking), so the affix function (affix) in Indonesian does not recognize conjugation (changes in the form of a verb) and declination (changes in the form of other words, such as words. object). The form of verbs in Indonesian is also not influenced by time, number, and persona, for example Dutch, German, and English.

In English, there is a verb formation for singular nouns as in the sentence "she goes to school every day". In Indonesian, the adverb of time is shown by the adverbial time. This is explained by Chaer (2007: 61) who states that the adverb *kala* is an adverb which states when the action is carried out. Some of the words that are included in this adverb are words "*sudah, telah, sedang, lagi, tengah, bakal, hendak dan mau*". All of these adverbs are positioned to fill predicate functions as in the sentence "We (*sudah, telah, sedang, lagi, tengah, bakal, hendak dan mau*). Moreover, according to Hopper et. al. In his book entitled *Essentials of English* (2000: 57), in English, subject selection is done to control the number of verb forms as in the sentence ".

Each of the sofas is ninety inches long”. In that sentence, the verb must agree with the subject, not to the modifier of its subject.

According to Aronoff and Fudeman (2005), we cannot say "we eat two melons a day", if we speak Indonesian we will say the equivalent of two melons (three melons, four melons, etc.) because this language does not use a pattern. tanning as in English in sentences like: I eat two watermelons every day. the grammatical pattern in English states that the pattern must attach a suffix-s to the word melon if it uses more than one noun. In addition, the plural noun in English that follows the plural number adverb such as many, various must be followed by plural nouns as in the phrase many people. Meanwhile in Indonesian, the plural number adverbial is followed by a singular noun as in the phrase many people and plural is written with a rephrase "*orang-orang*". This causes interference as shown in data (2).

Syntax interference occurs because there are differences in sentence structure patterns in Indonesian and English which have a tense. Tense causes changes in verbs and auxiliary verbs or to be in the formation of English sentences such as in the sentence "He is reading a book". In Indonesian, there are no tenses, so the sentence pattern does not change verbs, but the tense in Indonesian is indicated by the adverb as mentioned above. This is in line with the opinion of Chaer (2009: 63) which states that adverbs in Indonesian are adverbs which state the time when the action was carried out, as in the sentence "He is reading a book" which is sometimes translated as "He read a book" because there is no auxiliary verb / to be in Indonesian language. This has resulted in the absence of "be" in sentences made by Indonesian speakers. This can be seen in data (5).

According to Fromkin and Hyam, two or more ideas that are similar in nature are known as parallels. in other words, a sentence sometimes gives rise to a parallel structure to explain the subject in which the noun should be paralleled with the noun, an infinitive with an infinitive, a subordinative clause with a subordinative clause and others such as the sentence "they studied history, mathematic, and chemistry". The sentence appears to have a parallel arrangement that connects the noun to the noun. Actually, parallel patterns in sentences also exist in Indonesian. However, there are still errors when students have to write parallel arrangements in English, as in the sentence. He is a diligent and clever child. In fact, there are structural errors in English as in data (4). This can be due to students' lack of understanding about determining word categories or classes in parallel structures in English.

According to Thomson and Martinet (1986), in English, the article *a/ an* is used before a single noun which can be counted from a group of objects with noun complements, certain expressions about quantities, certain numbers, expressions about prices, etc., in a sentence before a noun single as in the example "I need a visa, a car must be insured, it was an earthquake, a lot of, A hundred, such a long queue". As in English, articles are also in Indonesian, but sometimes omitted in use, such as in the sentence "*adik*

sedang membaca buku". Sometimes students also omit articles a and an that should precede nouns, such as in the sentence "she has car".

In that sentence, the existence of the article that was placed before the noun "*buku*" is omitted. The habit of eliminating this article creates interference in the formation of English sentences. Articles in English consist of definite and indefinite. The definite article is used to denote something that is only one in the world, like the sun, and to mention something a second time, as in the sentence I have a new car. The car is very comfortable. Meanwhile, according to Chaer (2000: 111-112), in Indonesian the definite article uses the words "*ini*" and "*itu*". Therefore, the use of definite and indefinite articles in English is sometimes overlooked by students, as in data (1).

According to Fromkin and Hyam, transitive verbs can be changed from active to passive sentences by transforming the verb form and moving the object's position to the subject's position. If the subject of the active sentence persists, it must be preceded by a prepositional phrase by, as in the active sentence, "Tiger woods won the award" is transformed into a passive sentence to become "The award was won by Tiger woods".

According to Chaer (2009), in Indonesian, the passive form is transformed by moving the object from the active sentence to the subject in the passive sentence, then moving the subject from the active sentence to the object in the passive sentence and changing the verb form from prefix to a verb with the prefix "in" then placing the preposition "by" as a marker between the predicate and the agent's object, as written in the example below:

- 1) *Ayah membaca surat*
S Pre (me) O
- 2) *Surat dibaca oleh ayah*
S Pre (di-) O

These differences can lead to errors in forming passive sentence patterns in English because there are differences in structure. Syntax interference in phrases occurs because of the different arrangement of phrases in Indonesian and English. According to Djajasudarma (2003), attributive endocentric phrases in Indonesian are also related to the D-M or M-D rules with attributive constituents as M (explaining) and the parent constituent as D (explained) as in phrases consisting of two words such as "young wife". Meanwhile in English, the phrase has a pattern of explanation (M-D) like a pretty woman. The two phrases have the same meaning but have a different arrangement so that if the English phrase arrangement pattern follows the Indonesian phrase arrangement pattern, the meaning of the phrase will be different as in the data above.

Syntax interference in the modal auxiliary can + infinitive verb formation pattern occurs because of the different patterns in these two languages. According Fromkin and Hyam (2003), Modal auxiliaries express various ideas and feelings. One of them is can (ability) and can only be followed by infinitives, such as in the sentence "they can communicate with each other". Meanwhile, in Indonesian, the modal "can" can be followed by transitive or intransitive verbs with affixes such as reading and running. Therefore, this interference may occur due to structural differences that can lead to different meanings.

Conclusion

Indonesian and English come from different language families. Although, there are similarities in the word patterns of the two languages, namely S-V-O, the difference in rules that exist in the two languages can cause interference. Based on the research and discussion of the research results, it can be concluded that syntactic interference between Indonesian and English in the translation of Indonesian-English text occurs in a grammatical arrangement of sentences. The identification of these characteristics can be seen from the pattern of phrases, passive sentences, the absence of "articles", be ", and apostrophes ('s), and parallelism due to differences in the pattern of phrases and sentences in the two languages.

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