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THE ANALYSIS OF GRAMMATICAL ERRORS OF FIRST YEAR STUDENTS' ESSAYS

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Abstract: A language learner often faces many linguistic differences, especially if the native language and the target language are from different language families. The current study investigates the grammatical errors made by the first year students of the English Department, Faculty of Letters, Jember University, Indonesia. The data were collected from 30 participants' essays of Writing 01 class (documentary data) conducted from August to December 2014. Having been identified, the errors were classified into various categorizations, and analyzed based on descriptive-interpretative method to find the possible sources of the errors. The research revealed that the learners committed ten types of grammatical errors, and the six mostly prominent errors were plural form, subject-verb agreement, verb tense, word form, subject/verb omission, and passive voice respectively. This research also showed that the errors mostly resulted from the different linguistic principles of Indonesian and English (interlingual transfer), and partly from the faulty of overgeneralization of English rules (intralingual transfer). The overt influences of Indonesian to English as well as the overgeneralization of English rules can provide the writing teachers and course designers with insightful guidelines for better understanding of the sources of errors, which in turn, can help them to apply the more appropriate approaches to manage the foreign language learners' errors of the students.

Key words: grammatical errors, native language, target language, interlingual, intralingual

Abstrak: *Karena tatanan bahasa dapat berbeda-beda antarbahasa, seseorang yang sedang mempelajari bahasa asing sering mengalami berbagai*

perbedaan aturan kebahasaan, khususnya apabila bahasa ibunya (L1) dan bahasa yang sedang dipelajarinya (L2) berasal dari rumpun bahasa yang berbeda. Penelitian ini bertujuan untuk mengungkap kesalahan-kesalahan gramatika yang terdapat pada esei (karangan) mahasiswa tahun pertama pada Jurusan Sastra Inggris Universitas Jember. Data penelitian ini dikumpulkan dari 30 karangan mahasiswa (data dokumenter) yang berasal dari matakuliah Writing I dari bulan Agustus sampai dengan bulan Desember 2014. Setelah dikumpulkan, data diklasifikasikan ke dalam beberapa kategorisasi gramatika, dan dianalisis dengan metode deskriptif interpretatif untuk menemukan penyebab atau sumber berbagai kesalahan tersebut. Hasil penelitian ini menyatakan bahwa terdapat sepuluh jenis kesalahan gramatika yang dilakukan mahasiswa dalam eseinya, dan enam kesalahan yang menonjol adalah kesalahan dalam hal penulisan bentuk nomina jamak, kesesuaian bentuk subjek dan verba, tenses, bentuk kata, penghilangan unsur subjek/verba, dan konstruksi kalimat pasif. Studi ini membuktikan bahwa sumber kesalahan tersebut terutama berasal dari perbedaan prinsip-prinsip kebahasaan bahasa Indonesia dan bahasa Inggris (pengaruh bahasa ibu/interlingual transfer), dan sebagaian disebabkan oleh kesalahan penyamarataan aturan kebahasaan bahasa (Inggris) yang dipelajarinya (intralingual transfer). Pengaruh yang besar atas bahasa Indonesia terhadap bahasa Inggris dan penyamarataan aturan kebahasaan pada bahasa yang dipelajari sepatutnya dapat dijadikan acuan bagi pengajar kelas Writing dan pihak penyusun materi matakuliah Writing agar mereka dapat memilih dan menerapkan pendekatan yang lebih tepat guna menangani berbagai kesalahan mahasiswa terutama yang masih berada pada tahun pertama.

Kata kunci: *kesalahan gramatika, bahasa ibu, bahasa sasaran, interlingual, intralingual*

INTRODUCTION

Basically, learning a language consists of active and productive skills. Writing is generally considered to be one of the active or productive skills of language usage. It is considered active and productive because learners have to apply many aspects of language, such as: general knowledge, vocabulary, and grammar in this subject. Writing is also considered very important in every curriculum of university because it is believed that this subject can be seen as a tool for language development, for critical thinking, and for learning in all disciplines. In universities, writing becomes significant because most subjects depend on it. Taking notes, writing essays, answering questions, writing reports, and finally writing thesis also need the help of

writing class. The skills presented in writing will also develop the students' skills in acquiring the needed strategies to present the data, to analyze, to interpret, and to make inference from the data collected from their researches (Bacha, 2002). There are some aspects can be evaluated from the students' essays, such as: the content (the information presented in the essays), the organization (the ways of organizing ideas), and the language accuracy (the appropriate and acceptable forms of grammar used in the essay). The content and the organization, however, will be hard to follow if the language (the grammar) they used is not accurate. Accuracy in writing occurs when the language learner conforms to the rules of the target language; and error occurs when it does not. Those rules may be at different levels: pronunciation, morphology, syntax, lexicon, discourse, or sociolinguistics (Carla**,** 2015). Since the focus of the study is the grammatical errors, the appropriate levels for the errors are morphology and syntax levels made by the students in their essays.

LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Contrastive Analysis and Error Analysis

Concerning to the learner's errors, there are two major approaches to study, namely contrastive analysis and error analysis. Error analysis cannot be studied properly without touching upon the notion of contrastive analysis. Both of them have been commonly recognized as branches of Applied Linguistic Science (Khansir, 2012). Contrastive linguistics has been defined as a linguistic study which concerns with the comparison of two or more languages or subsystems of languages in order to determine both differences and similarities between them (Fisiak, 1981). The contribution of contrastive analysis in the language teaching is the description of the grammatical errors which made up the differences between the grammar of the native language (L1) and that of the target language (L2). In relation to the sources of errors, Bose (2005) explained that one of the sources of the learner's errors is the interference (or transfer, according to Ellis (1997) of his native language which can be depicted as the negative and positive transfer between L1 and L2. The negative transfer occurs when the grammatical forms of L1 and L2 are different, while the positive transfer happens if they are similar. Another attitude to errors is that they are the result of the influence of L1 on the learning process called interference. This process is also based on the fact that learning foreign language is strongly influenced by the habit of the learner's native language (Corder, 1987).

Error analysis, on the other hand, claimed that the learner's errors are not merely caused by the native language because many errors actually made have no parallel with the native language structures (Khansir, 2012). Referring to both contrastive linguistics and error analysis, errors may be caused by both contrastive difference as well as the structures of the target language itself. Richards and Schmidt (2010) and Shekhzadeh and Gheichi, (2011) distinguish between two sources of errors: interlingual transfer and intralingual transfer. Interlingual transfer explains that errors may result from the language transfer of similar rules from the learner's native language to the target language. For example, the incorrect English sentence 'John *go* to school every day*' was produced as the transfer of his native (Indonesian) language rule 'John *pergi* ke sekolah setiap hari' in which Indonesian does not have subject-verb agreement. In contrast, intralingual transfer describes that errors are caused by the mutual interference of items in the target language (Keshavarz, 1994) which is also known overgeneralization or ignorance of rule restriction of the target language. Overgeneralization occurs when the learner has mastered a general rule but he does not yet know all the exceptions to that rule (Ziahosseiny, 1999 p. 126). For example, a learner may produce 'He must *to go* to school*' based on the overgeneralization of the English structure 'He wants *to go* to school'.

B. Previous Studies

There have been many recent publications in contrastive analysis and error analysis on the errors made by learners of English as a foreign language in many different levels. The study of the morphophonological or syntactic transfer in the acquisition of articles by Syrian speakers was conducted by Sarko (2008) in which he found that they transfer the syntactic properties of L1 into English grammar. Ting et al (2010) investigated the grammatical errors in spoken English of university students in oral communication course who are less proficient in English. The results of the research showed that the five common errors made by the learners are preposition, question, article, plural form of noun, subject-verb agreement, and tense. The result also showed an increase in grammatical accuracy in the students' spoken English towards the end of the course. Next, Isabelli-Garcia and Slough (2012) investigated the acquisition of non-generic definite article by Spanish learners of English as a foreign language which proved that the obligatory use of the definite articles does increase accuracy rates. Further study on morphological and syntactic errors was carried out by Al-Badawi (2012) who investigated phonetic, morphological and syntactic errors made by the undergraduate Saudi students at King Khalid University.

Further publications of contrastive and error analysis on English essays or writing productions as well as translation for non-English speakers (Chinese, Spanish, Arab, Jordan, French, among others) have been conducted by the following researchers. Research on error analysis of Chinese learners of the Korean language manifested errors within learners' written works was conducted by Lee (2010). This research revealed that errors resulted both from the native language transfer as well as from the target language transfer. Zahwareh (2012) investigated the written English errors of tenth grade students in females and males schools in Ajloun, Jordan. This study revealed the grammatical errors occurring in the areas of morphology, function words, tenses, and lexical items. The next study (Sokeng, 2014) presented the discussion of the difficulties that bilingual level 1 Francophone students in the Department of Bilingual Studies of the University of Yaounde 1 face in English.

The analysis of their compositions revealed that the most salient grammatical errors found in the students essays covering the fields of verb tense and form, subject-verb agreement, prepositions, word order, plurality, articles, passive voice, auxiliaries and double negation. These results proved that the teaching and learning of English writing skill of secondary students in Cameroonian primary and secondary schools need more reinforcement and development. Finally, Presada and Badea (2014) conducted a research on the effectiveness of error analysis within the translation classes on the theoretical framework of contrastive and error analysis. This study investigates the most frequent types of errors and their causes. The findings of this research constitute a data base which is necessary to conceive a more effective teaching and learning process that focuses not only on translation classes, but also on the acquisition of English as a foreign language in general.

An overview of the importance of error analysis in teaching English as a foreign language in Indonesia was carried out by Hasyim (2002). This article presented some sample of English sentences containing grammatical errors made by the students and analyzed them based on the linguistic theories. By this discussion, the students are expected to increase their knowledge on their English grammar. A study on phonological errors particularly the English consonantal sounds that do not exist in Indonesian phonetics system produced by English department students was conducted by Tiono and Yostanto (2008). The study revealed that the students produced thirty-four kinds of phonological errors and that the deviations occurred most frequently before, after, or in between vowels. Andi-Pallawa

and Alam (2013) also conducted a comparative analysis between English and Indonesian phonological systems. This study proved that some differences of phonemic and phonetic features between English and Indonesian make 20 English Department students of Tadulako University, Indonesia, as the respondents, still have problems in pronouncing English words. Another study on syntax errors made by L2 learners in conversation was conducted by Wiannastiti (2014). This study revealed that L2 learners made some errors in grammar and exchanging information because they are influenced by L1. They tended to transfer from L1 to L2 rather than thinking to create the utterances in L2.

Despite the fact that there are some preliminary researchers on contrastive analysis and error analysis which investigated English errors made by the Indonesian learners of English as a foreign language, researches on English grammatical errors made by the Indonesian-English learners in essays or writing works have received comparatively less attention, if not yet done. This study commences with identifying the unacceptable (grammatical) forms produced in the first task of students' essays. In the second and third writing tasks, a special attention addressed to the students who made unacceptable forms in their first essays, to make sure whether they made ungrammatical forms systematically or unsystematically (errors vs. mistakes, according to Ellis, 1997). The essays with the grammatical errors (made by the students systematically) are considered as the source of the data, and the errors committed by the students were classified into some grammatical types. Next, the errors were discussed and interpreted to find the sources of the error production to widen the learners' knowledge of English and to improve their language accuracy in writing essays.

METHODOLOGY

This is a qualitative research using a case study approach. The case study investigated some grammatical errors made by the learners (Densombe, 2007). The population of the research consisting of 120 students who took Writing 01 classes from August to December 2014. The students were distributed into three classes (A, B, and C). All were new undergraduate students of the Department of English, Faculty of Letters, Universitas Jember (Indonesia) who enrolled in the 2014-2015 academic year. They have been studying English for 6 years in Junior and Senior High Schools, where English is a foreign language, Indonesian is a national language, and they also speak, at least, one local language, e.g. Javanese, Madurese, and Balinese.

There are high similarities in terms of the structures of their native languages the students speak. The languages are only different particularly in the lexicons or vocabularies.

The technique of data collection in this study applied the documentary method, using written material (the students' essays) as a basis of the research (Blaxter et al, 2006: 154). This research was based on the grammatical errors found in the essays and snowballed with the interview data. During the first semester of the 2014-2015 academic year, the students were given some writing tasks on various topics, such as holiday, hobby, sport, and individual experience. The general topics were chosen because they are simple, informative, and clear to be stated which could encourage them to write. The main purposes of these exercises were not to give the information (to answer) themselves, but how the participants expressed their ability to use their English in expressing their ideas. Out of 120 papers (from the first writing task) were found 70 students who made some (serious) unacceptable forms.

Ellis (1997) raises the need to distinguish between errors and mistakes and makes an important distinction between the two. He says that errors reflect gaps in the learner's knowledge; they occur because the learner does not know what is correct. Mistakes reflect occasional lapses in performance; they occur because, in a particular instance, the learner is unable to perform what he or she knows. Following Ellis (1997), it needs to check whether the unacceptable forms made by the students were errors or mistakes by giving them the second and third tests. In the second and third writing tasks, attention was paid to the students who previously made unacceptable forms in their first essays (the 70 students). Having been identified, the result of the second and third tests proved that 30 out of 70 students made consistently and systematically unacceptable forms (errors). To support the data analysis, ten out of 30 students who committed grammatical errors were interviewed. Next, the grammatical errors made by the students in their essays were classified into some grammatical types, and interpreted to find the possible causes of the errors. The design was chosen to provide a clear framework for collecting, analyzing, discussing, and interpreting data to address the research goals (Creswell and Clark, 2011).

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

In this section, the results of grammatical errors made by the students in their essays are presented. Having been identified and selected, the data in

the form of grammatical errors found in the 30 essays of the students were classified and calculated (to find the frequencies). It was found 1,007 grammatical errors, which could be classified into 10 grammatical types. Table 1 presents the types, numbers and percentage of the grammatical errors committed by the participants in their written works (essays).

Table 1:
Types and Frequency of Grammatical Errors in the Students' Essays

	Types of Errors	Frequencies	
		Number of data	Percentage (%)
1.	Plural form	188	18.70
2.	Subject-verb agreement (SVA)	170	16.90
3.	Verb tense	145	14.40
4.	Word form	128	12.70
5.	Subject/verb omission	111	11.10
6.	Passive voice	102	10.20
7.	Article	58	5.70
8.	Preposition	45	4.50
9.	Pronoun	33	3.30
10.	Double negation	27	2.70
	Total	1,007	100 %

Table 1 shows that the total number of grammatical errors made by the 30 students in their essays was 1,007 errors. The grammatical errors were distributed in ten grammatical types, and the frequencies ranges from plural form, the most frequently occur, and double negation, the least frequency.

In the discussion, it is only selected the types of errors which have the occurrence higher than one hundred times (or more than 10%). They are errors in plural form (188 or 18.7%), in subject- verb agreement (170 or 16.9%), in verb tense (145 or 14.4%), in word form (128 or 12.7%), subject/verb omission (111 or 11.1%), and passive voice (102 or 10.20%). Each of the six findings was presented and discussed below respectively. First of all, the data extracts (if possible accompanied by the Indonesian versions as the source of the errors, written in brackets) are presented on the left columns, while the corrections appear on the right column. Asterisk (*) indicates an error sentence, **bold** shows the grammatical element of the errors and their correction, and the symbol ^ refers to a missing element in the sentence.

A. Error in Plural Form

The mostly prominent errors made by the students in their essays are errors in using the correct plural form of nouns. Out of 188 errors in plural form, they deleted the plural noun markers '-s/-es' in their essays. The *italic elements* show the key words which require plural forms in English.

Table 2:
Errors in Plural Form

No.	Data Extracts (Indonesian)	The (possible) Correction
1.	*They visited *both* **the student.** (Mereka mengunjungi *kedua* mahasiswa itu).	They visited *both* **students.**
2.	*She enjoys food from *many different* **country.** (Dia menyukai makanan dari *berbagai* negara.)	She enjoys food from *many* different **countries**.
3.	*You have *a number of* **choice** that you can take. (Anda mempunya *sejumlah* pilihan yang dapat anda lakukan)	You have *a* number of **choices** that you can take.

Table 2 demonstrates errors in plural form made by the students. English distinguishes two different forms of (countable) nouns: singular vs. plural forms. Unlike English, Indonesian does not have a marker for the plural nouns, both have the same form. Whether the meaning of a noun is singular or plural is determined by the key words (e.g. *kedua* 'both', *banyak* 'many', and *sejumlah* 'a number of'). In contrast, such key words require plural nouns in English. The students have had such habit in their native language which they transfer to L2 (negative transfer).

According to Ellis (1997) two languages having distinct linguistic structures may result in a high frequency of errors in the target language which in turn indicates an interference of L1 on L2. In a short, the course of this error belongs to interlingual transfer.

B. Error in Subject-Verb Agreement

The second mostly frequent grammatical error for the students in this study is related to subject-verb agreement. Rule for subject-verb agreements in English is really simple. A third person singular subject requires base form + the suffix: -s or -es, whereas other subjects do not. As Indonesian does not apply such rule, the students often neglect the agreement between a subject and its verb form in their English essays, as demonstrated in Table 3.

Table 3:
Errors in Subject-Verb Agreement

No.	Data Extracts (Indonesian)	The (possible) Correction
4.	*My friend usually **drive** a car to campus (Temanku biasanya naik mobil ke kampus).	My friend usually **drives** a car to campus.
5.	*A teacher together with his students **are** studying in classroom 6. (Seorang guru bersama dengan murid-muridnya sedang belajar di ruang 6).	A teacher together with his students **is** studying in classroom 6.
6.	*The books on the table in room 6 **belongs** to me. (Buku-buku di atas meja di ruang 6 adalah bukuku.)	The books on the table in room 6 **belong** to me.
7.	*All of the details in this report **needs** to be checked. (Semua rincian yang terdapat di dalam laporan ini perlu dicek lagi).	All of the details in this report **need** to be checked.
8.	**Every* man and woman **are** eligible to vote. (Setiap pria dan wanita berhak untuk memilih)	*Every* man and woman **is** eligible to vote.

As presented in Table 3, singular subjects take plural verbs, data (4), (5), and (6), whereas the plural subjects take singular verbs, data (7) and (8). There are two possible explanations why such errors happen. Firstly, as applies to error in plural form, English and Indonesian differ in the relation

between subject features and their verb forms (agreement). In English, a verb must agree with its subject number (singular vs. plural) which is called subject-verb agreement (Phillips, 2001, p. 248). In contrast, the number or status of the subject in Indonesian like in many other Proto-Malay-Polynesian languages does not affect the verb structure. Indonesian does not have a subject-verb agreement rule, so the students have had a habit of ignoring such a grammatical rule in Indonesian. Then, they transferred this habit (L1) into (L2) when they were writing essays in English. In short, the source of the error results from an (negative) interlingual transfer.

Secondly, for the other students, they may know subject-verb agreement rules; however, they still made some errors in their writing essays because they have some problems to identify whether the subjects are singular or plural. The problems particularly appear if the subjects are in the form of complex structures (long noun phrases), e.g. the noun is followed by a prepositional phrase (data 5, and 6), preceded by an expression of quantity 'all of' (data 7), or preceded by a certain word, such as 'every' or 'each' (data 8). As the students had problem to identify the number of subject, consequently they made errors in subject-verb agreement; singular subjects take plural verbs, whereas plural subjects take singular verbs. The source of this error, in fact, is not caused by the native lingual interference (interlingual transfer), rather than it is from intralingual (L2) feature (intralingual transfer).

C. Error in Word Form

This type of error may include the incorrect use of adjective, noun, and verb forms. In their essays, it was found some errors in relation to the use of adjective and adverb forms, and noun and verb forms. Table 4 presents this type of errors.

Table 4:
Errors in Using Adjective, Adverb, and Noun Forms

No.	Data Extracts (Indonesian)	The Corrections
9.	*We attended a **good** planned conference last week. (Kita menghadiri konferencsi yang dipersiapkan **dengan baik** minggu lalu).	We attended a **well-**planned conference last week.
10.	*The boy screamed extremely **loud.** (Anak laki-kali menjerit keras sekali.)	The boy screamed extremely **loudly.**

11.	*Ahmad appeared rather **unhappily** at what had happened. (Ahmad tampak kurang senang atas kejadian itu).	Ahmad appeared rather **unhappy** at what had happened.
12.	*The test seems **easily** for the student. (Tes itu kayaknya mudah bagi para siswa.)	The test seems **easy** for the students
13.	*Because Anita studied **hardly**, she could achieve a top score. (Karena Anita belajar dengan giat, dia meraih nilai terbaik).	Because Anita studied **hard**, she could achieve a top score.
14.	*The **successful** of our study does not depend on the **long** of our study ... (Keberhasilan studi kita tidak tergantung pada lamaya studi kita ...).	The **success** of our study does not depend on the **length** of our study ...

Table 4 demonstrates the type of errors committed by the learners in learning English which dealt with the use of adjective and adverb forms. Morphologically, adjective and adverb have different forms in English, but their forms remain the same in Indonesian. The only clue (if needed) to the distinguish between an adjective form from its adverb counterpart in Indonesian is an adjective commonly preceded by the word 'yang', while the adverb form accompanied by the word 'dengan', as in: *yang baik* 'good' vs. *dengan baik* 'well'. In the writing practice, as shown in Table 4, the students did not pay attention to such word-class changes. They used the adjective forms instead of the adverb ones, data (9), and (10). In contrast, they used the adverb forms instead of the adjective ones, data (10), and (11). The students were not aware of the differences between adjectives and adverbs since Indonesian adjectives and adverbs have the same forms. This proves the fact that the students transferred their habit in the native language (L1) into the target language (L2), and the source of error can be called interference or interlingual transfer.

In addition to L1 interference, it also appears an intralingual transfer as the source of error in using adjective, adverb, and noun forms. For some students, they know how to use adjective and adverb, but they generalized that every adverb form is always derived from an adjective plus the suffix –ly,

as in the word *loud* vs. *loudly*. By this analogy, they thought that *hard* was an adjective (only), so they generalized the adverb form of *hard* was *hardly*, data (13). Another error occurs in the use of an adjective form instead of a noun form (14). The use of the adjective 'successful' and 'long' in this sentence is incorrect because both function as the head words of the phrases. Thus, they should be changed into the noun forms 'success' and 'length' respectively. Against, this occurrence of this error is not the result of the native language (L1) interference, but it results from the features of the target language (L2) or it belongs to intralingual transfer.

D. Error in Passive Voice

The next grammatical error deals with the active-passive constructions. Indonesian uses passive sentences more frequently and has more passive construction forms than English does. The Indonesian passive form is particularly marked by the *pronoun*-verb, *ter-verb*, and *di-verb* while the main English passive construction is *subject + be + V-3*. Accordingly, there is a tendency for the students to use passive sentences when writing essays in English.

Table 5:
Common Problems with Active-Passive Constructions

No.	Data Extracts (Indonesian)	The Correction
15.	*The books must be brought by us. (Buku-buku itu harus **kita bawa**.)	We must bring the books.
16.	*Is my book borrowed by you? (Apakah bukuku masih **anda pinjam**?)	Do you still have my book?
17.	*The report will be submitted tomorrow morning by me. (Laporan itu akan **saya serahkan** besok pagi).	I will submit the report tomorrow morning.
18.	*Siti's finger was cut when she skinned a mango. (Jari Siti **teriris** ketika mengupas mangga).	Siti cut her finger when she skinned a mango.
19.	*It **was happened** by accident. (Hal itu **terjadi** secara tidak sengaja)	It happened by accident.
20.	*The problem is hard **to be solved**. (Masalah itu sulit untuk **dipecahkan**).	The problem is hard to solve.

21.	*The ball was kicked by Andi strongly (Bola itu **ditendang** Andi dengan keras).	Andi kicked the ball strongly.

As presented in Table 5, the passive constructions in Indonesian are indicated by pronoun-verb forms such as *kita bawa*, *anda pinjam*, and *saya serahkan* (data 15, 16, and 17), by ter-verb forms such as *teriris* (18) and *terjadi* (19), anSd by di-verb form such as *dipecahkan* and *ditendang* (20 and 21). A passive construction in English is commonly used when the agent of the activity is not explicitly identified. This is called the agentless passive form (Finegan et. al, 1992 pp. 190-191). Consequently, the Indonesian passive construction cannot automatically be transferred into passive sentences in English. Since all the agents in the sentences (data extracts) above are clearly identified, they should be expressed in active constructions rather than in the passive ones (in English). Such errors may happen since they are strongly influenced by their native language habit. Both Indonesian and English have passive sentence constructions, but the use of the passive voices can differ from one language to another. As Djatmika et al. (2014) stated that the difference on the grammatical systems cause some students make grammatical errors in writing English. Therefore, the students have to initially comprehend the linguistic knowledge of L2, so that they will be able to produce L2 text in a natural way.

E. Error in Subject/Verb Omission

The next prominent error found in the student essay writing is the omission of subject or verb, or both from the construction of English sentences. The finding of this research shows that there are 111 errors found in the students' essays. The errors cover the absence of subject from the sentence construction or replacing the subject with an object of preposition, the omission of a finite verb from a sentence, as well as the deletion of both subject and finite verbs from a sentence, as demonstrated in Table 6.

Table 6:
Errors in Subject/Verb Omission

No.	Data Extracts (Indonesian)	The Correction
22.	* After ^ wake up, I directly ^bath. (Setelah bangun tidur, saya langsung mandi).	After **I** wake up, I directly **take** a bath.

23.	*For those who come late are not allowed to join this test. (Bagi mereka yang datang terlambat tidak boleh mengikuti test).	Who comes late is not allowed to join this test.
24.	*The grammar book which ^ written by the Muprhy is very useful. (Buku gammer yang ditulis oleh Murphy sangat bermanfaat).	The translation book **(which was) written** by Murphy is very useful.
25.	*Where ^ you met my brother and sister yesterday? (Di mana kamu bertemu saudara-saudaraku kemarin?)	Where **did** you meet my brother and sister yesterday?
26.	*When I^ walking home at night, I **see** ^ghost. (Ketika saya berjalan pulang malam hari, saya melihat hantu).	When I was walking home at night, I saw a ghost.
27.	*He^ at home alone. (Dia di rumah sendirian)	He **is** at home alone He **stays** at home alone
28.	*He ^ very clever in Matematic subject. (Dia pandai sekali dalam pelajaran matematika).	He **is** very good at Mathematics.

As demonstrated in Table 6, the students omitted the subject and finite verb, data (22), and replaced the subject with an object of preposition, data (23). In the next sentences, data (24 - 28), the students committed grammatical errors because they omitted finite verbs from their sentences, as shown by the symbol ^. The Indonesian version of (22) is well accepted in Indonesian because the subject of the first clause can be controlled by the subject of the main clause, and the word *mandi* 'bath' can function as a verb. The next sentences in which the finite verbs are missing are also accepted in Indonesian because this language does not have the verb form distinctions (e.g. finite vs. non-finite verbs). Unlike English, Indonesian can have the verb *ditulis* 'written' as a full (finite) verb which makes the sentence (24) is well-form by itself, and (similarly) an interrogative sentence (25) does not need an auxiliary verb. In contrast, the (non-finite) verb 'written' cannot be the predicate of the subordinate clause without the (finite) verb 'was' (24). The only possibility for this construction without a finite verb is to change the (adjective) clause into a reduced form by deleting the connector 'which' as

shown in the correction. Next, Indonesian sentences can have adverbial predicate (27), or adjectival predicate (28) while an English sentence always needs a finite verb as a predicate element (a verbal predicate). All examples give the idea that they committed the errors because they were strongly influenced by Indonesian in learning English as a foreign language. From the discussion above, it can be said that learners usually transfer the L1 rules to the L2 ones. Some omissions of subject, to be, and auxiliary verbs were used by the L2 learners result from their habit in their native language (interlingual transfer).

F. Errors in Verb Tense

Tense is a frequent category in the languages in the world, but it is far from universal (Trask, 1993, pp. 276). Like many languages in Asia, Indonesian is an example of a language which lacks tense entirely. Indonesian verbs do not correlate with the distinctions of time. Whether the time is past or non-past, the verb remains the same. In contrast, English exhibits a tense system. Naturally, the Indonesian-English learners often made errors in choosing the right tense, and the right forms of verbs, as presented in Table 7.

Table 7:
Error in Tense System

No.	Data Extracts (Indonesian)	The Correction
29.	*Yesterday I **see** you with your friends in Matahari Department Store. (Kemarin saya melihat kamu bersama teman-teman di Pusat perbelanjaan Matahari).	Yesterday I **saw** you with your friends in Matahari Department Store.
30.	*Last holidays, we **enjoy** ourselves very well in our grandparents' town. It **is** very good and interesting.	*Last holidays, we **enjoyed** ourselves very well in our grandparents' town. It **was** very good and interesting.

31.	*I **have done** my homework **yesterday afternoon**. (Saya telah menyelesaikan PRku kemarin sore)	- I have done my homework. - I did my homework yesterday afternoon.
32.	*If I become a bird, I will fly all over the world. (Jika saya menjadi seekor burung, saya akan terbang ke seluruh dunia)	If I were a bird, I would fly all over the world.

As reported in Table 7, the students made errors because they transferred the habit of their L1 rule to L2 in which the verb forms ('see', 'enjoy', and 'is') do not correlate with the (past tense) time markers (e.g. 'yesterday' and 'last holidays') in data (29) and (30). Next, as shown by data (31), the learners mixed both the result of an activity and the specific time into one sentence. Unlike Indonesian, English only chooses one of them (perfect tense or simple past tense, but not both) (Murphy, 1994, pp. 14). If the result of the activity is the focus of the utterance, the present perfect tense should be used. Alternatively, if the speaker identifies a specific point of time, he should choose the simple past tense. In other words, we cannot combine both the result and the particular time referring to the activity into one sentence. In short, the learners made such error because Indonesian does not have tense system, so they transferred the habit of their native language (L1) into L2. Finally, the students also made error in term of 'condition' which is expressed through the wrong verb forms/tenses (data 32), which should be 'were' and 'would fly'. As the beginners, they are not familiar yet with the construction of expressing a 'conditional' sentence realized through the verb forms. Accordingly, the acquisition of tense will be very difficult for the learners since there are quite big difference rules between the two languages.

CONCLUSION

Based on the identified and classified errors found in 30 essays produced by the 30 first year students of the writing classes of the English Department, Faculty of Letters, Jember University, Indonesia, it was found 1,007 grammatical errors. The errors committed by the students could be classified into ten types, and the six mostly prominent errors are errors in

plural form, subject-verb agreement, verb tense, word form, subject/verb omission, passive voice, article, preposition, pronoun, and double negation.

From the discussion, it can be concluded that the students made errors in the grammatical patterns because they are strongly influenced by Indonesian (L1) patterns that they acquired before, even the rules have become a well-rooted habit in their minds. The L1 patterns were reflected in their essays which can be depicted through errors in plural form, passive voice construction, subject/verb omission, and verb tense. Such errors were strongly caused by the interference of L1 (interlingual transfer) because they do not have such grammatical features in L1 that are very important in L2.

In addition to interlingual transfer, the grammatical errors were also caused by the student's inability of applying L2 rules comprehensively. They made errors because they made overgeneralizations of L2 rules. Such errors occur in subject-verb agreement and in word form. Therefore, the grammatical errors are not all of them from their mother tongue interference, but also from their intralingual transfer of the target language. It is right that grammatical errors are both from the interference of mother tongue (interlingual transfer) and from the mutual interference of items in the target language (intralingual transfer), however, in case of Indonesian speakers, interlingual transfer plays greater causes than intralingual transfer since L1 and L2 are from different language families which make possible to have distinct linguistic principles.

The result of this analysis can be advantageous for learners, teachers, and course designers. Considering the sources of the errors they made, it is expected that students will be able to analyze and correct their own errors which will improve their English more accurately. This research is also hoped to provide teachers and course designers with better understanding of the sources of the students' errors, which motivate them to evaluate the teaching approaches applied so far, and to find the more appropriate ones to deal with the foreign language learners' errors.

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CODING LOGICAL MECHANISM AND STEREOTYPING IN GENDER CYBER HUMORS

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Abstract: This research aims to find out types of logical mechanism and ways of stereotyping in gender cyber humors. For this purpose, both researchers have collected 50 gender cyber humors and analyzed them, primarily using Attardo's (2011) General Theory of Verbal Humor (GTVH) to explicate the logical mechanism or the inner structure of the humors. The findings show that there are 10 (ten) types of logical mechanism: two most dominant types (i.e., put-down humor and false analogy), four less dominant (i.e., lexical repetition, absurd neologism, absurd interpretation, and fallacious reasoning), and four least dominant (i.e., twisting figures of speech, prepositions, homonyms, and idioms). Interestingly, there is some correlational tendency that the more dominant the types, the more complex their linguistic structures. As for gender stereotyping, both men and women are taken as targets of humor. Men are ridiculed for being stupid, ugly, stubborn, immature, and addicted to drinking and gambling, whereas women are ridiculed for being bothersome, economically dependent, absorbed in home-making, and jealous. Strangely enough, both men and women are made fun of for being insignificant and excessive money spenders. Most stereotypes are in accord with traditional roles of men and women; only the last two sound non-traditional, probably owing to the success of recent feminist movements.

Key words: gender cyber humors, logical mechanism, gender stereotyping

Abstrak: *Penelitian ini bertujuan menguak tipe-tipe mekanisme humor and tata-kerja stereotip dalam humor berbalut-gender. Untuk tujuan ini,*

kedua peneliti mengumpulkan 50 humor berbalut-gender dari situs-web and menganalisis seluruh humor tersebut menggunakan Toeri Umum Humor Verbal Attardo (2011), terutama untuk mengungkap mekanisme atau struktur hakiki dari humor. Temuan penelitian menunjukkan bahwa mekanisme humor ada 10 (sepuluh) tipe: dua tipe paling dominan (yaitu humor-mengejek dan humor dengan analogi palsu), empat tipe kurang dominan (yaitu pengulangan leksikal, neologisme aneh, penafsiran aneh, dan penalaran yang menipu), dan empat tipe tak-dominan (yaitu memelintir gaya bahasa, preposisi, homonym, dan idiom). Yang menarik, nampaknya ada kecenderungan korelasional: semakin dominan tipe humor, semakin kompleks struktur linguistiknya. Sedangkan mengenai tata-kerja stereoptip, baik laki-laki maupun perempuan keduanya dijadikan target olok-olok humor. Laki-laki diejek karena bodoh, buruk-rupa, keras-kepala, kekanak-kanakan, dan menjadi pecandu minuman dan judi; sementara perempuan diejek karena cerewet, bergantung ekonominya, cuma sibuk dengan urusan rumah tangga, dan pencemburu. Anehnya, baik laki-laki maupun perempuan keduanya diledek karena berkepribadian dangkal dan berwatak boros. Sebagian besar stereotip sesuai dengan peran tradisional laki-laki dan perempuan; hanya sifat dangkal dan boros yang bernuansa non-tradisional, kemungkinan besar sebagai akibat keberhasilan gerakan feminisme pada saat ini.

***Kata kunci**: humor berbalut-gender, mekanisme humor, stereoptip berbasis-gender*

INTRODUCTION

Almost everyone agrees that humors are creatively produced and intended to be humorous. It is not only humorous, but also healthy. The health benefits of humor are well documented by the scientific and medical community (Bennett, 2006). Because of their virtues, we can find them almost everywhere in our daily lives, such as in media and social interactions. Ironically, not every humor fascinates people; there are some humors which are considered to be more negative phenomena. In this case, it refers to those with crude ideas behind them and they should not be taken for granted in the academic world, e.g. ethnic jokes, political humors, gender humors, and many others.

In the academic world, Paramitasari (2007) and Azis (2008) examined the ambiguities found in humors. The two researchers mainly focused on the incongruity aspect of the humor in the form of ambiguities which are responsible for creating comical effects. The incongruity theorists suggested

that amusement or humor is the result of the unexpected. Koestler (1964) claimed that humor shows how creative the human minds are through the wittiness scattered in humors. The incongruities through language, gestures and pictures are indeed examples of the creative cognitive process, which is also claimed by other prominent thinkers of incongruity theories of humor such as Schopenhauer and Kant (Monro, 1988). Incongruity theories gave rise to a formal theory of humor called the General Verbal Theory of Humor (GTVH), a term introduced by Attardo (2001). Like Chomskyan generative grammar (see Chomsky 1957, 1965), this theory also consists of layers that explain the content of humor. The layers are known as Knowledge Resources (KR); from the most abstract to the most concrete are Script Opposition, Logical Mechanism, Situation, Target, Narrative Strategy, and Language. It is interesting to note that the targets in humors are the butts of the humors based on person or group stereotypes (Attardo and Raskin, 1991). In today's usage, stereotypes most often denote unfavorable or hostile pictures toward other people based on their membership in another social or ethnic group.

Having a different perspective from the two researchers above, we argue that there are larger numbers of humors that do not violate linguistic features alone, such as ethnic humors and gender humors. Plato and Aristotle were originators of the theories of superiority many centuries ago. These theories, developed by Hobbes and used in sociology by Bergson, predominated for over two thousand years and explained laughter as the result of feelings of superiority over others or over our own former position (Monro, 1988). These scholars claim that the sense of humor is positively related to general traits of aggression, hostility, or dominance. These theories accentuate the negative attitude of the producer and/or user of humor towards its target and the often alleged aggressive character of laughter. These superiority and inferiority elements touch upon the social aspect of the humor. Another interesting relationship between humor and society has been observed by Laineste (2008), a sociologist, who stated that humor tells a lot about its surrounding because humor gives us the knowledge about standardized images of the society.

Gender humors are humors involving gender matters that trigger people's laughter. Gender humors constitute one thought-provoking topic to investigate because it shows how creative human minds are in manipulating language, and at the same time it also tells a lot about the social aspect of the humor through stereotypical image. The link between humor and social domain was highlighted by Schwars (2010) who argued that humor increased when the target of the joke was someone or a group of persons we do not

like; in this case, humor served as a means of expressing social superiority. Moreover, humor can be manipulated as a tool to reinforce or even transform stereotypical images. Moranjak-Bamburac (2006, p. 17) stated that "Stereotypes are simplified and generalized mental images or views which distort our concepts of reality." She also added that due to humans' cognitive capacity, stereotypes were resistant to change. Gender stereotypes are images, usually negative ones, about social roles, identities, and representations of male and female. Another very thought-provoking study of the gender traditional role is done by Chavetz (1978). In her pioneering work in this area, she summarized masculine and feminine gender role stereotypes for seven human characteristics, based on her 1971 study of students' attitudes. She found that her subjects of study described the concept of "masculine" with such adjectives as athletic, breadwinner, sexually aggressive, unemotional, logical, dominating, etc. "Feminine" traits were described with such adjectives as weak, domestic, sexually passive, emotional, intuitive, dependent, etc.. Londo (2006) also investigated that women's magazines offered stereotypes of family and motherhood, which led women to believe that self-actualization was not possible without a family or children. Through binary opposition, both types of gender-specific indexing serve as structures of power-relation (Derrida, 1978). It is obvious, then, that in the concept of masculinity and femininity, the former one is more dominant in the binary opposition. Worse, stereotypes consciously or unconsciously dictate how and by whom and when it is socially acceptable to display an emotion; so they influence how an individual performs (Spencer, Steele, and Quinn, 1999). On the basis of the research background outlined above, the aims of the present research are twofold: first, to find out types of logical mechanism, and secondly, to figure out ways of stereotyping in gender cyber humors.

RESEARCH METHOD

This study investigates verbal data taken from a humor website, Aha!jokes.com. This site has become recognized as a leader of jokes and humor on the World Wide Web by offering fresh jokes, text files, audio files, video clips, pictures, cartoons, and animations. Google gives this site a high rate when the researchers surfed for "gender jokes", indicating that this site is often visited or considered as one of the favorite humor websites. Aha!jokes.com was first on-line in August 2001 and has been rapidly growing by updating its jokes ever since. The present research, using a descriptive qualitative design in the sense of Patton (1990), Latief (1999), and Ary *et. al.*

(2002), collected the data using a purposive sampling technique; for the researchers intentionally selected 50 gender-related humors from the above website. We analyzed the humors to uncover their logical mechanism and linguistic manipulation in them using Attardo's (2001) General Theory of Verbal Humor (GTVH). Moreover, we also dissected the humors to expose how gender stereotyping operates in them, and eventually to assess how gender opposition portrays men and women in their social and familial roles, as seen from traditional and non-traditional perspectives.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

This section presents research findings resulting from data analysis under two sub-headings: (1) logical mechanism and targets of humors, and (2) stereotyping in gender humors. The first sub-section discusses types of logical mechanism of gender humors, focusing on three aspects: identifying the male or female targets, specifying the formal rules governing the mechanism, and explicating the linguistic features under manipulation. The second sub-section discusses gender stereotypes in gender humors, pointing out which stereotypes belong to which gender and why, and explaining the shifting tendency from the traditional male dominance to the non-traditional male-and-female equality.

A. Logical Mechanism and Targets of Humors

In analyzing the data, the researchers classify the selected 50 gender humors in terms of their logical mechanism, and relate each type of logical mechanism to the target of humor: *man* and/or *woman*. Logical mechanism, according to Attardo and Raskin (1991), addresses how the various elements such as linguistic devices in the humorous exchange are conjoined to feed the need of laughter. As shown in Table 1, 10 types of logical mechanism are presented in sequence, from the humor that involve exploiting smaller linguistic units to more complex ones. Thus, linguistically speaking, type (1), Twisting Prepositions, is very simple; type (5), Absurd Neologism, is relatively complex; and type (10), Put-down Humor, is extremely complex. In terms of frequency, at the top are Put-down Humor (28%) and False Analogy (24%); in the middle are Word Repetition (10%), Absurd Neologism, Absurd Interpretation, and Fallacious Reasoning, (10%) each; and at the bottom are Twisting Prepositions (4%), Twisting Homonymy, and Twisting Figurative Language, (2%) each. Notice that linguistic complexity does not prevent writing sophisticated humor. In fact, the tendency goes in the reverse order:

the more complex linguistically, the more frequently the humors occur. This suggests that gender humor writers seem to prefer writing humors with greater linguistic complexity, and hence logically more challenging and comically more appealing.

Table 1:
Logical Mechanism and Targets of Humors

No.	Logical Mechanism	∑	%	Man		Woman	
				∑	%	∑	%
1	Twisting Prepositions	2	4	-	-	2	4
2	Twisting Homonymy	1	2	-	-	1	2
3	Twisting Idiomatic Expressions	1	2	-	-	1	2
4	Twisting Figurative Language	3	6	3	6	-	-
5	Absurd Neologism	4	8	3	6	1	2
6	Absurd Interpretation	4	8	-	-	4	8
7	False Analogy	12	24	5	10	7	14
8	Fallacious Reasoning	4	8	3	6	1	2
9	Word Repetition	5	10	2	4	3	6
10	Insult or Put-down Humor	14	28	8	16	6	12
	TOTAL	50	100	24	48	26	52

Legends (for mathematical symbols used in this sention):
= is / equals
^ = is not synonymous with
-»…^… = is not ... in the puch line
~ = does not have

As for the targets of humor, both *man* and *woman* share almost the same destiny (48% : 52%). Each type of gender equally serves as a butt or victim of the jokes. This may lead to a tentative conclusion that gender equality now prevails nicely in the English-speaking world; and this will be discussed more fully in the second sub-section.

After identifying the general characteristics, below we are presenting detailed analyses, giving elaboration to each type of logical mechanism of gender humors (see Table 1), starting with the linguistically simple and moving down to reach the linguistically complex. For each type of logical

mechanism, one or two illustrative examples are provided and analyzed thoroughly to reveal the incongruities, by exposing the semantic features belonging to twisted linguistic expressions, whenever necessary, and by making use of Attardo's (2001) General Theory of Verbal Humor (GTVH) to uncover the witty play of logic behind the narrative strategy.

1. Twisting Prepositions

Some linguistic devices can be deliberately exploited to create a thrill of laughter; one of them is preposition. Interestingly, most prepositions, like *on, in, at*, contain more than one entry in the dictionary. Consequently, it is possible for a preposition to have more than one meaning if the context or the script opens a way for ambiguity. Take a look at example 1:

(1) One golfer tells another: "Hey, guess what! I got a set of golf clubs for my wife!" The other replies: "GREAT trade!" (Datum 1)

Based on GTVH, the structure of humor (1) can be elaborated as in Table 2.

Table 2:
Logical Mechanism of Humor (1)

Parameters	Structure of Humor
Script Opposition	Given/exchanged
Target	Woman
Narrative Strategy	Short Narrative
Language	Set-up: *One golfer tells another, "Hey, guess what! I got a set of gold clubs for my wife!"* Punch Line: *The other replies, "Great trade!"*

In this case, the expression "I got a set of golf clubs for my wife!" is constructed to give this image:

a. I got something.

b. That something is a set of golf clubs for (given to) my wife.

As a result, the set-up is likely to be interpreted that a set of golf clubs is a gift presented to the wife by the husband. On the other hand, it is unlikely that the reader chooses another way to interpret the constructed set-up.

The rest of the humor is purely a linguistic choice that creates a semantic obstacle for the reader. The given punch line "Great trade!", which is also compatible with the text, succeeds in twisting the whole expected meaning of the set-up. This reply becomes compatible after the reader realizes that the preposition "for" makes a way for ambiguity. Having come across with the twisted punch line, the reader has to look back and reconstruct a possible relation between the surface and deep levels (script opposition) of the sentence. Only after arriving at the punch line is the reader aware that actually there are two thinkable alternative meanings given in this humor. To make it clearer, below is the formulation of the humor. If X is the ambiguous word, Ml the expected meaning, and M2 the second interpretation, then the humor can be interpreted as:

X for

Ml intended to be given/received by the wife

M2 in exchange for the wife

Set-up:

X = Ml, X = M2 Ml ^ M2[1]

(Verbal reading of each mathematical notation is given at the end of this article.)

The set-up leads the reader to expect:

X = M1

However, the spatial incongruity between the different meanings of the preposition "for" is finally established by the use of the word "trade". So, the punch line can be written as:

X = M2-»X^M1[2]

Hence, having met this semantic obstacle inside the script opposition (the different possible meanings of the preposition "for"), the reader is forced to twist the image into something like this:

a. I *got* something.

b. That *something* is a set of golf (in exchange) for my wife.

Semantically analyzed, wife [+ANIMATE, +HUMAN, +PARTNER, -THING] cannot be bartered for golf clubs [-ANIMATE, -HUMAN, -PARTNER, +THING]. Some people find the remarks "great" funnier because it pictures how very lucky the husband is by having successfully traded his wife for a set of golf clubs. It should be kept in mind that this element of superiority or depreciating "the other" also accounts for the humorous effect. In fact, it plays an important role in the humor. If *"the wife"* is changed with *"the husband"*, it possibly creates different effects of laughter because stereotypically a *"woman"* is not into sports, especially golf. Furthermore, the image of a woman as "the insignificant one", or "the other" is clearly apparent since a set of golf clubs—an object—is considered to be more valuable than the wife. Possibly, the word *"great"* which is deliberately put in the humor arouses more laughter. Thus, if men or even women are laughing at this humor, they laugh not only at the subtle incongruity but also, consciously or not, at the insignificant images assigned to a wife.

2. Twisting Partial Homonymy

Pun is one phenomenon that shows how closely related humor and language are. There are some types of puns that are found in great literature, such as homonyms, homophones, and homographs (Kadarisman, 2002). This humor below manipulates one type of pun, homonymy, to stimulate laughter. Homonymy is a case where there are words that are identical in sound and spelling (Liang, 2007). In general, homonym is a word that is spelled and pronounced in the same way has different meanings. Although they have similar sounds and spellings, homonyms in everyday usage rarely create confusion because they are used in a certain context. However, due to their unique features, they can be exploited as an indicator of humor, like humor 2:

(2) Woman's Instruction: If he asks what sort of books you're interested in, tell him checkbooks. (Datum 3)

The punch line creates a need to spatially bring together the word "book" with "checkbook". The spatial incongruity between book and checkbook is linked by the same spelling of the second syllable in check*book* and *book* and the same sound they have, /buk/. Having the same spelling and sound, the different words are treated as a similar word in the surface of the humor. Therefore, the punch line is twisted by telling that checkbook is a kind of book.

Furthermore, the social logic behind the humor also contributes to its creation. It is clearly seen that the humor above pokes fun at the woman's expense. The humor gives the image that shows how women instruct other women to be materialistic and dependent on men in terms of economic support. It should be noticed how women are constructed to be dependent on men. This shows that male dominance is still maintained in earnings. As suggested by Schwars (2010), humor served as an instrument of expressing power in particular social domain. In other words, this humor, to some extent, preserves the traditional social role of male as the money-maker and female as the money-spender.

3. Twisting Idiomatic Expressions

Advanced English Idioms defines idiom as a constructed group of words that has a special meaning that is different from the ordinary meaning of each individual word (Lim, 2004). These multi-constructed words are combined into a semantic unit whose meaning cannot be deduced from the meanings of its constituents. In other words, if the meanings of the words constructing an idiom are separated, it will destroy the frozen meaning of the idiom. Because an idiom has a non-productive syntactic structure, it is impossible to add, delete or modify the arrangement of words in fixed idioms. Nevertheless, frozen idioms, when used in the production of humor, are deliberately treated in a different manner. An example is the following humor:

(3) What are two reasons why women don't mind their own business?

1) No mind.

2) No business. (Datum 4)

Fixed expressions in idioms have their continuous echoing meaning throughout ages. However, in the punch line, the idiomatic expression is destined to unveil their initial figurative freshness in order to arouse the humorous effect. The humor exploits the idiomatic expression by separating it into each separate word. The disconnection between the meaning of the words in the idiomatic arrangement results in absurdity and incongruity, which produce surprise. The word "mind" in the idiomatic expression functions as a verb which is equivalent to "to attend", whereas the word "business" functions as a metaphor to indicate "affair". Indeed, defining "mind" [THINKING CAPACITY] and "business" [WORK] individually is not expected, and triggers laughter.

Exploiting linguistic devices may contribute additional thrill to the humorous effect. And yet, the humor also depends on the social implication of what the humor is really telling about. By picturing the inferiorities of women, the disparaging element should be credited for the laughter. Some psychological observations confirm that items of disparaging humor tend to get the highest ratings for funniness (Graesser *et al.* 1989: Schwars, 2010). Therefore, if there is no negative stereotypical image attaches to this humor, the humor may arouse less or even no laughter. The disparagement appears because the humor panders the stereotype of woman as having no brain power. This humor agrees with the old traditional myth that woman is biologically destined to be less intelligent than man. Secondly, the woman is portrayed as having less economic power by describing her as someone with *no business* or *no work*. It is obvious that the humor successfully portrays the dominance and superiority of man by putting woman as the object of laughter.

4. Twisting Figurative Language

Figurative language uses figures of speech to represent something in a connotative way. Apart from its wide use in media and communication, figurative language is also exploited to be a prominent tool for humor. This study also finds that humor twists the meaning from connotative meaning to denotative meaning:

(4) Q: What do you do with a man who thinks he's God's gift?

A: Exchange him. (Datum 5)

The expression "God's gift" refers to an expression that is used in a different way from the normal meaning. The metaphor "God's gift" is a vehicle to transfer an image of an extremely admirable, valued, or talented person; and when the expression is used, it can directly generate laughter because it is usually used in the ironical situation to describe people who think that they are perfectly attractive and admirable (Longman Electronic Dictionary, 2005). In other words, the expression "God's gift" is used to describe a person who brags or thinks that he/she is perfect, special, talented, etc. Notice also that the noun *gift* serves as the base for the adjective *gifted*.

However, it triggers laughter even more when the expression is twisted and treated in a denotative way. The expression *God's gift* describing *man* in the set-up of the humor connotatively contains [+ANIMATE, +HUMAN, +MALE]. And yet, the punch line creates different set of semantic

components: [-ANIMATE, -HUMAN]. Therefore if X is the connotative meaning, Ml the expected meaning, and M2 the other alternative meaning, the formulation of the logical mechanism of this humor can be also written as:

X God's gift

Ml an extremely admirable, valued, or talented person

M2 an object which can be exchanged

From the semantic analysis above, the first and second meanings are totally different from each other. In the set-up the meaning of *God's gift* is closer to Ml although it can be interpreted as M2.

X = M1; X = M2 M2^M1 X= Ml[3]

The punch line succeeds in twisting the figurative language into the M2 via the word "exchange". Here the humor successfully twists the connotative meaning into denotative meaning:

X = M2 X ^ Ml[4]

Making these two very different planes—*man* and *gift*—compatible, the humor succeeds in feeding some people the need for laughter. This humor is only intended to make fun of man who is stereotyped with some psychological trait, like bragging. Besides giving the stereotype "boastful" to man, this humor also considers man insignificant; he can be exchanged as an object.

5. Absurd Neologism and Interpretation

In morphology, this kind of humor undergoes what is called word formation, or the creation of a new word. One type of word formation is called neologism, which indicates a word or phrase newly invented or newly introduced into a language. Generally, neologism is a word, term, or phrase which has been recently created to apply to new concepts or synthesize pre-existing concepts, to make older terminology sound more contemporary. In most neologism, there is a logical relationship between the old term and the new concept, so that they are acceptable in the community. However, these selected humors use straightforward juxtaposition by interpreting the old term with a new, absurd, unacceptable concept.

(5) Bar-be-que (bar*bi*q) n. You bought the groceries, washed the lettuce, chopped the tomatoes, diced the onions, marinated the meat and cleaned everything up, but, he "made the dinner." (Datum 9)

The form of this humor is constructed like an entry in a dictionary, complete with its pronunciation and part of speech. However, "barbeque" in any English dictionary is obviously not defined that way. Thus, the definition of this word which is far from the accepted truth creates laughter. This humor shows another representation of man and woman in the division of house labor. The woman does all the preparation to make a barbeque. And yet, the man, although having his hands free, is boastful about making the dinner.

However, besides absurd neologism, some humors also exploit the meaning of an expression by giving it an absurd interpretation. There are also humors that involve false translation. It should be born in mind that this is not a real translation which renders messages from one language to another. Yet, the humor below is deliberately "translating" the expression incorrectly to create humorous outcome.

(6) Woman's translation: Do you love me? = I'm going to ask for something expensive. (Datum 15)

The humor portrayal, however, mirrors the outside social world in which the male dominance in economic power, specifically in the working field, remains the norm (Wilis, 2002). Accordingly, women are ridiculed for their dependence on their husband economically. Once again, humors of this type work because they create an incongruent script opposition and succeed in disparaging others.

6. False Analogy

Analogy is a comparison between two things that are similar in some way. Encarta (2007) defines it as a form of logical inference, reasoning that if two things are taken to be alike in one way, they are alike in other ways. However, when two concepts, objects, or events are compared based on weak similarities and applied across the board, the comparison is called false analogy. According to Daniel Kies (Online, 2012) false analogy is a comparison which is based on just a few similarities, while ignoring heaps of differences. Interestingly, the more illogical the things compared, the more incongruent the script becomes, and the funnier it is.

(7) What do men and beer bottles have in common?
They are both empty from the neck up! (Datum 20)

Given this riddle, both the humor teller and the reader are involved in a non-bona-fide situation. The set-up (see Table 4.9.) ***"What do men and beer bottles have in common?",*** as Grice (1975) puts it, is a non-bona-fide communication (violating maxims) because it compares men [+ANIMATE, +HUMAN] with bottles [-ANIMATE, -HUMAN]. Given a non-bona-fide set-up, the reader is driven to find a non-bona-fide punch line too.

However, inside this riddle, the incongruous comparison between bottles and men involves false analogy. Because both men and beer bottles have necks, they are assumed to share another characteristic, that is, "*empty*"**.** To make it more clear, if T1 (thing 1) refers to the object being compared, T2 refers to men, X is the similar characteristic between them, and Y is Tl's characteristic, then the logical mechanism of the humor can also be written as:

T1 bottles T2 men

X a shared similar characteristic (neck) Y; Tl's characteristic (empty). The set-up:

T1^T2 Tl =X,T2 =~X T1=Y[5] The punch line:

Tl = Y = T2[6]

Unlike the lexical ambiguity in humor (1), in which the preposition *for* contains two different meanings (X = M2 -> X^ Ml)[7], false analogy works when the two things overlap each other partly by ill-judging them (Tl= Y = T2). In humor (7), although both bottles and men are given the predicate "empty", this adjective assigns different meanings to each subject. Outside the humor, "*empty*" is an adjective describing the condition of a noun as having nothing inside. When it is associated with "*bottle*" [+THING], then it means denotatively: from the neck up, the bottle is empty. However, if it modifies "*man*" [+HUMAN], then it creates a figurative effect that man (any man) is brainless.

The incongruity, again, makes the reader burst into laughter. And yet, the incongruity alone does not constitute the humorous effect. The humor demonstrates that it also depends on the social implications given to the butt of the humor. Although representing men as stupid contradicted the traits of masculinity some decades ago, now they metamorphose to be the butt of a bacillus of laughter too. It indicates that stereotyping is not absolute; it changes through time.

7. Fallacious Reasoning

In any writing textbook, when writing, one needs to build a thesis statement, supported by strong arguments based on some logical explanation. According to Daniel Kies (Online 2012), when writers employ logic in composition, the emphasis seems to be on determining whether the reasoning behind an argument is valid or invalid, and then using those determinations to support or reject a thesis. But, sometimes, people slip and create fallacy in reasoning. An example of false reasoning is when a person recieves bad luck three times on three successive Wednesdays and concludes that Wednesday is his unlucky day (Soedjatmiko, 1988). If the premises are vague, incongruous or totally illogical, then they may result in absurdity; some, with stereotyping and insult, may create laughter. Humorists can construct a humorous/false proposition to attract the readers without the need to provide good evidence or premises at all. The logic between premises and the inference may create amusement if it is exploited and results in illogicality like what is found in this humor:

(8) A bum asks a man for $2. The man asked, "Will you buy booze?" The bum said, "No." The man asked, "Will you gamble it away?"The bum said, "No." Then the man asked, "Will you come home with me so my wife can see what happens to a man who doesn't drink or gamble?" (Datum 31)

At first, before arriving at the punch line, the interpreter thought that the man asked the bum those questions because he didn't want to give his money to the bum who would buy booze and gamble it away. Although it turns out that the bum, whom the husband comes across, is a man who does not drink and gamble, the story violates the reader's expectation by his final conclusion that involves false logic. The humor converts the condition of a specific situation to make a general conclusion; if X is Y, then Y is X:

> If the bum is a man who does not drink and gamble, every man who does not drink or gamble is a bum.

In the punch line, the man generalized that a man (any man) who does not drink or gamble is (or looks like) a bum [MAN, GOOD FOR NOTHING]. From the absurd conclusion, this humor pokes fun at men's addiction to boozing and gambling. All in all, the humor teller deliberately chooses not to supply the humor with logical reasoning. The humor just needs to employ some negative stereotypes to create a humorous effect.

8. Word Repetition

There are humors that exploit word repetition to make the expressions unique and attractive. The repetition of words in these humors gives more sonorous sound to highlight the contrast between man and woman; because without the substance of repetition in the humors, they will be an ordinary sentence instead of a creative tool for laughter. Through word repetition, the humor bellow indicates the superiority of man and the inferiority of woman.

(9) *A successful man* is one who makes more money than his wife can spend. *A successful woman* is one who can find such a man. (Datum 34)

Given this sentence, it is important to notice how the humor defines the word "*successful*". The first sentence defines a successful man as a man who makes more money than his wife can spend. However, the second sentence gives a heartbreaking definition about a successful woman because the concept of "*successful*" when attached to woman is wrongly exploited.

The word "*successful*", as defined by Encarta Dictionary 2007, means "having achieved or gained much, especially wealth, fame, or power". So, it can be semantically written as [+HUMAN, +/-MALE, + WEALTH, +FAME, +POWER]. From the semantic analysis, both man and woman can be successful. Nevertheless, the humor turns the definition of this adjective the other way around. From the humor, the phrases "successful man" and "successful woman" can be semantically analyzed:

Successful man [+HUMAN, +MALE, +MONEY]

Successful woman [+HUMAN, -MALE, +SUCCESSFUL MAN]

It is obvious that this sentence gives a wrong definition of being a successful woman. If this sentence is scrutinized, then, according to the humor, woman's being successful depends on man's success. Again, the woman's dependency in terms of economic power appears in this humor. The superiority and dominance of man over woman are the main factors that account for the humor.

9. Insult Humor or Put-down Humor

Having analyzed the humors above, it can be noticed that there are elements of incongruity and superiority in each of them. There is some wit in language play to insult a certain sexual group. Yet, the researchers find that

there are some humors that are mainly, or mostly, constructed by sound insults. An insult is an expression, statement or behavior that is considered degrading. Insults, which happen just around any corner, are produced intentionally or accidentally. Intentional insults in gender humors are expressed due to underestimating intelligence or knowledge of the other.

Under this classification are gender humors that do not foreground the linguistic devices like the above humors. Unlike the previously discussed humors which use various ways of playful logic and smart language mechanisms as vehicles to poke fun at men's or women's inferiorities and deficiencies, the humors classified in this section put down the other party openly for their stereotypical images.

(10) I date this girl for two years - and then the nagging starts: "I wanna know your name..." (Datum 37)

(11) Q: Why do men like smart women? A: Opposites attract. (Datum 50)

Compared with the previous humors, these humors contain less incongruity elements. Humor (10) makes use of the stereotype that a girl (no specific girl mentioned) is always nagging. Humor (11), with an economic and sarcastic reply, also belittles man's intelligence. Although there are few elements of language manipulation creating humorous effects, both humors have sound insults.

Looking back at the afore-mentioned theories, Schopenhauer and Kant (Monro, 1988) stand for the incongruity theory, while Hobbes and the others stick to the superiority theory. In light of the discussions on humors above, the exploitations of linguistic elements (listed in an increasing order of complexity in Table 1) do matter. Through this incongruity which is covered by various narrative styles, it can be seen how creative human minds are in producing and backtracking incongruity in humors.

To recapitulate, each gender humor has its own logic. Dissecting the humors by means of GTVH opens a way to see how logical mechanisms in gender humors operate; and exposing semantic features reveals how the reader's expectation is given a sudden surprise by an incongruent text. Despite all the incongruities that constitute gender humors, there is also one fundamental ingredient that triggers humors: the element of superiority. Without the stereotypical images showing the inferior and the superior, the humorous effect would work less. The element of superiority can be traced by

scrutinizing the targets of the humors: *man* and *woman*—a binary opposition put in endless rivalry for the sake of verbal play.

10. Stereotyping in the Selected Gender Humors

In addition to uncovering the types of logical mechanism, the data analysis also yields gender stereotyping typical of gender humors. So, what are the sexist matters or the distorted images of the party being poked fun at? As listed in Table 3, the reader can take a close look at the distorted images of man and woman that count for the jocular effects. Notice that all stereotypes have negative meanings. Going from the top to the bottom, man and woman are equally insignificant (3%: 3%); woman is a lot more bothersome than man (16% : 2%); man is much more stupid than woman (18% : 4%); man is also more ugly than woman (6% : 2%); and both man and woman are equally uneconomical and attracted to gender-bias attitudes (1% : 1 %).

Then there are stereotypical negative images pertaining only to man: immature (2%), not understanding (4%), stubborn (2%), and addicted to drinking and gambling (2%). Similarly, woman is also portrayed with typically female-negative stereotypes: being a homemaker (10%), economically dependent (12%), and jealous (4%). Thus, as stocks for laughter, man and woman are assigned their respective disapproving traits: macho-negative stereotypes for man, and nagging-negative stereotypes for woman. While this negative stereotyping is necessary for creating a humor victim, the distorted images of both sexes are nevertheless in accord with findings on gender roles in earlier studies by Chavetz (1978) and Craig (1992).

Table 3:
Gender Stereotypes in Gender Humors

No.	Gender Stereotypes	∑	%	Man		Woman	
				∑	%	∑	%
1	Insignificant	6	12	3	6	3	6
2	Bothersome	9	18	1	2	8	16
3	Stupid	11	22	9	18	2	4
4	Ugly	4	8	3	6	1	2
5	Uneconomic	1	2	0.5	1	0.5	1
6	Gender Differences	1	2	0.5	1	0.5	1
7	Immature	1	2	1	2	-	-
8	Not Understanding	2	4	2	4	-	-
9	Stubborn	1	2	1	2	-	-

10	Drinking and Gambling Addict	1	2	1	2	-	-
11	Homemaker	5	10	-	-	5	10
12	Economically Dependent	6	12	-	-	6	12
13	Jealous	2	4	-	-	2	4
	Total	50	100	22	44	28	56

Some studies related to this issue have been conducted by anthropologists and psychologists. They came up with interesting findings that reflect the common standard of traditional humors. In her article "Gender and Humor: An Introduction", Helga Kotthoffs (2006: 12) states that:

> Anthropologists such as Gershon Legman (1968), who have compiled large international collections of humors, have found that the sexually explicit humor plays an important culture-transcending role and that a large share of these humors are at the expense of women (also Fine 1976). In the meantime, the women's movement has produced changes in the domain of standard jokes.

With this finding, women's deficiencies were once the dominating factors that were responsible for laughter. In other words, women became the object of male laughter. Moreover, Ken Willis (2002) in her Ph.D dissertation states that Blyth, a 1953 American humorist, considered women only fitted as men's object of laughter because of their subordination. Nevertheless, scrutinized diachronically, this study agrees with Khotthoff's statement (2006) that men's deficiencies, as displayed in Table 3, have also become common place. The shift from poking fun at women only to both men and women is a result of women's revolutionary movement in the West, including English-speaking countries.

Going back to the earlier study by Chavetz (1978), her findings about masculine and feminine traits can be put in binary opposition: masculine/feminine, athletic/weak, breadwinner/ domestic, sexually aggressive/sexually passive, unemotional/emotional, logical/intuitive, dominating/dependent, etc. Derrida (1978) argued that in most binary oppositions there is power relationship between the binary since one of the binary is usually more dominant than the other. It is apparent that central authority or superiority is attributed to the first, masculine terms in the

binary oppositions, implying that the second, feminine terms belong to the inferior or weak party.

These traditional traits and images of men and women are now being compared with the portrayals of men and women within the selected humors to see whether or not the humors endorse the traditional role stereotypes. For this purpose, most contents of Table 3 are re-presented in Table 4 to compare between traditional and non-traditional stereotypes pertaining to both men and women.

Recall that in analyzing gender humors the targets are portrayed using negative stereotypes. Referring to Table 4, there are 3 **traditional stereotypes**: homemaker, economically dependent, and bothersome—all being typical characteristics of women. While the term "homemaker" has been used lately to replace the older derogatory term "housewife", it fails to elevate the social status of women. Being a homemaker was originally intended to mean that a wife is a powerful figure in managing domestic affairs.

Table 4:
Stereotypes of Man and Woman in Gender Humors

No.	Stereotype	Humor Target			
		Man		Woman	
Traditional		∑	%	∑	∑
1	Homemaker	-	-	5	10
2	Economically dependent	-	-	6	12
3	Bothersome	1	2	8	16
Non-traditional		∑	%	∑	∑
1	Insignificant	3	6	3	6
2	Stupid	9	18	2	4
3	Ugly	3	6	1	2

However, the modifier "home" in "homemaker" is still much too close in meaning to the modifier "house" in "housework". So, a wife is fully in charge of doing all housework, as ridiculed in the following humor.

(12) Men's translation:

WE SHARE THE HOUSEWORK.

"I make the messes; she cleans them up."

Humor (12) obviously puts men in the dominant position, and women in subordination. While in this humor men are presented as uncaring, thoughtless, and egoistic, women are presented as weak and helpless. Both men and women are victims of the humor: the oppressors and the oppressed, with superiority assigned to men.

Further, since a homemaker has her power only within the confines of the homestead, outside this domain she becomes powerless. Therefore, as homemakers, wives are ridiculed by gender humors as being dependent economically on their husbands. The dominance issues with regard to economic power come to the fore, as in the following humor:

(13) A couple was having a discussion about family finances. Finally the husband exploded, "If it weren't for my money, the house wouldn't be here!" The wife replied, "My dear, if it weren't for your money I wouldn't be here." (Datum 36)

The wife in humor (13) reminds us of "a successful woman" as defined by humor (9); she is one who can find a very rich man. Women are targeted in gender humors because of the stereotypes suggesting that they are materialistic, shopaholic, having no business or penniless. Ironically, this kind of dependency depicted in the humors comes not only from men's mindset, but also from women's mindset. The man thinks that the woman is only capable of spending his money. Similarly, the woman thinks, and even instructs other women, to be dependent financially on the man (datum 3). It is not unusual that women are portrayed as consumerists (Moranjak-Bamburac, 2006; Londo, 2006). Londo (2006) argued that magazines and other media give emphasis on women beauty, burdening them with the achievement of ideal beauty at any cost. In the humor, the power relationship portrayed is established through the binary opposites: money-provider vs. money-spender. The binary opposition of independency/dependency in terms of economic power suggests that traditional stereotypes of men and women nowadays are still firmly established.

Thus, the three traditional stereotypes presenting negative images of women (listed in Table 4) come in one package. As a "homemaker" (10%), the woman is "economically dependent" (12%) on the man. If the man fails to provide what she needs, she becomes "bothersome" (16%), nagging.

Notice, however, than men are also bothersome (2%), although much less than women.

Whereas the traditional stereotypes take only women as stocks of laughter, the **non-traditional stereotypes** mainly work the opposite way. Men and women are equally "insignificant" (6%), cheap creatures. The rise of this gender equality goes along with the ascending spirit of feminism. As noted in Tong (1998), Simone de Beauvoir (1960) introduced the opposing terms "the One" and "the Other" in her book *The Second Sex***.** In her analysis, "the One" refers to man, while "the Other" refers to woman; and "the One" is more dominant than "the Other". The otherness used to be assigned to woman because she was considered having no power and hence insignificant. However, today a woman is no longer the second sex. There are extreme humors that portray how both man and woman are insignificant: a man prefers his dog to his wife, a man prefers a set of golf clubs to his wife, a man gets bored with a woman and wants to shoot her, a woman thinks that all men should be put on the moon, and a woman thinks about changing her man like changing gifts.

Interestingly, when it comes to "ignorance", men are better targets. The degrading adjective "stupid" is assigned to men (18%) a lot more frequently than to women (4%).

(14) What do you call a man with an I.Q. of 50?
Gifted! (Datum 47)

The irony is at work here, which requires a deeper psychological analysis. Men are assumed to be rational, practical, aggressive, while women are assumed to be expressive, nurturing, and emotional (Beynon 2002). Chavetz (1978) also suggests that men are "logical" creatures, while women are "intuitive" creatures. These images again show how superior men are in terms of intelligence and power of reasoning. However, some feminists perceive this stereotype inside out. They say that men are actually more primitive creatures than women because men cannot escape from their primitive impulses, i.e. sex, hunger and pleasure (Wilis, 2008). However, humors making fun of men's stupidity are non-stereotypical. Some decades ago, it was absurd to ridicule men's stupidity, but now it becomes commonplace. It stands to reason to say that traditional stereotypes, just like cultural values in any society, are in flux.

Finally, the negative attribute "ugly" is attached to both men and women. Beauty has been shaped in the society through fairy tales. Good

women are beautiful, and bad women are old or ugly. Similarly, good men are also portrayed as handsome princes, and bad men as ugly ogres. The fairy tales reflect that physical appearance is considered valuable in the society. However, with the insulting adjective "ugly", men (6%) get a bigger share than women (2%), as illustrated by the following example:

(15) Q: Where is the best place in a book store to find a man who is handsome, a good lover and a stimulating partner?
A: In the pages of a romance novel. (Datum 46)

The punchline in humor (15) "*In the pages of a romance novel*" tells the reader that a handsome, romantic, and stimulating man does not exist in reality; he exists only in fiction. In the real world there are only men presenting themselves as ugly and unexciting bores.

In sum, gender humors are funny through negative stereotyping. Traditionally, only women were taken as the targets, for the female gender was perceived as weak, dependent, and bothersome. However, as the feminist movement in the western world has succeeded in gaining momentum, social changes have occurred accordingly. Both sexes are now perceived more or less equally, either in a positive or negative way. In effect, both men and women are taken to be victims of gender humors. Both sexes can be of little value, and men can be more ignorant and ugly than women.

CONCLUSION

Gender humors have a unique way of triggering laughter, not only by twisting the logical structure of the humorous text but also by depreciating either the male or female party. The overarching stereotypes in the surface of the humors have also been explored in this research. The literature mentions that some decades ago, the common standard of the humors laughed at women's stereotyped deficiencies. However, owing to women movements in English-speaking countries, and in the western world in general, the roles and representations of women in the society keep changing; this phenomenon affects the shift in the common standard of the humors. From the findings and discussions in the previous section, gender humors poke fun at men's deficiencies too.

As for the logical mechanism of the humors, it is much like the syntactic structure of a sentence. In generative grammar (Chomsky, 1957,

1965), it is formally represented by the re-write rule [S → NP VP], which reads "every sentence (in English) consists of an NP subject and a VP predicate". Likewise, several incongruities of the humors, which the reader has passed through, are represented by formal notations following the model in Attardo's (2001) GTVH theory. This mathematical rigor is a serious attempt to explicate the incongruities characterizing gender humors. Thus, as seen from the perspective of discourse analysis (see Thornbury, 2005), gender humors are texts which are coherent in an eccentric way.

Going down to the deeper level, there are two main ships in the discussion of the philosophy of humor analyzed in this study. The crew members of the first ship are big thinkers, like Hobbes, Gruner, and Jakobson (Monro, 1988), who propose that superiority is an inseparable element of humor. Furthermore, they suggest that people are laughing because of the superior feeling towards the inferiority of others. However, on the other side of the sea of humor is the ship with great philosophers like Kant and Schopenhauer, (Monro, 1988), who consider incongruity and humor are like soul and matter. Nevertheless, after dissecting all the selected gender humors, the researchers come in the middle of those two ships. We come with a perspective that incongruity and superiority elements actually work together as the ingredients constituting gender humors.

On the basis of the research findings, the researchers suggest that the readers attempt to avoid sexist matters in humors and be more critical in using humors when communicating with others to avoid harm. For future researchers, a close look at gender humors in different languages, e.g. Indonesian, Javanese, Sundanese, and other local languages, can be a challenging research project because, however slight, the way other cultures see gender is different from the way English-based speaking countries see it. Besides, limited to uncovering major elements of gender humors and gender stereotypes, this study has not gone further to find out the effect of gender humors on the society. Further investigation on this matter will probably lead to a novel contribution to the literature of gender and humor.

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Notes:

The researchers are aware of the fact that not all readers are familiar with mathematical notations representing the logical structures of several gender humors. Therefore, all the mathematical notations in the third section of the article, "Findings and Discussion", are cited here in their order of presentation, provided with their verbal reading.

[1]X = Ml, X = M2 Ml ^ M2

X is M1. X is M2. M1 is not synonymous with M2

[2]X = M2-»X^M1

X is M2. X is not M1 in the punch line.

[3]X = M1, X = M2 M1^M2

X is M1, X is M2. M1 is not synonymous with M2.

[4]X = M2 -» X ^ Ml

X is M2. X is not M1 in the punch line.

[5]T1^T2 Tl = X, T2 = ~X T1=Y T2 = Y

T1 is not T2. T1 has X. T2 does not have X. T1 has Y. T2 has Y.

[6]Tl = Y = T2

T1 and T2 have Y. T1 equals T2.

[7]X = M2 -» X ^ Ml

X is M2. X is not M1 in the punch line.

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ALTERNATIVE ASSESSMENTS FOR READING IN SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS: A GUIDE FOR CLASSROOM PRACTICES

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ALTERNATIVE ASSESSMENTS FOR READING IN SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS: A GUIDE FOR CLASSROOM PRACTICES

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Abstract: One significant difference characterizing the 2013 Curriculum from the former ones is the use of alternative assessment to measure the students' expected learning outcomes. The old-fashioned modes of assessments, such as multiple choice exams, or completion exams are regarded insufficient to capture the language skills of the students. Students' demonstration of the mastery of various domains of learning objectives has not necessarily equated with a demonstration of their capacities in real-world settings. Ideally, what is tested should mirror what really is required outside the classroom. So far, reading mastery is always tested through traditional mode of assessment like multiple choice (MC). The new curriculum recommends a different perspective of assessment which is called alternative assessment. However, the shift from the traditional assessments to alternative assessments seems to aquire some constraints on the parts of the teachers. Many teachers are not familiar with the new concepts and practices within the emerging paradigm. It is due to the absence of a clear guideline for doing such assessments. The goal of this paper is to propose a theoretically grounded method to conduct alternative assessments which are developed from a pair of competence standards listed in the English syllabus for Senior High Schools.

Key words: alternative assessment, reading, English learning

Abstrak: *Salah satu yang membedakan kurikulum 2013 dengan kurikulum sebelumnya adalah adanya penggunaan penilaian*

otentik untuk mengukur hasil belajar siswa. Jenis penilaian lama seperti tes pilihan ganda, atau tes melengkapi dianggap kurang mampu menunjukan kemampuan berbahasa siswa yang sesungguhnya. Kemampuan siswa dalam menunjukan kemmapuan belajar berbahasanya tidak sama dengan apa yang terjadi dalam dunia nyata. Idealnya, apa yang diuji harus mencerminkan apa yang sebenarnya diperlukan di luar kelas. Sejauh ini, kemampuan membaca selalu diuji melalui jenis penilaian lama/tradisional seperti pilihan ganda (MC). Sekarang ini kurikulum baru merekomendasikan perspektif yang berbeda dari penilaian yang disebut penilaian alternatif. Namun, pergeseran dari penilaian tradisional untuk penilaian otentik/alternatif tampaknya memunculkan beberapa kendala pada bagian-bagian dari guru. Banyak guru yang tidak cukup paham dengan konsep dan praktek nyata dari penilaian otentik/alternatif. Hal ini terjadi karena tidak adanya pedoman yang jelas untuk melakukan penilaian tersebut. Tujuan dari makalah ini adalah untuk mengusulkan landasan teoritis terkait dengan penilaian alternatif yang didasarkan pada standar kompetensi yang tercantum dalam silabus Bahasa Inggris untuk Sekolah Menengah Atas.

Kata kunci: *penilaian alternatif, membaca, pembelajaran bahasa Inggris*

INTRODUCTION

The Indonesian government has released a new curriculum, the 2013 Curriculum, which is directed to achieve more holistic learning outcomes in that of knowledge, skills and attitude toward the value of the education process in schooling. The previous curriculum was reported to have focused only on the knowledge attainment. The current global challenge, facing the Asean Economic Community, for example, requires competencies which comprise a balance between soft and hard skills, covering knowledge, skills and attitudes. Life-long skills of creative thinking, problem solving, summarizing, synthesizing, and reflecting are needed in order to compete among other nations in the near future. This becomes a strong reason for the government introduces the new curriculum, despite the fact that teachers are still confused in the implementation (Helena, 2014).

The new curriculum is characterized by its holistic perspective on learners, i.e. each individual learner as a whole person, by providing assistance to every individual to develop his/her knowledge, skills and attitudes (Hamid, 2014). The curriculum shift has indeed brought about some changes, ranging from the competences, learning materials, teaching approach and methods, and assessments. In regard to the assessments, there is a shift from traditional testing techniques to alternative assessments. Traditional tests, such as multiple-choice, fill-in-the-gaps, matching, etc., can not capture complex learning outcomes. The need to utilize assessment instruments beyond paper-and-pen tests is also supported by Genesee and Hamayan (1994) who state:

> ...tests can be useful for collecting information about student achievement under certain restricted conditions, but they are not particularly useful for collecting information about students' attitudes, motivation, interests, and learning strategies (p.229)

At the newly released 2013 Curriculum, there exists the term of alternative assessments which has quickly becomes more popular among educators. At the moment, the term has long been coined in education research and development (see Hancock, 1990, Herman, J.L and Arschbacter and Winters, 1992). Though there is no single definition on what alternative assessment really is, there are some other names which usually refer the same type such as alternative assessment, continuous assments, direct assessment, and dynamic assessmentss (Tsagari, 2004). However, it is simply agreed that alternative assessment is another form of assessments, meaning that it becomes alternative to the existing assessments (traditional assessments) that offer different strategies. This paper is intended to give teachers clear examples of doing alternative assessments in English class, particulalrly when reading becomes the highlight prioirity of teaching English as a foreign language like in Indonesia. English teachers in some schools that implement the 2013 curriculum find difficulties in doing the alternative assessment due to the absence of simple guidelines for carrying out the alternative assessments in the classroom.

OVERVIEW OF ALTERNATIVE ASSESSMENT

As mentioned ealier, the shift from traditional assessments to alternative assessments is due to the difference of competencies of the present curriculum and that of the previous one. The traditional tests can no

longer be appropriate to clarify all the skills required by the new curriculum. Barootchi&Keshvarz in Tsagari (2004) acknowledge the need for alternative assessment because the rich, descriptive information about learning result and, more importantly, about the learning process of learning and the ongoing measurement of student growth needed for formative evaluation and for planning instructional strategies cannot be gathered byconventional testing methods. This is not to say that conventional tests are to be grounded. Conventional tests which are product-oriented are not to be excluded from the classroom because they are still needed as useful tools to measure the knowledge of attainment. However, they are to be supplemented by some other types of assessments which are called alternative assessments.

Alternative assessment is a blanket term that covers any number of alternatives to standardized tests. While the traditional paper-and-pencil tests may be effective to assess some of the skills (such as listening and reading), they are not sufficient to assess the productive skills of speaking and writing. The nature of proficiency-oriented language learning calls for a variety of assessment options reflecting the numerous instructional strategies used in the classroom.

There are some definitions of alternative assessments. Among others is from Hamayan (1995) who sees alternative assessment as "procedures and techniques which can be used within the context of instruction and can be easily incorporated into the daily activities of the school or classroom" (p. 213). According to him alternative assessment is a part of the regular instruction the teacher can do in the sense that it does not require specific settings in the classroom.

Another definition of alternative assessment comes from Alderson and Banerjee (2001) who state the following:

> Alternative assessment' is usually taken to mean assessment procedures which are less formal than traditional testing, which are gathered over a period of time rather than being taken at one point in time, which are usually formative rather than summative in function, are often low-stakes in terms of consequences, and are claimed to have beneficial washback effects (p. 228).

Based on the above citation, alternative assessment is a non standardized type of assessments which is focused on the process rather than product of learning. With alternative assessment, products and processes are equally valued. This is in line with the latest curriculum which suggests that

assessment be given at the whole process of learning, not only at the end of the term. It is used to monitor the students' progress rather than students' achievement. Borrowing Marshall's terminology (2007), alternative assessment is assessment for learning while conventional assessment is assessment of learning.

A similar opinion is given by Hancock (1994) who says that alternative assessment is an ongoing process involving the student and teacher in making judgments about the student's progress in language using non-conventional strategies. Meanwhile, Kohonen (1997) makes the point that alternative assessment,

> ....emphasises the communicative meaningfulness of evaluation and the commitment to measure that which we value in education. It uses such forms of assessment that reflect student learning, achievement, motivation and attitudes on instructionally-relevant classroom activities... Its results can be used to improve instruction, based on the knowledge of learner progress (p. 13).

A more detailed elaboration of alternative assessment is given by Aschbacher (1991) who enumerates some common characteristics of alternative assessments. He points out that alternative assessments:

1. require problem solving and higher level thinking;
2. involve tasks that are worthwhile as instructional activities;
3. focus on processes as well as products;
4. encourage public disclosure of standards and criteria; and
5. use real-world contexts or simulations.

A somewhat different set of characteristics were further proposed by Herman, Aschbacher, & Winters (1992, p.6), who state that alternative assessments:

1. require students to perform, create, produce, or do something;
2. tap into higher level thinking and problem-solving skills;
3. approximate real-world applications;
4. use tasks that represent meaningful instructional activities;
5. ensure that people, not machines, do the scoring, using human judgment; and call upon teachers to perform new instructional and assessment roles.

Considering all the benefits of alternative assessment, it is on the right track when the 2013 curriculum recommendeds the use of alternative assessments rather than the traditional ones. The problem might be that conducting alternative assessment needs extra time from the teacher as has been admitted by Seaman (2005) that alternative assessment is time-consuming in foreign language program. Further, he reminds teachers not to adopt too many forms of alternative assessments at once. Teachers can find the best mix for each particular situation.

ASSESSMENTS ON READING

Reading skill is one of the four skills that should be mastered by the students. Among the other skills, in Indonesian context, reading has been emphasized to be acquired by the learners for at least two resons. First, reading skill is regarded important since it level of literacy usually measured. In some international assessments like PISA, TIMMS and PIRLLS reading becomes the dominant part of the tests. Even, people's literacy level is commonly indicated by their reading ability. Secondly, within only three to four periods a week in Senior High School for example, it is not sufficient to attain all the language skills in the classroom. The logical choice is to highlight one or two skills to be focused in learning, and reading becomes the most visible one with the assumption that senior high school graduates will be studying higher education where English is a prerequisite to read textbooks in universities are commonly written in English.

Unluckily, traditional assessments like multiple choice and short answer are mostly used as modes of assessment in reading. These assessments are unable to serve to provide adequate assessment of the students' reading skill. In multiple choice, for example, students cannot demonstrate what they have understood what they have read because they are to pick from one of four or five choices. What language skill do students perform when they are required torecoqnize a correct answer?

Multiple choice tests can not capture what the students are able to do in terms of language use. Basically, there are some samples of competencies the students can perform dealing with reading skills. These competencies should be measured with alternative assessments in regards to reading. Some alternative assessments existing in reading are writing sample, retelling, reader's response journals, dialog journal, graphic organizer, content area log,

and many others. The rest of this guideline will cover the example or the prototype of using alternative assessment in reading activities.

Any assessment must refer to the required competences listed in the syllabus. In the present curriculum of SMA, the required competences of the learning outcomes are formulated in terms of *Kompetensi Inti* (core competence) and *Kompetensi Dasar* (basic competence). However, there is no clear-cut distinction of the language skills in the syllabus. The students learning outcomes are subdivided into four domains: spiritual attitudes, social attitudes, knowledge and skills. In English curriculums for Senior High Schools, such a division has caused confusion among teachers and practitioners in that the formulation of competencies does not correspond to the existing framework (Helena, 2014).

In the syllabus, reading and listening are categorized into "knowledge competence" while speaking and writing are "skills competence". This, of course, contradicts the terms of "language competence" and "language skills" in English Language Learning literature. However, in this paper we will not problematize the different angle of seeing the competence-skills relation because the curriculum has been stipulated by the government. What we can do is just to evaluate reading, either as knowledge or as a skill by using assessment types other than standardized tests.

FORMS OF ASSESSMENTS

The first step to take when constructing a test, according to Brown (2004), is taking a careful look at everything that we think our students should "know" or be able to "do". In other words, we have to look at the objectives of tests. This can be done by analysing the standard competences listed in the curriculum. Based on the the present curriculum, the objectives of the test must correspond to the formulation of the basic competences.

For our purpose of providing an example of doing alternative assessment, we will use a pair of the basic competences in English Class for Grade 10 of Senior High School. The "pairness" here refers to the the knowledge-skills relation where competence coded 3 is knowledge and that coded 4 refers to skills.

The basic competence below is taken from English syllabus Grade 10 for senior high schools from which the three proposed forms of alternative assessment will be made.

Table 1:
Formulation of Basic Competence

3.10 Analyzing the social function, text structure, and language features of simple narrative text of legends, according to the contexts of usage. (Knowledge)
4.10 Responding to simple spoken and written narrative texts in the form of simple legends. (Skills)

(English Syllbus for Grade 10)

Based on basic competences above, it can be seen that there are two learning outcomes the students have to achieve which consist of knowledge and skill. However, for teachers, it is not easy to interpret the meaning of the phrase "responding to spoken and written narrative texts". Most teachers are still confused when faced with how to respond this context, belongs to a skill. The problem arises on how to measure "responding" since there is little explanation on the types of assessment in the syllabus. To meet that purpose, the authors of these guidelines offer three assessment methods which are supposed to match the needs for measuring the required competences exemplified above.

The followings are three of seven alternative assessments to teach reading (including the steps to apply and the scoring rubric):

A. Writing Sample

There is a close relation between reading and writing. Calfee and Miller (2005) even claim if writing assessments can measure two distinct, highly related, abilities: (1) reading comprehension and (2) transforming comprehension into composition. The first ability is commonly measured with conventional tests such as multiple choice and short answer types. The second ability requires productive use of language, and it seems to be best measured with alternative assessments.

In this example, reading skill is measured through writing tasks. Writing sample is an example of assessment which emphasizes reading skill. In this test, students focus on rearranging the text they have read. Then the students can use their own creativity to paraphrase the given text. The result of applying this assessment will be successful if the students have a new text which is different from each other. In this case, there is no copying from

others'. This form of assessment is best applied for narrative texts. Here are the steps in applying writing sample assessment (*For Narrative text):*

1. Students read a narrative text comprehensively.
2. Students outline the text with the following format:

Outline of ... (the title of the story)

a. Orientation

In what paragraph...

Time

Place

Characters

b. Evaluation

In what paragraph... (then, tell the evaluation in a complete sentence)

c. Complication

In what paragraph... (then, tell the complication in a complete sentence)

d. Resolution

In what paragraph... (then, tell the resolution in a complete sentence—more than one sentence is possible)

e. Re-orientation

If there is any, in what paragraph... (then, tell the re-orientation in a complete sentence)

3. Students summarize the text by using their own words.

   The students are required to make a summary of the story by using their own words. In order to score the students writing, a clear and operational rubric is needed.

   The following is an example of writing sample rubric the teacher can use.

Tabel 2:
Scoring Rubric for Writing Sampel

4 (Excellent)	3 (Good)	2 (Average)	1 (Needs Improving)
The written response is complete. It indicates a very good understanding of the story and its problem, and provides accurate, relevant details, information, and supportive reasoning.	The response is partial and indicates a fairly good understanding of the story. Although the information selected includes mostly accurate details and ideas, some may be irrelevant or unrelated to the story's problem.	The response is fragmentary and indicates only minimal understanding of the story's problem. It includes mainly random details and irrelevant information.	There is little or no response. Inaccurate and irrelevant details and ideas indicate a serious misunderstandin g of the story.

B. Retelling

Retelling is responding to text that is based on post-reading or post-listening in which the reader recalls a story in order to understand it more fully. Retelling is the ability to read or listen to a story, then summarize it in paraphrased forms. Unlike answering specific questions after reading, retelling requires reprocessing large segments of text, thinking about the sequence of ideas/events and their importance. Thus, retelling is a powerful technique for checking the students' understanding and is a proper strategy to teach reading comprehension. In retelling, students build on their knowledge of retelling to recall information. Learning to retell a story thoughtfully is critical to learning to write a story and to build comprehension. The retelling strategy can come in the form of oral presentation or a written form. The main construct of retelling is:

1. To repeat what has been comprehended
2. To reconstruct or paraphrase a story
3. To organize (sequence of ideas/events) text information in order to provide a personal interpretation of it.

The followings are some advantages of implementing retelling for both teacher and students:

For students:

1. Encourages readers to focus on the meaning of the text
2. Reinforces elements of the story like characters, story structure, setting, and plot.
3. Enhances communication and oral language development.
4. Help students to focus on their understanding of what they read, see, or hear and challenge then to communicate what they have learned to others.
5. Provides an opportunity to share what has been read.
6. Provides practice in reviewing the story or body of information and retelling it in a sequence

For teachers:

1. Demonstrates what the student understands and remembers about the story.
2. Indicates what the student knows about the story's structure and literal language.
3. Portrays the student's vocabulary and oral or written language development.
4. Determines the degree of understanding a student had of a text.

This assessment is best applied for narrative texts. The followings are some steps of implementing retelling technique :

1. Students read a selected narrative text in a given time.
   The better way to have students read is by providing various texts or stories at one occasion. This will make the class not monotonous because students read different stories. In addition, this will avoid students cheating from the others.
2. Students retell the text.

Retelling the story can be done in spoken or written form. However, to avoid repeating activitity as what happens in writing sample, the retelling is done in spoken form.

The following are the points to consider when retelling is done in spoken mode.

1. The students use their own words
2. They order the events sequentially from beginning to the end
3. They write setting details in the retell (when setting is clear in the story)
4. The students can name the characters' characterization
5. They can name character feelings in every event taking place in the story (for instance: how the characters feel while facing and resolving the problem in the story)
6. They name why the characters do the things they do in the story.

To evaluate the students' retelling the following rubric can be applied:

Tabel 3:
Scoring rubric for retelling technique

4	3	2	1
names big events or orders the retell by meaning or summarizes the gist of the story	names big events or orders the retell by meaning or summarizes the gist of the story	has a few of the big events, but only a partial recounting of them or may retell only the beginning or ending of the story.	clear misunderstanding of text or retells only an isolated portion of the text (talks only one or two sentences from the story. or makes up a story or repeat what the teacher said in the text introduction
names character feelings names why the characters do the thing they do in the story	names character feelings names why the characters do the thing they do in the story	does not talk about character feelings	
Uses setting details in the retell (when setting is clear in the story)			

C. Reader's Response Journal

A readers' response journal, also well-known as a reading response journal, according to Fountas & Pinnell (2001), is a place that students can write about their reading. The journal allows students to record their thoughts so that they can review and reflect on them. Another definition describes it as a journal where students respond to any reading by writing summaries of what they have read or personal reactions to what they have read (Manning, 1999). This implies that reading response journals are considered proper for teaching both reading and writing. Manning (1999) goes on to explain that the purpose for such a journal offers the teacher a way to see the amount of meaning of a text that the reader has constructed. It has also been stated that the purpose for a reader's journal is to write about, and respond to, reading the information given (Rief, 2003). This assessment is best applied for narrative texts and analytical exposition texts. Below are the steps for implementing reader's response journals:

1. First, a few days or a week prior to the classroom meeting, students are assigned to read some suggested stories or books. It will be better if the teacher provides a list of titles to be read within the whole semester or term. Various titles and language levels will be most needed since students have different interest as well as language competence. Graded assessments are better applied at this activity.

2. While reading, the students are asked to answer the following guiding questions:

Table 4:
Suggested Guiding Questions

For narrative text	For analytical exposition texts
1. How did the reading make you feel? Why? 2. Do you like the story? Give your reasons! 3. Which part of the story do you like? Write it down! 4. Write about something that surprised you or that you found interesting!	1. How did the reading make you feel? Why? 2. Where is the writer's position? Does the writer agree with the topic? 3. Where is your position? Do you agree with the topic exposed by the writer? Or do you disagree? 4. What arguments are exposed by

5. Describe the setting – when and where the story takes place. 6. Who is your favorite character? Give an example from the story to tell why. 7. If you were a character in this book, who would you be? Why? 8. Describe the similarities and differences between the main character and you! 9. Describe the major conflict. What side are you on? 10. Would you recommend the text to another reader? 11. Write about an important lesson that can be learned in the story. 12. List some new words you found in the text. 13. List three questions you have about what you read. 14. What are some things you don't understand in what you're reading? 15. If you could change what you're reading, how would you change it? 16. Pretend you get to create the music soundtrack for what you've been reading. What five songs would you include? Write an explanation for each song: why would you include it, how does the song connect to events.	the writer? 5. Write about something that surprised you or that you found interesting! 6. Would you recommend the text to another reader? 7. What are some things you don't understand in what you're reading? 8. List some new words you found in the text. 9. List three questions you have about what you read.

3. The works are submitted to the teacher.

4. After being evaluated by the teacher, the works are then given back to the students. The teacher points out 10 works to be exposed in the wall magazine (each class is supposed to have their own wall magazine), while the other students should save their works. This is

done for several times so that each student has their own journal containing their own works. To evaluate the students' journal, the rubric below can be used.

Table 5:
Quality of Writing Rubric

	Outstanding 4	Proficient 3	Progressing 2	Emerging 1
Quality of writing	-You always attempt deeper thinking in your responses -You make connectiond, ask questions, make inferences, synthesize about the text -you do not simply summarize the story -you provide good examples to explain your thinking.	-You usually attempt deeper thinking in your responses -You make connections, ask questions, draw conclusions, make inferences about the text in some of your entries. -You do some summarizing -You provide some examples to explain your thinking	-Sometimes you attempt deeper thiking in your responses -You summarize the story -You write simple ideas that show only surface understanding of the story	-Your notebook has minimal responses and those present show only basic understanding of the story -You do not sustain books or reading long enough to show comprehension strategies.
Quality of entries	-You always write in your notebook everyday that is assigned. -You log your reading everyday.	-You usually write your notebook on assigned days. -You usually log your reading daily	-You often write in your notebook at school -Your log only some of your reading	-You seldom write in your notebook. -You log little or no reading in your log

Neatness of entries	-Your noteboook looks like you trully treasure yoour ideas and thought about reading. -Others can easily read your entries	-Your notebook and entries are usually neat, clean and carefully written -Others can usually read your entries	-Some of the entries in your notebook are neat and carefully written It's dificult for others to read your entries	-You paid little attention to details or neatness -It is very difficult or impossible to read your entries
Book choice	-You write the book titles on your entries	-You mostly write the book titles on your entries -You mostly choose to read JRB	-You sometimes write the book titles on your entries You have been reading similar books -You don't always choose to read JRB	-You read the same of the book -You choose books that are not just right for you
Reading focus	You read 100% of the time	You read 90-99% of the time	-You read 80-89% of the time	-You read less than 80% of the time

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CONCLUSION

Assessment is an essential part of the learning process that calls for serious attention from the teachers and practitioners. Whatever good the curriculum had been designed with in mind, it will be nothing when there is no valid and reliable assessments as tools for evidence measure of success of curriculum implementation.

The alternative assessments as proposed in this paper, is seen to embody a different concept of assessment which theoretically beneficial to be applied in the reading class. However, further empirical work needs to be done to examine alternative assessment practices in the real situations. For example, we need to compare the similar learning outcomes measured with two different testing types, alternative assessment and standardised testing. We need to to know how the aspects of alternative assessment are actually accomplished in the classroom, how the students perception on the use of

alternative assessment, and how these kinds of assessment improve the learning achievement.

The call for increased use of alternative assessments means that language teachers will have a wider range of evidence to judge whether students are becoming competent, purposeful language users. It also means that language programs will become more responsive to the differing learning styles of students and value diversity there in. Finally, language programs that focus on alternative assessment are likely to instill in students' lifelong skills related to critical thinking that build a basis for future learning, and enable them to evaluate what they learn both in and outside of the language class.

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LOOKING INTO EFL STUDENTS' TYPE OF FEEDBACKS ON PEER CORRECTION ACTIVITIES

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Abstract: This research studies the types of feedbacks made by English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students in a writing class. The aim of this research is to understand the needs of the students on peer correction activities in teaching writing. A number of 25 student essays were collected and analysed. The data were categorized into two types of feedbacks: responding and correcting. The results revealed that a number of 61 responding feedbacks were found in the types of *support*, *sharing knowledge*, *negotiation*, *appreciation* and *criticism*. Meanwhile, 142 correcting feedbacks were found in the types of *coded*, *uncoded*, *a combination of coded and uncoded* and *direct answer*. The type most used in responding feedback was *support*, which indicates that it is an important pursuit in these students' learning to drive each other into improving their writing skills with confidence. Whilst the least used was *criticism*, and this indicates that it was not considerably favoured to be given in the peer correction feedbacks since they restrain encouragement and cause social anxiety. The type most used in correcting feedbacks was *a combination of coded and uncoded*. This signifies that to provide both mark and symbol on an error can avoid confusion between the student corrector and the student writer. The least used was *direct answer*, which signified that it was only done by students who had high English proficiency and confidence to provide the correct answer directly on the errors. These findings suggest that students need and prefer to be given much support by their teachers in providing feedbacks towards their writing errors to reinforce their writing proficiency and confidence.

Key words: EFL Students, Feedbacks, Writing

Abstrak: *Penelitian ini adalah tentang jenis feedback (umpan balik) yang dilakukan oleh siswa Bahasa Inggris pada kelas Writing. Penelitian ini bertujuan untuk mengetahui kebutuhan siswa terhadap aktifitas koreksi antar siswa. Sejumlah 25 essai siswa diperiksa dan di analisa. Data yang di dapat di kelompokan menjadi dua kategori feedback yaitu: responding (tanggapan) and correcting (perbaikan). Hasil penelitian menunjukkan bahwa ada 61 feedback yang diberikan siswa termasuk kedalam kategori responding feedback. Rincian feedback ini terdiri dari support (dukungan), sharing knowledge (membagi pengetahuan), negotiation (negosiasi makna), appreciation (penghargaan), dan critism (kritik). Sedangkan untuk kategori correcting feedback, ada 142 feedback yang diidentifikasi. Feedback untuk jenis ini adalah coded (ditandai/diberi kode), uncoded (tidak ditandai/diberi kode), gabungan antara coded dan uncoded, dan direct answer (jawaban langsung). Dalam responding feedback, tipe umpan balik yang paling banyak digunakan siswa adalah support. Hal ini menunjukkan bahwa sangat penting memberikan dukungan terhadap siswa di kelas untuk meningkatkan kemampuan menulis mereka. Sedangkan tipe yang paling sedikit digunakan adalah critism. Hal ini menandakan bahwa kritik sangat tidak diharapkan karena kritik bisa menurunkan semangat belajar mereka. Sedangkan dalam correcting feedback, tipe yang paling banyak digunakan adalah gabungan coded dan uncoded. Hasil temuan ini menekankan bahwa koreksi dengan simbol dan tanda bisa menghindari siswa dari kebingungan antara apa yang dikoreksi oleh siswa lain terhadap tulisannya dan apa dia telah tulis. Sedangkan tipe yang paling sedikit digunakan dalam correcting feedback adalah direct answer atau jawaban langsung. Hal ini menunjukkan bahwa hanya siswa dengan kemampuan Bahasa Inggris yang bagus yang mampu melakukan koreksi jenis ini. Akhirnya, hasil penelitian ini menyarankan bahwa siswa perlu dukungan dan bantuan dari siswa lain dan juga guru untuk meningkatkan kemampuannya dalam menulis.*

Kata kunci: *siswa bahasa Inggris, umpan balik, menulis*

INTRODUCTION

Every student studying a language as their major for a degree in the university has the responsibility to master writing skills. In this case, they

have to know how to draft and revise, write structurally, and understand all the components of writing to later implement them in their future career which may require these skills. Teachers, too, seek and implement various methods and techniques to assist their students in improving their writing skills. Among the techniques used by lecturers to enhance these skills is the peer correction technique.

Peer correction is a technique where students read each other's draft composition and provide feedbacks to the writer before the final version is compiled (Bartels, 2003). The feedbacks are to get the students to be aware of their mistakes in their writing compositions. Chen (2009) says that feedbacks from peer is an essential part in writing because it trains students to focus on different stages of writing, raise their awareness of their ability to think about what they are doing, and identify their action to improve their writing. Accordingly, feedbacks are an important aspect in the peer correction process because it is the key to improving the students' consciousness in reducing error in writing.

Hattie and Timperley (2007) further assert that feedback is information provided by an agent (teacher, peer, book, parent and self-experience) regarding aspects of one's performance or understanding. In this case, feedback is organized into several types such as praise, criticism, and suggestion (Hyland & Hyland, 2001), sharing knowledge, negotiation, support, consultation and appreciation (Silviyanti & Yusuf, 2014), and those in the context of directive, expressive, referential, metalinguistic, poetic, and phatic (Ädel, 2006). The feedbacks provide different kinds of responds that can be used to encourage students in writing class.

A study by Lee (2009) investigates the written feedback produced by EFL students in an academic writing program in Japan. Their comments were categorized into Hyland and Hyland's classification system (2001) of praise, criticism or suggestion. The findings showed that the students employed the highest percentage of suggestion, followed by criticism and lastly praise. The study concludes that praise was least used because the students were not confident on praising their peers "due to lack of experience and knowledge with peer review" (p. 137). This is different from Hyland and Hyland's study (2001) that had teacher participants as those providing written feedback to their students. Teachers' feedbacks contained more praise, followed by criticism, then suggestion. Thus, these praises were habitually used to construct their criticisms and suggestions in more pleasant

approaches. As for Iranian EFL learners, they preferred teachers' feedbacks to be given to them indirectly (Maghsoudi & Saeedi, 2013).

Harmer (2007) further points out two ways of giving feedbacks in writing class, namely responding and correcting. In responding, the feedbacks are given by providing comments. Meanwhile in correcting, it dispenses the correction by marking the error part in the writing without any responds.

The studies above reveal that feedbacks are generally given and presented in different ways. Therefore, we were further interested in understanding the implication of peer correction technique towards our EFL students. One of our colleagues has applied this technique in her writing class and found that despite students were found to often make similar errors in their writing, thus, after they were trained to give feedbacks to their peers' work, their awareness level was better compared to when they received feedbacks merely from their lecturer. It was also interesting to observe that their confidence increased after this activity was carried out. This was seen by their eagerness in composing their writing during class with more varied topics to be written and submitted to the lecturer. Referring to this circumstance, we were keen to seek the answer to the following research question:

> What are the type of feedbacks in responding and correcting made by EFL students in conducting peer correction activity?

We hope the findings of this research can be beneficial to teachers in understanding the needs of the students on peer correction activities in teaching writing, especially EFL learners.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The teaching learning process nowadays requires students to become the main character of learning activities to distinguish it with the way of teacher-centred approach and makes student-centred approach more preferred. Therefore, student-centred and self-determining concepts in the modern and democratic pedagogy bring about peer correction as a technique which gives them freedom and autonomy in studying (Lin & Chien, 2009). This activity also brings the students to gain possibilities to read different

formats of thinking and arguing to activate their self-evaluation through reading their peers' articles.

Applying peer correction and giving feedbacks enable the students to experience their weakness and similar problems in their own writing (Wang, 2009). Andreani (2009, p. 42) further notes the advantage of peer feedbacks is that it helps raise learners' awareness in "becoming independent self-editors". It makes the students feel less intimidated by correcting each other's work (Silviyanti & Yusuf, 2014). In the learning and teaching process, feedback from peer also motivates the learners to write for an audience, train them to assess their own writing and creates it with better quality and higher accuracy (Polio, 2001). It also provides the sense of confidence for the learners by the high level potential of responds and interactions among classmates by way of a collaborative and friendly dialogue in which set the two-way feedbacks up and negotiate the thinking between two-sides (Rollinson, 2005).

A. Feedbacks on Peer Correction

Harmer (2007) says that feedbacks mostly occur when the students explore the writing process on the stage of editing. He also clarifies two ways of giving feedbacks, namely responding and correcting.

1. Responding

In order to give the feedbacks, students are required to offer a response to each other's works by stating comments. They are demanded to write their ideas to respond the mistakes produced by their friends. Victoria (2001, as cited in Harmer, 2007, p. 150), suggested that the teacher needs to provide students with guidelines or a short list of sentences in order to make sure that the comment given is focused, such as "*My immediate reaction to your piece of writing is..., I like the part..., I'm not sure about..., the specific language errors I have notice are...," etc.* Ellis (2009) added this activity as an act of direct feedbacks. He said that by providing the correct form of error correction, it can inform the learners on how to correct their errors with explicit guidance.

The responses from this category of feedback can be divided into several types. As mentioned earlier, Hyland and Hyland (2001) divide direct responses in correction into suggestion, criticism and praise. Another study by Silviyanti and Yusuf (2014) has further extended these responses into *sharing knowledge* and *negotiation* (Brown, 2001), *support* (Williams & Jacobs, 2004), *consultation* (Hedge, 2000) and *appreciation* (Yau et al., 2003). These

responses were all found in their research on collaborative activities which occurred in the implementation of class blog in their writing class. Their students were to provide feedbacks on writing posts by the students' groups in the class blog, and these types of responses were found, respectively, in the comment threads. They have aid each student to become more aware of their limitations in writing and further make progress in future writing tasks.

2. Correcting

In the correcting process, the students are required to correct each other's work by marking the errors in their peers' articles. Ellis (2009) clarifies this activity as an act of indirect feedbacks. He said that the students do not receive any direct response of the correct form. Yet, they only indicate the errors by marks and symbols. In view of that, indirect feedbacks are divided into coded and uncoded (Ferris, 2003). Coded is the feedbacks in which the teacher specifies the errors by providing coding scheme, such as tenses, noun endings, etc. (Hong, 2004), whilst uncoded is the feedback that indicates errors by underlining or circling. Harmer (2007) has further develops some symbols which are commonly used to mark the errors. They are defined as follows:

Table 1:
Correction Symbols (taken from Harmer, 2007, p. 149)

No.	Symbol	Meaning	Example Error
1	S	A spelling error	*The asnwer is obvious*
2	WO	A mistake in word order	*I like very much it*
3	G	A grammar mistake	*I'm going to buy some funitures*
4	T	Wrong verb tense	*I have seen him yesterday*
5	C	Concord mistake (e.g the subject and the verb agreement)	*People is angry*
6	ʌ	Something has been left out	*He told ʌ that he was sorry*
7	WW	Wrong word	*I'm interested on jazz music*
8	{ }	Something is not necessary	*He was not {too} strong enough*
9	?M	The meaning is unclear	*That is a very excited photograph*
10	P	A punctuation mistake	*Do you like london.*
11	F/I	Too formal or informal	*Hi Mr. Franklin thank you for your letter...*

The symbols provided by Harmer (2007) may vary according to the teacher who utilizes them in her writing class. They may be added or modified in which the teacher may introduce other appropriate symbols to be used by the students when they are trained to correct their peers' error in writing.

B. The Advantages of Peer Correction

Peer correction technique has several advantages to increase students writing proficiency. First, it is believed to increase students' communicative competence by encouraging the students to express and negotiate their ideas with other learners (Tsai & Lin, 2012). By exchanging papers, each student has an opportunity to communicate by reviewing their peer's writing. In this stage, the students who are inactive in the class are also encouraged to provide their opinion and evaluation on the text being corrected.

Furthermore, the students who participate in the peer correction activity has been found to experience a more comfortable, confident, and inspiring learning environment (Lin & Chien, 2009). Supported by the first benefit mentioned above, the communication between students in reviewing each other's writing make them more contented rather than being reviewed by the teacher. The interaction between peers brings about the flexibility in the learning process. It drives them to become more confident in giving their ideas about errors in writing. This activity also inspires the learners to learn more and compose a better writing (Rollinson, 2005). By receiving feedbacks from their peers, the students can gather ideas to enrich their knowledge in composing a good writing.

Peer correction can also make the students aware of their own mistakes. Involving them in an activity to correct the error in their peers' essays can assist them in thinking critically. They are able to indicate their own errors; such the correct use the sounds, syntax, and grammar of a written language (linguistic competence). The students can improve their linguistic competence in English writing from peer correction activities (Hong, 2004).

In short, the implementation of peer correction offers benefits to the students. It helps them share knowledge with their friends on the mistakes and errors produced. Furthermore, involving them in this activity can elevate their analytical assessment to affirm their own mistakes and develop their ability to write better.

C. The Disadvantages of Peer Correction

Peer correction technique also bears disadvantages to both teachers and students. Teachers, most of the time, are uncertain on the quality of corrections provided by the students to their peer's writing. This, too, applies to the students. Tsai and Lin (2012) said that low achievement or proficiency of the learners typically correct their friend's work falsely. In this case, when they review their peer's work and take the role of giving comments or corrections, they tend to give unrelated comment and wrong correction. It brings about the discrepancy between the writer and the corrector. It is common that some learners usually depend more on teachers for corrections and feel uneasy conducting peer correction activity (Sultana, 2009). On the other hand, the responding and correcting given by students may also lack of honesty because of fear for affecting their peers' final score (Lin & Chien, 2009).

In order to balance the imperfection of the peer correction activity, Lin and Chien (2009) suggested that teachers should instruct the students to express all their ideas honestly on their peers' writing before peer correction activity starts. Lin and Chien further said that teachers should also assure the students that their final score would not be affected because of the negative comments they may give. Besides, Sultana (2009) also offered that the teacher should train the students to give the correct feedbacks by observing and reviewing the students' work in applying peer correction technique. She also recommends teachers to create a flexible class environment to make the students comfortable in conducting the peer correction activity.

METHOD

This research was conducted at the Study Program of English Education at Syiah Kuala University Banda Aceh. The data was from writing tasks or essays of students who were in the fifth semester and undertaking the course Argumentative Writing. The lecturer of this course had implemented and trained the students with peer correction activity in class. These students were informed on the way peer correction works before the activity started, i.e. what to comments, how to start comments, and the use of the coding scheme prepared by the lecturer (hereafter coded as YND in this paper).

A number of 25 essays (within 360-500 words each) with the topic "Places for Vacation" were collected from YND. Each of these essays were coded as S1 (referring to Student 1) to S25 (referring to Student 25). Prior to this collection, the lecturer had taught the students on the stages of writing process in five meetings. Afterwards, they were each to write an essay based on these subsequent tasks: (1) choosing a topic, (2) composing the first draft, (3) conducting peer correction activity and (4) writing up the final version of their essays. These tasks were done in the next three successive class meetings. The draft of essays we collected and made copies were those from task 3, in which the peer correction activity was performed. Each student was given an essay (a task given in the previous meeting) of their peer to provide both responding and correcting feedbacks during the class time of 90 minutes. They were to remain anonymous to the writers and only known by YND as the teacher noted down this information on paper before passing out the essays for peer correction. Just as the class ended, the corrected essays were submitted back to YND. These essays were returned to the writers to be revised in the next class meeting.

Upon data collection, we further categorized and coded the feedbacks found in the essays into responding and correcting feedbacks. The types of responding feedbacks we looked were extended to those framed by Silviyanti and Yusuf (2014), namely *support*, *sharing knowledge*, *negotiation*, *appreciation* and *consultation*. The codes provided for each type of feedbacks in the analysis were SP for *support*, SK for *sharing knowledge*, N for *negotiation*, A for *appreciation* and CO for *consultation*. The correcting feedbacks we analysed were in the types of *coded* and *uncoded* feedbacks (Ferris, 2003)). The codes provided for each of this type of feedback in the analysis is C for *coded* and U for *uncoded*. These types were chosen because YND used a coding scheme for her students to use which were adapted and modified by that proposed by Harmer (2007). Table 2 shows the coding scheme provided by YND.

Table 2:
Coding Scheme by YND

No.	Symbol	Meaning
1	WW	Wrong Word
2	WO	Word Order
3	UM	Unclear Meaning
4	GE	Grammar Error
5	Sp	Spelling

6	UW	Unnecessary Word
7	R	Repetition
8	US	Unfinish Sentence
9	Cp	Capitalization
10	P	Punctuation

After coding our data for types of feedback in the category of responding and correcting, we calculated the number of occurrences for each type to understand the most and the least used schemes by the students in carrying out the peer correction activity. Subsequently, we discuss the implication of this technique for the students.

RESULT

A. Responding Feedbacks

In the category of responding feedbacks, we found a number of 61 feedbacks in the types of *support, sharing knowledge, negotiation*, and *appreciation*. *Consultation* type was not found in the peer correction on the essays. However, the type of *criticism* feedback (Hyland & Hyland, 2001) was additionally found in the students' feedbacks and this was not found in the responses constructed by Silviyanti and Yusuf (2014) (see Method section). In the data, this type of feedback was coded as CR. Table 3 presents the types of responding feedbacks found in the peer correction activity and its number of occurrences from the collected essays.

Table 3:
Types of Responding Feedbacks

No.	Types of Responding Feedbacks	Frequency	Percentage (rounded)
1.	*Support (SP)*	28	45.9%
2.	*Sharing knowledge (SK)*	12	19.7%
3.	*Negotiation (N)*	9	14.8%
4.	*Appreciation (A)*	7	11.5%
6.	*Criticism (CR)*	5	8.2%
5.	*Consultation (CO)*	0	0
Total Feedbacks		61	100%

Table 3 shows that the most common type of feedback in this category was *support* with 28 occurrences (45.9%), followed by *sharing knowledge* with 12 occurrences (19.7%), *negotiation* with 9 occurrences (14.8%), *appreciation* with 7 occurrences (11.5%) and the least was *criticism* with 5 occurrences (8.2%). The type of *consultation* feedback was not found. Thus, we find this plausible due to the fact that the type of peer correction conducted in this study is different from Silviyanti and Yusuf (2014). In their study, the students could provide feedbacks interchangeably through the comment threads for every essay post in the class blog since blog is an asynchronous online platform. This study, on the other hand, had peer correction activity conducted directly on the essay paper of each student with one corrector for each essay, or in other words, it was done synchronously.

The following sections explain and discuss the five types of responding feedbacks found in this study which will be described from the most occurrences to the least.

1. Support

The most used feedback in the category of responding feedbacks by the students was *support*. A number of 28 occurrences (45.9%) were found in the data. For this type, the students gave comments to their peers' essays with encouragement along with some ideas for improvement. The kind of responses for this type of feedbacks can be seen in the following examples. These examples contain grammatical errors because they are directly taken from the students' writing, and we keep them as they are to show authenticity of the feedbacks.

SP1 "The essay on the whole is interesting. You made some types of mistake. Maybe it is not a big deal mistake but you must careful in writing." (S1)

SP2 "So far your writing is good. Your writing really can make young people want to visit Seoul. But, maybe you must give your attention on your grammar in your essay and I got confused with the refer in your subject…" (S2)

SP3 "This essay is very interesting and informative. I like to read it. It gives me much information about Jogya's art and culture, also Jogya's people respect to their culture history and culture grow. However, you should increase your writing skill in term

of grammar error and punctuation. Overall, it is very good, completely coherence and unity." (S5)

SP4 "I like your sentence. But, you should add topic sentence and clear the supporting ideas." (S8)

SP5 "It's very amazing story. I really interested. However, there are some punctuation error and difficult to understand. You are bad at punctuation, but at least you have tried. So, try again and be good at it ☺" (S13)

From the examples in SP1to SP5, confidence-boosting words directed to the writers of the essays are found. Words and phrases such as *'good', 'really make us want to', 'interesting and informative', 'amazing'* and even providing the symbol of a smiley face (i.e. ☺) are extended by the correctors to uplift the writers before the correctors proceed with their comments for corrections. Despite mistakes were found, the type of *support* feedbacks also reassure the writers to accept their mistakes without feeling dejected. Words such as *'not a big deal', 'at least you have tried'* and *'try again'* are among the supportive words to comfort the writers and further reassure them that their mistakes can be mended in the future. For this type of feedbacks, the students mostly support their friends' work rather than focusing too much on the errors in detail in the essays.

2. Sharing Knowledge

The next type of feedback used by the students is *sharing knowledge* with 12 occurrences (19.7%). In this feedback, the students provided comments by stating their opinion about the text, whether it is good or not, then followed by their reason and opinion. The following examples are some feedbacks which comprise sharing knowledge.

SK1 "The things that I like from this essay is the place is interesting and attract many people to go there, but there are just a little things that you offer to the reader about Seoul. It's only for shopping and extraordinary experience. You must add some place, weather, climate, popular famous singer bands and actors, etc." (S2)

SK2 "I got your point, but in my opinion, I think you should pay attention to your grammar, punctuation, and choose

appropriate words because sometimes it is hard to understand. I have to re-read for more than five times." (S3)

SK3 "This essay has the interesting topic to persuade the reader. However, there are some grammatical error on each point of the paragraphs. Also, there are unnecessary word in that essay. You have to add the words that can add the interesting for the reader." (S3)

SK4 "This essay is nice but need more development. You can add some places in San Francisco that can attract more people to go there like Golden Bridge and many more not just have a tea time and sunbathing that can we find in another place even in our country." (S4)

SK5 "...I think it will be good to add detail about *Super Classico*. If you want to share about why Bueno Aries as Best City for Football Maniac, I suggest you to add why it becomes best city for football maniac, such as (maybe) the stadion, fans united...." (S7)

From the examples in SK1 to SK5, *sharing knowledge* is done by the students by communicating their concern on the content and organization of the texts which were deemed unsatisfactory and further impart their understanding on the topic for further improvement. For instance, S7 in SK5 shared his knowledge on football in which he suggested to the writer to add more reasons on why Buenos Aries is a great city for football enthusiasts. Overall, the students recommended several ideas proceeded with specific reasons for the writers to revise their texts and make them more interesting and easier to read.

3. Negotiation

After *support* and *sharing knowledge*, negotiation had 9 occurrences (14.8%). In this type of responding feedback, the students reviewed their peers' essays by exchanging ideas to be included in the writing. Options to be negotiated were provided in order to suggest ideas or propose the correct form of the errors found in the essays. The examples for the type of negotiation feedback are as bellow.

N1 "Is it 'Boca junior or Boca Junior'?" (S7)

N2 "I think you should change your title and target reader because your title is "Buenos Aries as Best City for Football Maniac", but you often/always mention Boca Junior, Boca Junior and Boca Junior. Maybe, you can change the title and target reader to be more specific for Argentina's fans or Boca Junior's fans…What do you think?" (S7)

N3 "…In my opinion it is better to put the word of "for" than "in". I also recommend you to put an adjective word before "place" because it can persuade readers to go there and readers also know what that place looks like. For example, "must be smart to choose a best place to…" or "must be smart to choose a great place to…" The last is I think you have to pay attention to the spelling. You have a miss type in the third paragraph. It should be "expensive", not "expansive". I suggest you to revise your title become more interesting." (S9)

N4 "…In this text, you just write the point. It is better for you to write the reasons why the place is good, right?" (S20)

N5 "1st paragraph, 1st line: "who have a passion on sea" (wrong word on the 'a' and 'on'). Better to change it with "who have passion for the sea" to make your writing better. (S24)

In this type of *negotiation* feedback, the students mostly negotiated on ideas and the appropriate word choices to be used in the texts. For examples, in NI, S7 confirmed the correct spelling by providing his option in the form of a question (i.e. *'Is it 'Boca junior or Boca Junior''*). In N2, he further dealt with the topic of the writer in which he thought should be changed. He provided several causes for his idea for the writer to consider. Then in N3, S9 negotiated with the writer on the use of some words, such as changing the word *'best'* and *'great'* to make the sentence more convincing. Therefore, in this type, most of the comments were established in questions, suggestions and persuasions to negotiate.

4. Appreciation

The type of *appreciation* feedbacks had the least occurrences in the data, which were 5 (11.5%). They were in the form of comments which appreciated or *praise* (Hyland & Hyland, 2001) the writers on their essays. This finding is in line with Lee (2009), who learned that EFL students used praise as the least employed feedback in peer correction activity. It was

assumed that this was perhaps due to their insufficient practice and knowledge in conducting this activity.

The examples from data are as follows:

A1 "The essay is explained systematically. Started from the name of university in

Melbourne and ended by situation in Melbourne. It is really good organization idea… you are very fantastic!" (S9)

A2 "I like about your amazing story. I really want to visit it…" (S10)

A3 "Interesting article. The way you write introductory paragraph is very good.

It is systematically. You start from general until specific…" (S11)

A4 "Wonderful and beautiful text. Keep Going!!" (S13)

A5 "The text is wonderful, makes the readers interested." (S24)

In the appreciative feedbacks, students provide positive responses to their friends' writing in the form of admiration. These are done by S9 and S10 who used the word *'fantastic'* and *'amazing'* in A1 and A2 to compliment the writer, and S13 who praised with *'wonderful and beautiful'* in A4 to congratulate the writer. They commonly praise the writers on their well thought ideas, organization and informative contents of the essays.

5. Criticism

This type of feedback had the least occurrences in the data, which were 5 (8.2%). The responses in this feedback were given directly to the writers to point out the incorrect expression in the text (Hyland & Hyland, 2001) and without any preceding words of support even in the next following sentences. It is different to the type of *support* feedback described earlier, in which after the students mention the errors, they are followed with words of encouragement, such as in SP5 by S13: *'You are bad at punctuation, but at least you have tried. So, try again and be good at it ☺'*. Criticisms were given quite straight forward. The examples for this type of feedbacks can be seen below.

CR1 "The topic sentence is not clear and not related to the supporting ideas, so many repetitions." (S1)

CR2 "There are more than one main idea in one paragraph." (S1)

CR3 "Paragraph 4 (in my opinion) is not related to the title." (S7)

CR4 "...your title is too general, because in your paragraph you explain about handicraft in Yogyakarta." (S11)

CR5 "Your writing is as descriptive rather than opinion paragraph." (S13)

From the examples in data, we can see that the students directly criticize the errors made by their peers and most of these criticisms were related to the organization and unity of the essay. To voice their criticism, words such as *'not clear'*, *'not related'* and those in the form of comparison (i.e. *'your writing is as descriptive rather than opinion paragraph'* in CR5 by S13) were used to disapprove the writers. No other words of support or encouragement followed the criticism for the writers.

B. Correcting Feedbacks

In the category of correcting feedbacks, a number of 142 feedbacks were found. They were classified into the types of *coded* and *uncoded*. Thus, additional types of *a combination of coded and uncoded* and *direct answer* were further discovered in the data. The type of *direct answer* is the feedbacks of correct answers to errors written directly in the text without putting any marks or symbols. Table 4 present the types of correcting feedbacks found in the peer correction activity and its number of occurrences from the data.

Table 4:
Types of Correcting Feedbacks

No.	Types of Correcting Feedbacks	Frequency	Percentage (rounded)
1.	*A combination of coded and uncoded (CU)*	100	70.4%
2.	*Uncoded (U)*	26	18.3%
3.	*Coded (C)*	9	6.3%
4.	*Direct answer (DA)*	7	4.9%
Total Feedbacks		142	

From Table 4, the most common type of feedback in this category was *a combination of coded and uncoded* with 100 occurrences (70.4%), followed by

uncoded with 26 occurrences (18.3%), *coded* with 9 occurrences (6.3%), and the least was *direct answer* with 7 occurrences (4.9%). The discussion on each of this type of correcting feedbacks is explained below.

1. A Combination of Coded and Uncoded

This type of feedback is the most common type of correcting feedbacks used by the students at 100 occurrences (70.4%). It employs both *coded* and *uncoded* feedbacks to check the errors. Some examples from the type of *a combination of coded and uncoded* feedbacks are as follows. As previously mentioned, these examples contain grammatical errors because they are directly taken from the students' writing and they are kept as they are to illustrate authenticity of the feedbacks.

GE

CU1 "...a traditional ship that make honeymooners feeling incomplete..." (S1)

WW

CU2 "Breathing fresh air and spoiling your eyes with romantic few." (S1)

Sp

CU3 "... a beautiful setting of buiLing architecture." (S1)

WW

CU4 "...different attractions that is very interesting..." (S2)

WW GE

CU5 "... is located in the Aceh, it has many island with natural scenery

UM P

and surving,." (S3)

From the examples, it shows that the students marked the errors by either circling or underlining the error (i.e. uncoded) and further provide a symbol above it to indicate its error (i.e. coded). In the data, the errors the students checked for were on tenses, words choice, punctuation, unnecessary words, unclear meaning, spelling, capitalization, and repetition.

2. Uncoded

The next type of correcting feedback used was *uncoded*, with 26 occurrences (18.3%). In this type, the students marked the errors by circling, underlining or lining the incorrect forms. Some of the examples from data are as below

U1 "...who want to ~~have~~ enjoy..." (S3)

U2 "... provides beautiful scenery you will find a view..." (S3)
U3 "...is good for surfers, simeulue island is paradise." (S3)
U4 "...which contain so many thing related to..." (S8)
U5 "...not only korean, but..." (S10)

From the examples in U1 to U5, we observed that for this type of feedback, the students focused on the errors in grammar, subject verb agreement, punctuation and word choice.

3. Coded

Coded feedback did not occur much in the data. Only 9 occurrences (6.3%) appeared out of 147 correcting feedbacks. In this type, the students were asked to correct their friends' work by marking the errors with several symbols provided by YND (see Table 2). Some examples of the students' work can be seen in the following examples:

GE
C1 "..., there are a lot of Korean cosmetics brand like Etude House..." (S2)
GE
C2 "...because the price is more cheaper than..." (S2)
UM
C3 "...usually offer buy one get one and given a free bonus." (S2)
P P
C4 "the clean sea, and the Busung beach there are some..." (S3)
GE
C5 "There are many interesting place inside that building." (S14)

Similar to the type of *uncoded* feedback, most feedbacks for this type were to indicate errors in the areas of grammar, subject verb agreement, punctuation and word choice.

4. Direct Answer

We further found another type of feedback in the category of responding feedbacks that was not initially in the framework of this study, *direct answer*. In this type, the students provided the correct form of the errors directly in the essays. The examples from data were only from two students, and are as below.

DA1 "Istanbul ~~the~~ is exquisite charm..." (S21)

DA2 " There ~~some~~ are places..." (S21)

DA3 "If you are ~~this~~ in region.." (S21)

DA4 "...Hagia Sophia ~~a~~ was church community..." (S21)

DA5 "Popular food in Istanbul ~~so~~ is delicious,.." (S22)

Direct answer had the least occurrences among the other types of correcting feedback (only 7 with 4.9%) and was only done by two students. We discovered from YND that they had the highest writing scores in class, and for that reason we assume that they had the ability and confidence to directly provide the correct answer for the errors in the essay.

DISCUSSION

Tsui and Ng (2000) say that the results of comparative studies between peer and teacher correction is found to be neither superior. Teacher comments are more favoured by students since peer correction is doubted for accuracy and quality, thus both do not especially aid students in improving their revisions (Chaudron, 1984). This study has further shown that for the responding feedback, the students made comments under the type of *support* as the most used ones and the criticism as the least used ones. In view of that, what can be inferred from this finding? We come to an assumption that by knowing this fact, therefore teachers, too, should be supportive in giving feedback to their students in indicating their writing errors. Perhaps the use of supportive comments from these EFL students illustrate that this was the type of feedback that can accommodate their needs in learning writing. In the students' response, they considered their peers' feeling while stating their comment and support them to reduce their errors (see example SP2). It is essential to provide a sufficient reassuring teaching environment because to learn a foreign language, especially in the skill of writing, is not as easy as flipping a coin. They require support to convince them that learning to write competently in English is possible. Support and appreciation or praise can

strengthen their language performance and promote their confidence (Hyland & Hyland, 2001), thus, without overexerting it to avoid students from being indolent in improving their writing skills in the future.

Criticism as the least used feedback has us further speculative that this type of response was disfavoured by the students. The criticism meant here were responses written out directly to point out the writer's mistakes (see example CR1) without any commentary of improvement (see example SP4). Out of 147 correcting feedbacks found, only 5 were classified as criticism and this number is almost insignificant in the data. This finding contradicts with the results discovered by Lee (2009), in which comments of criticism was provided three times more than praise by the students in Japan (where English is also treated as a foreign language such as in Indonesia). We further presume that this is also related to the culture and belief of these Acehnese students. In Aceh, to sharply criticize someone directly is considered an ill-mannered attitude. Even those who go into conflict due to criticizing each other sharply are resolved by the society through a traditional ceremony called *peusijuek* (refer to the work by Yusuf & Yusuf, 2014). Therefore, criticizing in Acehnese is done indirectly to avoid social anxiety, such as approaching someone initially with positive comments before criticizing without hurting his or her feelings. Even the criticism in the *support* feedback was done positively with the use of delicate words (see example SP5). This culture is reflected in the way the students provided responses in the responding feedbacks, with *support* as its most used type of feedback.

In the category of corrective feedback, the type of *a combination of coded and uncoded* was mostly used by the students. This implies that they prefer this type of feedback to avoid confusion from the writer. Therefore, after marking the errors, the students would further code them to make it clear to the writer of their correction. The least used type of correction is direct answer and this was also specifically done by two students, who were claimed by YND to have the highest writing scores in the class. This signifies that direct answer was only done by those who have high confidence in their writing skill since they are certain of the correction, and therefore they are assertive to provide the correct answer directly in the essay.

Considering the result of the implementation of peer correction which provided some crucial information, the writer also discovered similarities with Tsai and Lin (2012) in the drawback of peer correction activity. They mentioned that learners with low achievement or low proficiency cannot correct their friend's work appropriately. Nevertheless, this study also

ascertained a similar problem where students missed correcting some errors in their peers' essays. The examples can be found in CU1-CU2 where there were still errors that the students did not correct due to their low proficiency of English. From 61 responding feedbacks, 27 (44.3%) were incorrectly given. Furthermore, from 147 correcting feedbacks, 14 (9.5%) of them were mistakes or included the wrong feedback. It can be reckoned that to provide responding feedbacks are more difficult than correcting feedbacks because responding requires short compositions to comment on the errors, whilst correcting simply entails merely codes and symbols. Apparently, the students who have low proficiency in writing were those who tended to give more incorrect feedbacks. For instance:

WW
"It has a lot of place to experience something new....." (S8)

In that sentence the student marked the word *'has'* as the wrong word choice, yet, it could be seen that it is correct and the grammatical error is actually found in the word *'place'* in which it should be *'places'*. Furthermore, students who have lower achievement gave comments which contained general knowledge about writing. Such as:

> "I love your essay honestly, because this is first times I know about that place. It is so interesting information. But, your essay is very short, so you have to add information more about that place to make reader want to visit there." (S16)

Respondent S16 only commented on the length of the essay and no comments were specifically made about the content, organization and grammar of the essay. However, for students who had better proficiency in writing, they responded the essay with detailed information and suggested the correct form of the error. For example:

> "1st paragraph, 1st line: "who have a passion on sea" (wrong word on the 'a' and 'on'). Better to change it with "who have passion for the sea." (S24)

Therefore, it was common that these students who conducted peer correction activity also made errors in their own comments. This is another setback of peer correction activity found in this study. The fact that each student could only review one paper; it reduced their chances to consult their ideas and corrections with other students.

CONCLUSION

This study reveals that the type of feedback in the category of responding that the EFL students used most in peer correction was *support*. This indicates that *support* is an important pursuit in these students' learning to drive each other into improving their writing skills. Whilst the least used was *criticism*indicatingf that it was not considerably favoured to be given in the peer correction feedback since they restrain conflict and can cause social anxiety. These findings suggest to teachers that students need and prefer to be given much support in providing feedbacks towards their writing errors to reinforce their writing proficiency and confidence. Furthermore, the type most used in correcting feedbacks was *a combination of coded and uncoded*. This illustrates that to provide both mark and symbol on an error can avoid confusion between the student conducting peer correction and the writer of the essay. The least used was *direct answer*, which signified that it was only done by students who had high English proficiency and confidence to provide the correct answer directly on the errors in the essay.

This study also has several limitations. First, the essays and the feedback were both written in black ink. In a few essays, it was difficult for us to distinguish the writing of the student writer and the student corrector. Therefore, for future research we recommend that teachers should beforehand instruct student correctors to use coloured pens to write their responses and corrections.

Second, the implementation of peer correction itself also allowed only one student to correct one essay and this generated a lack of communication between the writer and corrector and also between the corrector and other correctors. This caused students with low English proficiency to provide wrong corrections. Therefore, it is suggested that a research on peer correction activity conducted in groups be done in the future so that more sharing knowledge among the students in writing can be accomplished.

Finally, to additionally broaden our understanding in the implication of EFL students' feedbacks in peer correction activities, it is suggested that future research employ the instrument of interview with the students to extract in-depth information on their perspectives, preferences and needs on this activity to further verify the findings of this study.

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MAKASSARESE AND BUGINESE LOCAL WISDOMS IN SCL-BASED WRITING CLASS (A CASE STUDY)

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Abstract: This descriptive-qualitative case study aims to (1) identify the values of Buginese/Makasaresse local wisdoms that shape the learning process of Hasanuddin University students attending the *Writing2 (MBI2)* subject in the even semester, 2014; (2) find out which of the local wisdoms that strongly shape the student-centred learning (SCL) process in the Writing II class. The study focused on students' classroom interaction. Data were collected from classroom observations, questionnaires, interviews and teachers' note on the learning process in classroom. This study found that what is thought as Buginese or Makassarese local wisdoms especially respect to older people and mutual help can both support and inhibit the SCL process in MBI2.

Key words: local wisdom, student's interaction, respect to the elderly, mutual help

Abstrak: *Penelitian deskriptif kualitatif ini bertujuan untuk (1) mengidentifikasi nilai kearifan lokal Buginese/Makassarese yang membentuk proses belajar mahasiswa Universitas Hasanuddin yang mengikuti kuliah Menulis Bahasa Inggris 2 (MBI2) di semester genap 2014; dan (2) mengetahui kearifan lokal mana yang kuat membentuk proses SCL di kelas MBI2. Fokus penelitian ini adalah interaksi mahasiswa dalam kelas. Data didapat dari observasi kelas, kuesioner, interview, dan catatan dosen tentang proses belajar di kelas. Penelitian ini menemukan bahwa apa yang dianggap sebagai kearifan lokal Bugis/ Makassar, khususnya hormat kepada yang lebih tua dan gotong*

royong, dapat mendukung sekaligus menghambat proses SCL di kelas MBI2.

Kata kunci: *kearifan lokal, interaksi mahasiswa, hormat kepada orang tua, gotong royong*

INTRODUCTION

December 2013 edition of *Identitas* reported the sixth-year implementation of student-centred learning (SCL) in Hasanuddin University (Unhas) which does not seem to show any difference with the previously practised teaching-centred learning. What may have triggered this unchanged learning process ?

SCL is a learning approach which was highly influenced by Lev Vigotsky, as cited in Brown (2007), who said that students are responsible for their learning. Students reconstrut what they learn in class into something relevant to them and become independent of their own learning inside and outside the class. It is clear that students, as the primary factor in learning process, belong to the society where they they live or come from. This means that the students and the society are interchangably influenced one another. This impliesthat the efforts to implement SCL in Unhas are inseparable from the traditions in the society. This further indicates the necessity to study relevant local wisdoms, which occurs in SCL-based classrooms in Unhas. The local wisdoms here refer to all products, processes or traditions rooted in Indonesian society, especially in South Sulawesi, and are apart of the traditions influencing Indonesian people's activities in their community.

LITERATURE REVIEW

A. The main features of student-centred learning

Donnelly & Fitzmaurice's (2005) review on SCL from lecturers' and students' perspectives highlights a number of important SCL features in teaching English at university. One of them is the better interaction between teachers and students. The hierarchical relationship between teachers who are often associated as the knowledge provider and students who receive the knowledge is minimized in such a away that teachers do not merely teach but listen to students' needs and facilitate their learning activities in classroom.

Learning in Vigotskyan view is a social interaction which plays an important role in developing students' cognition. Such social interaction can be seen when learners interact with their classmates during their learning activities and from the culture or traditions ascribed to students' life. Brown (2007) cited Vygotsky who claims that everything is learned from our interaction with others and the result of the learning is integrated into our mental structure.

Meanwhile Donnelly & Fitzmaurice (2005) believes that sociocultural belief on second language learning considers that learners' behaviour in class can be well understood when teachers involve them as individuals and as groups of learners where the learning strategies are used and developed.Their utterance and behaviour in class reflect their cultural traditons which form their learning process. Thus, quoting Jang and Jimenez (2011), it is socioculturally important to study learners' traditions. They say that the strategies used in class are inseparable from the relationship between learners and their teachers in class.

In their review of two different forms of SCL in higher eduction namely collaborative project based learning and problem based learning, Donnelly & Fitzmaurice (2005) clarify the roles of teachers and learners. Teachers in student-centred learning are involved more in designing and assessing the project or problem based learning. Quoting Aspy et. al. (1993), they also highlight teachers' roles to keep students on track, avoid negative feedback, and assume the role of fellow learner.

In student-centred learning, teachers and students should work out together clearly defined criteria of asssessment in which students are allowed to assess their own learning and their peers' based on their individual or group learning targets (Savin-Baden & Major, 2004). Such an assessment, which should help students monitor their own learning, includes among others the team skills, interpersonal skills and communication skills and need to be clear, positive and specific.

The important feature of student-centred learning lies on the student's range of roles and responsibilities. They should take initiative on their own learning goals, identify their learning strategies, decide some procedures to reach the goals, and evaluate learning outcomes.To reach these goals they should shift their paradigm from being a passive listener and note taker to critically question the raised arguments and actively contribute to solving problems emerging in their learning process, and above all they should keep

being motivated to reach their learning target. In this way the knowledge students acquired is no longer the one directed by the teacher. Instead the acquired knowledge is blended with their own specific target.

B. Review of studies on SCL practices

In her study of communicative approach in improving students' academic reading achievement, Irmawati (2012) reported that minimum contribution in class discussion activities and teacher domination in learning process are two major factors that inhibit the learning in classroom. This finding is relevant to student-centred learning with its communication skill as one of the important skills required from students.

Nguyen (2011) who researched on the problems faced by Vietnamese, Thai and Indonesian students during their study in Australia found that the students are difficult to express their views due to the fact that, in the living cultures in Asia, people tend to avoid disharmonious relationship with the interlocutors, especially the elderly, resulted from having different opinions.

Sawir (2005) who conducted an in-depth interview with students from five Asian nations confirmed that language difficulties focused on grammar and reading skills in teacher-centred classrooms are rooted from students' prior learning experiences in their home countries which do not enhance student's confidence in speaking and proactive role in classrooms. Such difficulty was also addressed by Marcellino (2008:57) which claims that "the success of English teaching Indonesia cannot be freed from the student cultural backgrounds, values, customs" which assumes that to contradict or criticize teachers' ideas is unacceptable.

A study on the self-directed learning readiness, perception toward student-centered learning and predisposition toward student-centered behaviour at Sultan Agung Islamic medical school shows students from Java Island showed a higher tendency towards student-centered behaviour when compared to those from outside Java Island (Lestari & Widjajakusumah, 2009).

Using Causal Layered Analysis (CAL), Pham Thi (2010) resorts the major challenge of implementing SCL in Vietnamese universities to Vietnamese people's way of thinking. This review claims that the student-centredness does not need to impose a set of principles to students but upgrade the infrastructure to make local cultures support the SCL and modify SCL principles in order to adapt to local people traditions.

All these studies indicate that to uncover challenges of implementing SCL we must go beyond the classrooms where students live their tradition while having to make use English orally. In this study, the practice of SCL process in MBI2 class is explored in the way it is shaped by Buginese/ Makassarese local wisdoms.

C. The role of local wisdoms in SCL-based classrooms

Although definition of 'culture' is debatable and often mixed up with 'tradition,'Kartawinata (2011, p. viii) pointed out that 'tradition is something transmitted and passed on from past to current generation in the form of patterns or images of our behaviour, belief, rule, advice and prohibition which continuously change, and this tradition is later on interpreted as 'local wisdom.' Kartawinata (2011) stated that the term 'local wisdom,' also known as indigenous or local knowledge, or as local genius, can be defined as local ideas which are thoughtful, invaluable, rooted and followed by its society. This further indicates that students' background can be in contrast with learning principles they live in, and in turn affects their way of thinking.

These wisdoms, like the river culture in South Kalimantan and *siri* in South Sulawesi, are normally orally practised in daily life. Another indigenous knowledge in the life of Indonesian people, the spirit of *gotong royong* is originated from the traditional Javanese village, where labour is accomplished through reciprocal exchange and the villagers are motivated by concern for the common good (Mardiasmo & Barnes, 2013). Especially in disaster affected areas, this culture of 'gotong royong' provides the necessary spirit needed to endure the hardships and for all involved. Nowadays these wisdoms are gradually eroded and tend to be left behind by their people although undeniably such wisdoms are still strongly attached to their believers and influence their daily utterances. These local cultures provide a context of those practised traditions with their own characteristics.

In response to the globalisation in Indonesia, there is a greater awareness among universities in Indonesia to base their academic policies on the local culture where the university is established. For instance, the SCL approach to learning applied at Gadjah Mada University was inspired by Patrap Triloka, a local wisdom originally introduced by Ki Hadjar Dewantoro, the Indonesia's first Minister of Education (Widayati et. al. 2010). In a teaching-learning process. *Patrap Triloka* literally refers to three good conducts that a teacher should practice in facilitating his/her students' learning *-ing ngarso sung tulodho, ing madyo mangun karso and tut wuri andayani –*

which means that teachershould be a model for their students, facilitate their students and empower students to develop their own potentials. These qualities are expected to bring the student-teacher relationship into a harmonious academic atmosphere. Another example of local wisdom-based policy is reflected in strategic programs of the research unit at Padjajaran University and on research road map at many universities in Indonesia such as Padjadjaran University and Andalas University. Besides, local wisdoms have been widely used as learning resources such as digital story telling (Susanti 2013) or in shaping student's character (Faridi, 2014).

Bax (2003) emphasised that the feature of context where the language is used should be attended to when applying communicative language teaching. Without considering the culture and the context where the teaching and learning happens or experienced, teachers would fail conveying their message to students. This means that the influence of culture and its local wisdoms to students is inevitable in learning process irrespective of the approach used including the learner-centred approach. The embedded values of culture which bears student's identity (Savin-Baden & Major, 2004:47) unavoidably affect student's interaction in classroom.

Due to the role of local wisdoms, the occurrence of dynamic interaction in SCL-based writing class may not take place despite the fact that such an interaction is expected to lead student's writing activity and guide its relevance to student's interest and writing process. Savin-Baden & Major (2004) reminded that certain local wisdoms may disrupt the successful implementation of SCL. For example, the local wisdom of respecting older people, which requires students to respect and not to make their teacher lose face, may discourage students to critically raise questions in which the teacher may not be able to answer. Thus, such efforts of facilitating students to share their views and ask questions and at the same time learn from the group members or from their classmates in class discussion may be counterproductive to the implementation of SCL principles. Pertinent to this study, it is necessary to search for the values of Buginese / Makassarese local wisdoms that shape the learning process of Unhas students attending MBI2.

D. Buginese and Makassarese ethnicities

The term Buginese/Makassarese indicates two different ethnicities which dominantly inhabit South Sulawesi and West Sulawesi provincies. This combined term of Buginese and Makassarese etnics makes many people

think that Buginese is synonymous with Makassarese. Pelras (1996, p.14) who wrote the well known book *The Bugis* argued that many publications written by local experts such as *Siri: Bagian Kesadaran Hukum Rakyat Bugis-Makassar* (Marzuki, 1995) and *Kebudayaan Bugis Makassar* (Mattulada, 1971) tend to minimizethe difference between the two etnics due to the way the two names of ethnicsis written as a compound word. Pelras explained that this tendency was due to the same Islamic religion adopted by the two peoples which reduces the difference in their ethnicity and language. These local experts on Buginese and Makassarese note that the way of living of Buginese and Makassare are principally the same. Although many Buginese words can be found in Makassarese or vice versa, the way such words are pronounced can indicate whether the speaker is Buginese or Makassarese. For instance, the word *pesseé* in Buginese and *paccé* in Makassarese both literally refer to being *irritated*or *painful* looking at someone's suffering (Marzuki, 1995, p.132).

Mattulada (1985, p. 5) stated that from the four major ethnics in South Sulawesi, namely To-Ugi (Bugis), To-Mangkasara (Makassar), To-raja and To-Menre' (Mandar), the Buginese has the biggest population and occupy fourteen out of twenty three regencies in South Sulawesi: Maros, Pangkep, Bone, Soppeng, Wajo, Luwu, Sidrap, Bulukumba, Sinjai, Pinrang, Enrekang, Pare-pare, Barru, and Polmas. While Makassare people mostly live in Gowa, Takalar, Bantaeng, Jeneponto and Selayar regencies, Makassar, Maros and Pangkep are currently considered as transitional areas where Buginese and Makassarese are both used in daily conversations.

We can say that Bugis and Makassarese have been recognized as one entity, at least, since the use of the same script *lontara* which spread throughout the southern tip of Sulawesi island. Although Buginese and Makassarese people seem to be geographically separated, these two ethnics seem to spread all over the regencies in South Sulawesi with some distinctive regions for Buginese and Makassarese and the so-called transitional area in Makassar, the capital city of South Sulawesi.

E. Core Values in Buginese and Makassarese

Rahim (1985) said that in Buginese tradition there are six core values, namely honesty, scholar, appropriateness, determination, efforts and *siri* which are all used in Buginese expressions stated in *lontara*. These values are interchanged in framing the behaviour of Buginese people. The following is the summary of Rahim's (1985) account of these values.

First, honesty (*lempu*, Buginese) literally means *sincere*, *correct*, *good*, yet, it could refer to good behaviour and fear the Lord. One's honesty is considered so important that the judge La Pagala Nenek Mallomo (1546-1654) at Sidenreng considered it is equalled to death penalty sentenced to his own child who did not practisehonesty (Rahim 1985, p. 149). Second, the Buginese people's *scholarly* characteristic means that nothing is difficult and difficulties are responded with sincerity and kindness. Having an academic degree does not automatically bestow intellectuality, but those Buginese figures mentioned in *lontara* who were not holding university degree were very influential in their era and can be grouped as being scholastic.

Third, the concept of appropriateness (*assitinaja*, Buginese) which originates from the word *tinaja* (appropriate) refers to one's physical and spiritual ability in carrying out a mandate or assignment. The fourth concept, determination (*getting*, Buginese), means that Buginese people are strong and determined in principle, and committed to the work being done. The fifth, effort (*reso*, Buginese), is the key to the successful implementation of honesty, scholarness, appropriateness, and determination. These four concepts can be effective if they are accompanied by some efforts. Some excerpts in *lontara* denounce effortless people.

The last but the most important is, *siri*, central to South Sulawesi especially to Buginese and Makasareseand has been defined by many Buginese scholars as "shame" or "honour" and is reflected in their behaviour and way of thinking (Abdullah 1985 as cited in Samsuni, 2010).

In Buginese/Makassarese tradition, the way we orally talk which shows how we respect others, called *sipakatau* in Buginese/Makassarese, can be shown in three ways which are reflected in their different expressions. First, someone *mappakaraja* when he/she shows his/her respect to someone older or more highly educated, richer or more powerful. For instance, whenever we greet a lecture *idi puang* (*Ya bu X*, said to senior lecturer) we treat him/her a seniour lecturer who is more educated). Second, the respect for our colleagues or others who are at the same age or position is called *sipakalebi/ sipakalabirik*. Third, *mapakamase*, is said to people who are younger or have lower positions. Another feature of relation is expressed in *siammaturuk* (Buginese)*/ sibali-balii* (Makassarese) which means helping one another.

METHODOLOGY

The qualitative case study was utilized in this study to get clear illustration of SCL process in semester-three university writing class. Following Seliger & Shohamy (1989), the case study here specifically attends to students' interaction inwriting class in order to have a more detailed data on the forms of local wisdoms practised while interacting in class.This study assumes that students' patterns of interaction in each subject is different due to different teaching methodology, the objectives, and teaching/learning maerials. Seliger & Shohamy (1989) emphasized that data in a qualitative study should focus on the observed participants in order that researcher's cultural and intellectual biases do not interfere the collection, presentation and interpretation of data. The only problem in qualitative study is in data collection because data are not measured statistically like in quantitative study. McKay (2006) argues that the lack of control in qualitative study can be eliminated by the researcher's intensive engagement in data collection, continuous and persistent observation, and the use of various data and methods. This leads to the main purpose of qualitative research applied here that is to contextualise and to interprete rather than to generealize, to predict and to explain causal relationships between variables.

A. Sources of data

Data in this study were collected from four different sources. First, the native speakers of Buginese and Makassarese languages employed in this study were two academics – one is Buginese, and the other one is Makassarese who can clearly pinpoint aspects of Buginese and Makassarese traditions and way of thinking, which they have gone throughout their lives. Second, data on classroom activities were video-recorded to observethe interaction among students and between students and their teachers. Third, although this study does not focus on teachers' perspectives, teachers' note is considered important to support the observation data, especially between students and lecturers. Fourth, the questionnaire was distributed to find out detailed information on student's ethnicity and tradition.

Because it is not easy to determine whether student's background tradition is influenced by certain tradition and to find out the form of influence of local wisdom towards the student-based learning process, the tradition in this study refers to student's place of birth, hometown where student spent their time before pursuing their education at Hasanuddin University, and the location of their senior high school. For example, a

student who was born in Buginese-based Bone, has spent his time in Buginese-dominated Soppeng and has joined high schoolwhich is in Wajo, which is also Buginese dominated, we can consider that the Buginese tradition has to some extent formed this student's traditon. Thus, the questionnaire provided the information on students' dominant tradition influencing the learning process in MBI2 class in the second semester 2013/2014.

Table 1:
Student's dominant traditions in MBI2 class

Place of Birth /Hometown/Location of high school and elementary school	Class A	Class B	Class C	Class D	Total
1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*
1. Buginese(B)	10	10	10	9	39
2. Makassarese (M)	0	2	2	4	8
3. Mix of B and M	0	5	4	2	11
4. Mix of (B or M) and non (B or M)	0	6	5	3	14
5. Non B or M	3	5	6	5	19
6. Transitional areas	3	10	11	10	34
Total	16	38	38	33	125

Note:
1. Column 1 refers to the grouping of areas which are dominantly inhabited by Buginese and Makassare in Sulawesi (Mattulada 1985, p. 5), the information on place of birth, hometown and location of high schools is subdivided into groups of regencies dominated by Buginese tradition (number 1), by Makassarese (number 2), group of mixed Buginese and Makassarese (number 3), group of mix of Buginese and Makassarese and of non Buginese/Makassarese (number 4) and areas which are dominated by neither Buginese nor Makassarese (number 5), and group of transitional areas of Buginese/Makassarese (number 6).

2. Columns 2, 3, 4 and 5 show the number of students for the 6 groups in each parallel MBI2 class.

B. Participants

The main participants in this study were Unhas English Department students who took MBI2 in the second semester 2013/2014. This sample of this study represented all Unhas English Department students.

C. Procedure of data collection

First, lecturer and students in four parrallel classes carried out the teaching and learning process of the subject MBI2. The researchers observed the four classess in turns, using checklist while the recording was performed by the student involved in this study. The recording was carefully watched several times in order to identify students' interaction in classroom, especially the interaction between students and lecturer, between individual students, and between students and students in group works or when these students represent their groups and interactwith students from other groups in class discussion. The meeting with native Buginese and Makassarese was conducted to search for information on Buginese and Makassarese traditions. The questionnaire was distributed in meeting sixteen to find out students' background tradition. Based on the information from this questionnaire, two students from each class, representing Buginese and Makassarese, were interviewed to dig out further explanation on specific aspects of students' traditions such as chatting, marriage proposal, parents' burial ceremony, and relationship with older people and friends.

D. Procedure of data analysis

Raw data from classroom observation, recording and the questionnaire, including information from the Buginese and Makassaree resource persons, were triangulated. The typical interactions in classroom were identified and were related to relevant values of Buginese and Makassarese local wisdoms. The result was cross-checked with the teacher's notes on the interaction between students and teacher, and with students' information from the interview. .

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this section we present the activities in each observed class, including the important points on students' interaction, and teacher's notes on students' interaction in SCL-based class.

A. The outline of activities in the four writing classes

Following Schriffin's (1994) functional approach, Ellis & Barkhuizen (2005) claim that the grammar feature which is embeded in an utterance is *functional* because in essence language is used more to communicate a meaning than simply to be a form, and to understand the meaning of a word in an utterance we need to know the context of thetterance. Although this research does not focus on language function, but the utterances reflected from the interaction between students should be looked at from the perspective of each classroom. The following is the important features of activities in each class based on the recording.

Class A

Before attending the MBI fourteenth meeting, students have decided one of the three given topics for the two-sided arguments and have proposed a writing outline based on the chosen topic. In class, the lecturer led the negotiation among all sixteen students to decide which topicwould be the majority. Then, for about fifteenminutes students worked in groups of three and proposed one possible outline for a two-sided essay based on determined topic. The lecturer walked around from one group to the others and facilitated them just in case they have problems in outlining which needs to be solved. Some students tried to show them the outline they were working with.

Every representating student was asked to present their outline before their friends and at the same time the lecturer noted the group outline's important points on the whiteboard while other students in their groups were askedto check for the relevance and coherence. At the end of each presentation, the other groups were asked to offer comments, questions and inputs to the presented outline which were then responded by the presenting group. Most of the time students' responses to the questions or comments were said in Bahasa Indonesia. When this happened the lecturer encouraged students to say them out in English by saying for example "*Are you from another planet*" At the end of this meeting, students were instructed to submit the two-sided essay in the facebook group, and were reminded of things to prepare for the next meeting.

Class B

Following what has been discussed in the previous meeting, i.e. the structure of *problem solution* essay, the 34 students in this class were put into

11 groups of three or four people. They were asked to determine a problem and propose some possible solutions to the problem. During the meeting the lecturer walked around the class, and checked whether students were doing what they have been asked for.

From the beginning until the end of the class, there was no interaction between students or between groups of students. The only interaction noted was when a student, with her loud voice due to the noisy classroom, asked whether what she understood about the lecturer's instruction has been correct. Soon after the lecturer clarified the instruction, the students from the nearby groups echoed "ooooo" which can indicate that they now understand the teacher's instructions. This can also indicate a support to their friend who has raised a question. The only question raised by student followed by the echooing "ooooo" may indicate that other students also needed help but was reluctant to ask the lecturer.

Class C

The class began when the lecturer informed the planned activities in classrooms with regard to the topic 'dowry' while students listened attentively. Students formed their groups based on their ethnicities. For instance, in one group all members are Makassarese. There are two groups whose members are Makassarese, two are Buginese, and one is Torajanese. There is one group whose members consist of various ethnicities. Working in their groups, students are allowed to brainstorm their ideas on 'dowry' which are going to be put in their group's one-sided essay. After fifteen minutes, the lecturer walked around each group and facilitated the progress of their discussion. This group discussion rose some noises because all students were quite interested in the topic and were so eager to tell how dowry has been practiced in their tradition. After about 20-minute group discussion, each group briefly presented their arguments about the amount of money to be paid as dowry in their tradition while the other groups commented and compared with their group's argument on dowry. While the Buginese and Makassarese groups clearly indicated that dowry was so determining in their tradition, the Torajanese group claims that not all Torajanese people especially from the bride's family consider dowry a must for a marriage proposal to be accepted.

Class D

While waiting for students to get into the class, the lecturer wrote the important points which will be discussed in class including the reminder for

the next meetings. When students were all in classroom the lecturer then explained those points which included the mid-test date and the submission of essay via emails because the next meeting is a holiday. When a student asked whether he could bring a dictionary while doing the test in class, the lecturer said she would think about its necessity and let him know in the next meeting.

The lecturer asked students to continue the group discussion which started in the previous meeting which discussed the topic 'living together.' While being observed, the lecturer attended all the six groups which consist of four or five students. Two groups agreed to living together, while four groups showed their disagreement to practice living together.

After ten minutes, the lecturer and students discussed the points in each paragraph in the passage and the following exercises. While every group provided their answer, a few students very actively respond to the lecturer's questions and their classmates' statements about the points being talked about. These same students who represented their group appear to take all the opportunity to answer their lecturer's questions so the lecturer commented "... I am happy you want to give a try to answer my question but I'd like to give the opportunity to your other classmates." This reply was timely in the sense that the lecturer noticed a number of students who looked very passive and never responded to hers since the class began. The lecturer indicated this when she said "Who else would like to answer my question" directing to such students and waiting for their response. These students never responded either their lecturer or their classmates even when the other members of the group where they belong to told them the answer of the question. At the end of meeting the lecturer reminded again what the students are going to do in the next meeting.

B. Important interactions from the class observation

There are three types of typical interactions observed in the four classes. The first type is the interaction between students representing their groups and students from other groups. Their sample interactions are as follows. When the lecturer's question was answered by a student / group, the lecturer provided an opportunity to students from other groups to comment on this student's answer. The following is the lecturer's statement encouraging students to participate.

Datum (1)

"…. Anymore answer? So we all agree to Lt's? Does anybody disagree with Lt's, with Lt's, explanation?" (D003, 00:29-0.35)

Following this utterance, a student who was sitting in front of her and on her right side of Lt provided his response (see datum 2).

Datum (2)

"…eee according to Lt….eee….we have to take the answer after the underlined words…" (D1/4, D003 0.50)

While directing her eyes to other student who was raising his hand, the lecturer said 'yes' which indicated that the lecturer gradually moved her attention from student D1/4 to other student who said the following (datum 3).

Datum (3)

"I think …e… the underlined word is it's a clue…every number of exercise.
[so what's so, it's a clue]
….so … eee… we cannot …. we cannot …say .. say that the underlined words is ….
……it says … it says using the underlined words is just to help….
[ya just to help…ok?]
(A1/1, D003, 01:22-01:50)

Datum (4)

"E…. I agree with the number one…cose it's more …more specific than number one mam. *[ya]*
[ok.. more specific than number 2] (D1/4, 2:14-2.41)

It can be seen here that two students presented their comments on Lt's answer. The second type of interaction can be noted when the lecturer asked student from other groups to express their comment on the group four's outline. While starting to express her opinion in English, she does not seem to have enough vocabulary to continue what she would like to say and finally she said in Bahasa Indonesia.

Datum (5)

"They said that ..... But how how if a student and teacher have...elected but in in that elected there is.... I don't know how to say ... dalam benak saya bagaimana kalau semua pelajar semua...." (A0111, 8:40-9.35)

After one group presented their answer the members from groups sitting close to the presenting groups talk directly to each other whisperingly comment on what has just been presented ignoring the other groups who might also want to know what is being talked about. (A0111 22.57 – 23.04). The lecturer then asked to share ideas with other friends.

Datum (6)

"Come on share with your friends" (A111, 22.58-22.60).

Second, some interactions occur between individual students and the lecturer. Just when a lecturer has finished his instructions on what to do in group work, a student sitting close to the wall spontaneously and loudly asked him to repeat his explanation. This was because the class, consisting of 34 students. Once the lecturer finished her explanation, we could hear this voice from a number of students.

Datum (7)

[ooooo] (B0066, 00:58 – 01.20).

This voice may signal that they have understood the explanation and will try to work out the task based on the lecturer's explanation. Before presenting her group's comment on the other groups' comment, a student named H from group one corrected one point in their outline which has been put down on the whiteboard.

Datum (8)

"Firstly, I would say the 'conclusion' you wrote is a bit wrong. [Oh Yes - L] We do not mean all nepotisms but it could reduce the nepotism." (A111, 9.47-10.00)

A student attempted to offer her response to the group which thought that students and lecturers had the right to select the faculty's dean and this selection is similar to the selection of leaders in Indonesia. He stated hesistantly in Bahasa Indonesia

Datum (9)

"Tadi kan ee... misalnya kalau mahasiswa memilih....the dean eee tetapi eee apa oh my God"

[ha ha ha – teman yang duduk di dekat mahasiswa yang bersangkutan tertawa mungkin karena dia tidak berhasil menyampaikan gagasannya]. (A111, 9.47-10.00)

At the same time, students' noise and laughter burst out, and the lecturer interrupted these saying.

Datum (10)

"Oh look look let me sum up the points of arguments H's arguments ok that ..... number one says that....all students must select. That's the point" (A 0111 23.36-24.23).

After the lecturer summed up the student's point of talk, which was initially intended to said in Bahasa Indonesia, the student suddenly said the following.

Datum (11)

L: "... All students must select. We must select. That's the point."
S: Yes, that's it
All SS: [Ha haha ha ha ha]
(A 0111, 24.24-24.26)

Everyone in the class laughed when a student suddenly echoed the lecturer's statement. This lecturer's utterance indicates that the student might consider what has just been said by the lecturer was exactly the same with the point she wanted to raise. Another possible reason for this utterance is that the student wanted to end the interaction between herself and the lecturer and her classmates because she was confused what she would say further.

This kind of interaction between lecturer and students indicates that they are close enough one another because they can laugh at their classmates' silly reply and she was brave to say what she thought, although she was not sure of what she just said. Third, some other forms of interaction inside the class are illustrated below.

Datum 12

When the lecturer finished writing the points of the group's outline on the whiteboard, she turned around and found two students raised their hands which does not only indicate that they want to talk but can also be interpreted that these students asked for permission to talk (A 0111 16.58-17.02). This willingness to share what they think showed students' initiative without having to be appointed by lecturer.

There were a number of students in class D who never talked at all. One of these students was A who sat at the very back and belonged to the group of students sitting nearby him. This student was attended by the lecturer who asked him a question. There was a silence for about one minute waiting for this student's response when finally the lecturer encouraged him to speak by saying as follows (see datum 13).

Datum 13

Silence for about one minute (A0111 16.30-17.25)
... Andre .... Come on everyone waiting...they are waiting for you...come on say
[the student smiled at the lecturer]
something... so so what's your answer then ... what's your group answer for number 3... you can ask Zn or Lt or ... or anyone ... so what's the answer ...[silence 17.25-17.38]... Several people view... You have the answer or not ...so just read it...
[his friend pointed to him the statement he had to read]...
(A111-17.25- 19.10)

Towards the end of the meeting, the lecturer asked a student about the lesson learnt which he got from the class today. Busily browsing the pages of his handout, he did not say any single word. Even when lecturer signaled him what to say or his friends told him what to say in Bahasa Indonesia just in case he did not understand the instruction, he just mumbled unclearly uttered his answer while following what the lecturer said. Finally the lecturer read the answer which should be stated by the student (D103 23:48-25.20).

Datum 14

...What is the benefit ... Apa gunanya ... Apa ya ... Yang pertama berpikir secara kritis. Apa lagi yang lain. [silence] Apa sebenarnya maksud dibalik itu... What is the ...how to connect the sentences ya...
[... how to connect .... This student very softly mumbled this, almost unheard)

(D103 23.48-25.20)

This student looked as if he said something but it was very soft and almost unheard. He did this while looking at his friend who seemed to tell him what to say in responding to the lecturer's question.

C. Teaching Notes

The following is the notes on students' interaction in class C and the reflection made by the lecturer in charge. It happened in one of observed teaching sessions when the lecturer assigned the students to have small group discussion on "Living Together" before they were to write their group's agreed opinion about the topic.A student seemed to agree with the idea of the whole class that "Living Together" is a sin and an act against culture. Each group was busy organizing their text.

Just before the group work activity was resumed, the student raised his hand asking for the lecturer's permission if he could express his idea that "Living Together" was actually not a sin, nor an act against culture. The lecturer allowed him but thought what came across his mind.He said that for a man to stay in one of the rented single rooms in a house and for a woman to stay in the other rented room in the same house can be called "Living Together" and this is not a sin, neither an act against culture. The class was quiet. The lecturer guessed the students were waiting for the lecturer's response. The lecturer took the opportunity complementing the student for having his own definition of "Living Together" (although the lecturer understood that his definition is quite contrary to the universal definition of "Living Together"). The class was noisy, as the other students in class did not seem to be impressed with his idea.

There are four lessons learnt from the teacher's notes. First, as a member of the group, he seemed to feel that he should agree with the class idea. Perhaps, culturally he did not feel appropriate to go against the group opinion. Second, perhaps, as a result of his passion to argue against the class idea, he felt that it was appropriate to express his own idea after the group session was resumed. However, as a cultural being, he felt that he needed to ask the lecturer's permission to express his idea. Third, only after the lecturer gave a permission that he felt he was entitled to express his idea. Had the lecturer not given the permission, he might keep his idea to his own self. Fourth, the lecturer found later in her interview with the student that he is a Makassarese.

From this teacher's notes, it can be assumed that the SCL method can be said to have an effect to this particular student as he was able to express himself in class by arguing against the class opinion. However, his culture belief may have constrained him to do so during the class discussion, as he was obliged to wait until the class discussion session was concluded before he took the opportunity to ask his teacher's permission to allow him to express his own idea.

D. Discussion

There are two important points that can be drawn from the findings. First, there are a few cases of interaction which cannot be clearly fitted into either between lecturer and students or between individual students and their classmates. For instance, datum 13 and datum 14, which show that a few number of students almost never participate, interact in classroom, ask questions or respond to the lecturer's question or statement can be clearly reflected from their limited interaction only to the group where he belonged to. Marcellino (2008) also noted this tendency for students to wait for teachers' questions or calling their names otherwise they are just busy talking with their friends. Such tendency though depends on the way the teacher encourages their students to actively participate in class.

The finding from this study strengthens Lestari & Widjajakusumah (2009) on the SCL implementation in the Medical Faculty at Moslem University of Sultan Agung which indicated that students from Javanese, compared with those from outside Java, tend to follow SCL principles. Following Guild (1994) and Gutierrez (2003), as cited in Lestari & Widjajakusumah (2009), they argued that this was possibly attributed by their cultural tradition which influenced their study skills. This then fits what is claimed by Marcellino (2008) that values of student's cultural tradition plays a crucial role in shaping the teaching and learning process in classroom but does not seem to promote the success of student-centred learning.

Such an inhibition to SCL process was also noted by the lecturer in charge of class C who pointed out that although students had the initiative to be against with his classmates he should ask permission from the lecturer to say out his different opinion on the topic being discussed in the class. If taking initiative is covered in the concept of *barani* in Makassarese and Buginese culture, which is in line with student-centred learning, this taking one's standpoint should be carried out in such a way that shows honor to

teachers or parents being older people and it does not hurt others. The importance of paying respect to the parents is reflected in *Sangkarupa Kelong Mangkasara* which is a collection of poetric rhymes telling among others how older people especially parents and teachers should be highly respected.

Second, while waiting for students with very limited participation in class to show his interaction in classroom, his friends helped him by providing the specific answer that he should say to the lecturer. We can see that the cultural value 'gotong royong' was implemented here. *Gotong royong* which is commonly stated as *mutual assistance*) can be seen when a number of people work and help each other to finish a certain task. Thus, members in the group would help the other members so then their group would finish the task and possibly a reward follows.

Although it was claimed to be "depicted" in most traditional villages in Java (Mardiasmo & Barnes, 2013, p.1), this mutual assistance is commonly practiced throughout Indonesia such as in moving or building a house (*sakai sambayan* in Lampung, *masohi* in Maluku or *merawale* in Minahasa) or in day-to-day activities among disaster victims. This mutual assistance clearly indicates that the various forms of participation and interaction among members of the society have been rooted in the traditional cultures in Indonesia.

Nowadays, though, this value of mutual assistance has been degraded. As reported in *Kompas* (26 November 2014, p.11), this changing value has slowly began since the New Order era where mutual assistance has been modernized by such appreciation and assessment and lacked the sense of togetherness. In the context of learning and teaching process in classroom, this tradition of helping one another while working in groups was carried away to other activities; not only when the question is directly addressed to the group but also to individual students in the group or when offering answers to friends in the exam.

Thus, while we acknowledge that *gotong royong* supports the student-centred learning when students work together to finish the assigned task, such a practice in the exam does not acknowledge one's competence and discourages the student-centred learning. These features of local wisdoms and their relation to the SCL practice in classroom are summed up in the following table 2.

Table 2:
Buginese/Makassarese local wisdoms in SCL-based writing class

LOCAL WISDOMS	STUDENT CENTRED LEARNING	
	SUPPORTING	INHIBITING
Barani versus RESPECT	Ability to express one's opinion (despite being different with classmates)	Inability to interrupt class discussion led by lecturer, possibly to respect to the elderly. Students need to ask for lecturer's permission to comment on the given topic.
Mutual help (*gotong royong)* versus less respect to other people's ability	Participation in class activities Working together in group to finish the assigned task	Helping friends answer the lecturer's questions. Misuse of friends's helps during exams by providing answer/clues

Third, the findings from interview and class observation on students' interaction in the four MBI2 classes showed that it is difficult to claim that respect for parents (see teachers' notes) and mutual assistance (*gotong royong)* is the local wisdom specific to Makassar/ Buginese. The main reason for this is the fact that the context of this research, which is Hasanuddin University, is the meeting point for students from various ethnicities (see appendix 1 and appendix 2) to pursue their undergraduate studies. Thus, those so-called Buginese and Makassarese students mix up with students from other traditions in Indonesia. The fact that MBI2 was offered in fourth semester means that for over one and half year students have experienced such a 'mixed' culture and this quite possibly leads to their fading tradition. Thus, from the findings of this study, it is difficult to claim whether what happened in the four MBI2 classes is influenced by either Buginese or Makassarese cultures.

CONCLUSION

This study concludes that what is thought as Buginese or Makassarese local wisdoms can both support and inhibit the student centred learning process in MBI2. Such local wisdoms include *barani* versus respect to older

people and mutual help. As depicted from this study, *siri* here which was indicated from data, can boost the competition which means if other people can do it, why I cannot do it, while *barani* can means the bravery to express one's opinion. Thus, while these local wisdoms do occur in classrooms, we have to consider their effects to students learning process. Because of this, the subject outline or learning contract should be very detailed in stating what students must perform in class, so that students can understand the importance of being active in taking part in SCL classes. This further requires teachers' continuous updates and trainings which allows them self-evaluate their classroom activities whether they have followed the SCL principles.

It is necessary to replicate this study with different subjects both content and skill subjects to see whether the claim made in this study can generally represent all other subjects offered to students. It is interesting to see to what extent the teacher-centred learning which has long been practiced influences teachers and students' interaction in classroom and, as a result, whether the university policy to implement the SCL principles across all faculties should be improved. Students' utterances and behaviours in SCL-based classrooms and their relation with students' essays are also worth investigating to see whether the SCL implementation has effectively contributed to students' success in learning.

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APPENDIX 1:

The number of 2013/2014 students across four non-exact faculties at Hasanuddin Universities

Provinces	TL	AD	SMA
Sulsel	1232	1307	1273
Sulbar	43	51	54
Sulteng	33	26	25
Sultra	36	29	28
Sulut	9	4	5
Gorontalo	3	6	7
Jabar	16	21	23
Jateng	6	4	5
Jatim	20	15	19
DKI Jakarta	35	14	25
DKI Jogja	1	0	1
Banten	1	2	4
Kalbar	1	1	0
Kaltim	32	31	38
Kalsel	5	4	2
Kalteng	0	0	0
Aceh	0	0	0
Sumut	6	5	4
Sumbar	1	1	2
Riau	3	5	5
Jambi	0	0	0
Bengkulu	1	0	0

Lampung		1	1
Sumsel	2	1	2
Bangka Belitung	2	1	1
NTT	9	10	6
NTB	9	5	10
Maluku	16	14	14
Maluku Utara	5	3	4
Papua	20	10	14
Papua Barat	5	4	4
Bali	1	1	1
Luar negeri	7	0	0
Timor Leste	1	0	0
Malaysia	15	0	0
Kinibalu	1	0	0
Kaero	0	1	0
Total	1577	1577	1577

TL = Place of Birth, AD = hometown address, SMA = senior high school location

APPENDIX 2:

The number of 2013/2014 students across four non-exact faculties at Hasanuddin Universities

Areas	TL	AD	SMA
Bugis[1]	519	531	489
Makassar[2]	88	103	109
Transitional areas[3]	587	624	620
Toraja	37	47	54
Toraja Utara	-	1	-
Others (Sulsel)	1	1	1

TL = Place of Birth, AD = hometown address, SMA = senior high school location

Bugis[1]refers to regencies in South Sulawesi in which the majority of their population speak Buginese.

Makassar[2]refers to regencies in South Sulawesi in which the majority of their population speak Makassarese.

Transitional areas[3]refers to regencies in South Sulawesi in which Buginese and Makassarese are spoken by the people.

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THE PATTERN OF AMERICAN RHETORIC ON THE SPIRIT OF MISSION: AN ANALYSIS OF THE TEXT OF BUSH'S INAUGURAL ADDRESS

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Abstract: As a textual study, this research paper aims at elaborating the rhetorical patterns in the American mind by examining the inaugural addresses of George W Bush particularly on the spirit of mission. The choosing of the president's inaugural address as the mental evidences is not apart from the synthesis that it represents a formal speech which covers the socio-cultural aspects and they will bring a certain pattern of rhetoric in their attempt to communicate with the public. For the purpose of achieving the aim of this research, the library research is carried out by applying Goffmans Frame Analysis. The results show that the president constructs a certain pattern of rhetoric by using the Puritan expressions particularly for engaging the American people with the spirit of mission. The rhetoric patterns are found to convey the national and world mission. The expressions used in the inaugural addresses seem to meet with people's expectations as a new presidency begins.

Key words: rhetoric, pattern, spirit of mission, inaugural address

Abstrak: *Penelitian ini bertujuan mengeloborasi pola retorik dalam pikiran Amerika dengan mempelajari pidato pelantikan Presiden George W Bush terutama berkaitan dengan semangat misi. Pemilihan pidato pelantikan sebagai bukti mental dalam studi ini tidak terpisahkan dari sintesis yang menyatakan bahwa pidato pelantikan mewakili tipikal pidato resmi Amerika yang isinya mencakup aspek sosio-kultural dan pola retorik kepada publik. Sebagai penelitian kepustakaan, studi ini menggunakan frame analysis dari Ervin Goffman dikombinasikan dengan pendekatan sosiologi sastra. Hasil studi menunjukan bahwa*

presiden Bush menggunakan pola retorik yang memanfaatkan ungkapan-ungkapan yang biasa dipakai kaum Puritan di awal berdirinya Amerika. Ekspresi-ekspresi tersebut digunakan sebagai cara untuk menghubungkan publik dengan semangat misi Amerika. Pola retorik itu ditujukan untuk mendefinisikan misi nasional dan internasional Amerika. Pola retorik ini juga dapat mengadopsi harapan publik untuk seorang Presiden yang baru.

Kata kunci: *retorik, pola, pidato pelantikan, misi Amerika*

INTRODUCTION

The inaugural speech serves as the first presidential formal speech before his public which is most possibly constructed to adopt the values living in the country. The American presidents' inaugural speeches unavoidably contain American life-rooted socio-cultural values as confirmed by Chyntia Toolin by pointing out:

> ... in inaugural speech, presidents give their official statement of how they view the national situation, frequently citing a cultural core or civil religion for the legitimation (1983, p. 40).

Grounding upon this perspective, it is not excessive to assume that the aroma of cultural life and perspectives of the American can be detected from the inaugural speech. This implies that by drawing one's eyes upon the text of the presidents' inaugural speeches and considering its tendency as well as momentum, the attempt to comprehend an existing value in American life is on the way to find its goal. Lloyd E. Rohler and Roger Cook describe presidential inaugural speeches in their book *Great Speeches* (1986):

> At moments like these, speakers speech audiences about the values that both share as members of a common group, the speeches given in such moments are thus noncontroversial for a specific audiences. They do not urge adoption of new values or rejection of old values (p. 18).

This proposition reaffirms the propensity of the inaugural speech to take the existing values which are believed and upheld together by both the speaker and audience in the context of the nation. A president as the speaker of the speech mindfully presents the socio-cultural and political issues confronting the current condition of the people. Yet it does not speculatively offers

unknown values instead of the issues that have been common in the intention to adapt the American people's situation and hope, and to foreshadow the future of the nation.

Through the inaugural speech, the image of a president of a great nation might be viewed from the president's appearance and performance (Woll, 2004, p. 278). The world defines the impressions toward the country from the president' words. This means that, by empowering his speech, the president potentially implant ideas and thoughts to the mind of his people and the international world that he represents the spirit of the United States. As a president stands to express his speech, he reflects the presence of a solution for the national problems and manages to achieve the American dreams. In doing so, as the icon of the nation, the president shares his values and objectives as a nation.

A president, through his speech, reflects the mood of his country and the national voice. According to Woodrow Wilson in *Understanding the Presidency* (2003) Edited by James Pfiffner and Roger H Davidson, in such case, the president is "the representative of no constituency, but of the whole people (p.34)". In this occasion, He does not belong to a certain group, community or party anymore. He is voicing his people's voice. Woll wrote, "The president has prerogative to speak the people's mind on the great issues of his time, to serve the spokesman for the real sentiment and purpose of the country" (2004, p.277). This informs that a president's inaugural speech might contain the thought of the American people in responding to the situation as summarized by the president and, of course, guard the nation to arrive at the shared objective and dream. Further, it defines American presidents' speeches to constitute worthy resources for understanding the American mind, socio-cultural and political life. The attempt to define the concepts as well as the type of American cultural values can be carried out by observing and analyzing the inaugural speech of a president.

Thus if the spirit of mission is thought to be one of the cultural cores of American values, its inclusion in a president's inaugural speeches becomes possible and detectable. It is further theorized that Fredrik Merk (1963) for America, "A truer expression of the national spirit was a mission. This was present from the beginning of American history, and is present clearly today" (P.26). This proposition implies that missionary mindset occupies American people crossing generations. It has been a value accompanying America society since the early foundation of the nation. Basing upon this assumption, it is logical to investigate the concept of the spirit of American

mission. They deserve to be examined in depth. If the spirit of American mission is part of a society belief from generation to generation, this study will, then, reveal the dynamic of the society, and further the conceptual meaning and type of the existing socio-cultural values.

The other reason for choosing of the focus on the speeches of George W. Bush is not for the situation during the Bush administration. At the time, America were faced with the test of terrorism and the launch of foreign policy on war which questioned the concept of the American mission.

In this context, this study aims at identifying the contemporary concept of the spirit of mission and defining the American mind as reflected in the President Bush's inaugural speeches. The identification of the concept constitutes the systematic attempt to reveal the meaning of the American mission and the understanding of the cultural awareness of the American people.

METHOD

The primary data of this research are the texts of Bush's inaugural speech serving as mental evidences to answer the objective of the study. The secondary, or supplementary, data is taken from related sources in the forms of documents, commentaries, opinions, testimonies and biographies from libraries and journals as well as online data found on the internet. This sort of data is gathered in the frame of interdisciplinary perspective meaning that the supplementary data collected grounding on the consideration of enhancing theoretical knowledge from anthropological, social, political and historical. The supplementary data assist the researcher's formulation and analysis of the primary data which, in turn, arrive at the objective of the study. This research is conducted in the light of two phases namely data collection and data analysis.

In terms of data analysis, the focus of this study is on the identification of the concept the American mission. Three steps are taken in dealing with the data collected; namely identification, classification and verification. The steps involved the use of the literary approaches such as sociological approach and frame analysis. This means that the analysis demands the inclusion of socio-political, anthropological and historical views.

DISCUSSION

Fredrik Merk (1963) wrote, for America, "A truer expression of the national spirit was a mission. This was present from the beginning of American history, and is present clearly today" (P.26). This proposition implies the sense of mission colors the thought of most of the American individuals. The conduction of Goffman's Frame analysis which is so-called double-hermeneutic on the presidential inaugural address, particularly for George W. Bush's, comes to find the tendency of the president is to integrate the nation with the strong sense of mission. In this context, the Puritans' sense of mission that has been chipped-in the people's mind could function to aggregate people's acceptance to the president and draw people's awareness to advocate the policies drafted by the new administration. The presidents by taking Puritanism, as Goffman argued, "present themselves in the ways to influence people" (Hinkley, 1990, p.130). In terms of the inaugural address, it could mean that the inclusion of the Puritanism' sense of mission in the text of an inaugural address indicates the president is presenting himself in a hope of influencing his people to have the same focus as him. In light of such perspective, President George W. Bush in the line of his first inaugural address uttered,

> Sometimes in life we are called to do great things. But as a saint of our times has said, 'every day we are called to do small things with great love'. The most important tasks of a democracy are done by everyone." (1 Bush line 39)

President Bush seems to attractively use the puritans' conceptual terminology of 'saint' and 'calling' in suggesting the sense of a mission. By comparing the nuance of 'sometimes in life' to 'but as a saint of our times…we are called to do", the president defines the obligation for American. He urged that every individual has to be the saint of this time; "visible saints" (Ahsltrom, 1967, p.2, Bercovitch, 1978, p.12), within which everybody is connected with the sense of performing certain civic duty and is closely tied to the sense of a mission. President Bush portrays the sense of mission which he emphasizes as 'the most important task' for Americans. This suggests that, as an American, a citizen recalls and carries out the missionary task.

A. The Rhetoric of American Mission for National Interest

George Walker Bush, the president after the Clinton administration, continues to juxtapose the national mission with the 'unfolding American promise' for which Americans "are called to enact". For Bush, in his first

inaugural address, the core of American promise is that "everyone deserves a chance" (line 7). This implies the availability of opportunity for all. It is typical for "the promised land". Bush's address highlights the idea of American promise that syntheisized the same availability of opportunity for all people in America. Since the Americans tie to the promise, the mission shall be acted out. This is implicitly spoken in the following lines;

> The grandest of these ideals is an unfolding American promise that everyone belongs, that everyone deserves a chance, that no insignificant person was ever born.
>
> Americans are called to enact this promise in our lives and in our laws. And though our nation has sometimes halted, and sometimes delayed, we must follow no other course. (1 Bush line 7-8)

These expressions are politically remarkable. President Bush portrays the expectation that the present Americans are hoped to act as the Puritan individuals who positioned themselves with a mission to follow god; they should follow the calling of their country. People are pictured in the frame of calling to carry out the American promise as the mission to be completed. Surely, it is admitted that the accomplishment of the mission for the national sake would be uneasy. The challenges may come to hinder the process, yet it was not considered being the justification to leave the mission and ignore the realization of the promise. The journey of the Puritans sailing over the Atlantic with full of huge waves and storms before they stepped onto the American shore was also an uneasy task, however, they did not change their course. Nathaniel Philbrick in his book, *Mayflower (2006),* delineates from the beginning, the pilgrims, another group of Puritans, exhibited all the strength and weaknesses of a group held together by "a most strict and sacred bond" (p.17) that is when circumstance turned against them, these Puritans demonstrated remarkable courage and endurance; indeed, adversity seemed to intensify their clannish commitment. They are covenanted and committed to the mission to reach the New World to find freedom and better hope. The coming of obstacles has to be beheld; it is the part of the mission to be conquered. Therefore, in the invitation from Bush to the Americans to "follow no other course", the mission is demanded to be fulfilled. The challenge might even shape the strength of America in defending its existence. Bush, like Winthrop, the early Puritan leaders, employs his inaugural address to exhort Americans "to knit together into a social security that reflects and supports their spiritual unity" which

guarantees the direction of the mission. The tests of the country are inevitable, yet as long as the people are in unity, the mission will be accomplished. This reinforces the perspective imbued by Winthrop in his sermonic address in Arbella that, according to Deborah Madsen, politically, "the federal covenant would work only so long as all members of the community voluntarily kept their faith and helped others to preserve faith (1998, p.18). In this context, it is little modified to be the faith to preserve of American sense of mission to contribute a political support for the government. Likewise Winthrop in the time of Puritans suggesting the enactment of the sense of mission based upon "the regulated by law of nature", innocence, and "law of grace", one body in Christ' (Madsen,1998,p.18), Bush at present voices the performance of the totality of the mission for people who "are called to enact it". This rhetoric is politically significant for commencing a new administration. People are drawn to be in the mission for the reason of the national commitment and spiritual interest.

In his second inaugural address, President George W. Bush continues his elaboration of the American Mission by drawing it back to the values that have been introduced and spread since the arrival of the Puritans. These include equality of rights, which was translated as the freedom for religious practice, and implicit government which marked by the magistrate meeting foreshadowing the independence from the influence of the Old World, England. This constitutes the legacy of the Puritans (Corbett and Corbett, 1999, p.38) that contributes to the groundwork for democracy in America. It has penetrated generation to generation. Hence, it is not surprising that the values have been fundamental and inseparable from the American national mission as it is indicated in the following lines;

> America's vital interests and our deepest beliefs are now one. From the day of our Founding, we have proclaimed that every man and woman on this earth has rights, and dignity, and matchless value, because they bear the image of the Maker of Heaven and earth. Across the generations we have proclaimed the imperative of self-government, because no one is fit to be a master, and no one deserves to be a slave. Advancing these ideals is the mission that created our Nation. It is the honorable achievement of our fathers. Now it is the urgent requirement of our nation's security, and the calling of our time. (2 Bush line 6)

This quotation clarifies that defending and maintaining the values of equality and independent government which serves the public interest and opportunity. It is "advancing these ideals" that became the ingredients that defines the mission of the nation. It is the triumph of the founding fathers. That means any challenges to the nation were assumed to be the attack to these across generation-values and had to be dealt with. In this part of the address, it appears that President Bush invites his people to partake in the attempt to eliminate the challenge that faces "national security" through associating it with the Puritans' notion of calling. The calling is addressed to everyone who sees this attack and urges them to uphold the national mission in existence. Todd S Purdum from New York Times points out that President Bush began his second terms without uttering September 11 or terrorism for the purpose of allowing him to cast the crises and controversies of his first four years and the ones he welcomes in the next mission in defense of the nation's founding creed; freedom (New York Times, January 21, 2005). Bush seals his people with a missionary zeal like the Puritan individual. He frames Americans to see themselves amidst the mission to support the urgency of copying with the threats to the continuation of the country. It is the "calling of our time". Bush links American public to the long time belief passed down from the Puritan settlers that they have a calling to shape and witness the betterment of the community in the narrow scope. The calling might vary for every American citizen in every era. However, like the Puritans, the essential of the calling remains the same for American that "strove not to please himself" (Cullen, 1974, p.408). The calling is carried out for the existence of the community, in this case, the nation and surely, as Bush underlined, to God who is "the Maker of heaven and Earth". Mr Bush draws his people to an image that they are answering a calling for whom is imposed the responsibility to preserve and maintain the existence of the nation, moreover, at this time when the country's security is in the middle of terror as marked by the 9/11 attack. These terrorist attacks strengthen the context of Bush's words. In light of this, Bush further affirms,

> My most solemn duty is to protect this nation and its people from further attacks and emerging threats. Some have unwisely chosen to test America's resolve, and have found it firm. (2 Bush line 10)

This affirmation indicates that responding to the attack to his countries security is one of the national missions to carry. For Bush, to guarantee his people to be free from the threats constituted his duty as the leader of the nation. By taking up the Puritans' notion of duty which is of course related

to the performing of mission and responsibility under the big picture of a calling, the declaration of Bush's "solemn duty" politically illustrates the ground for the possibility to launch the possible action toward any menaces intended to the nation. It serves as a sort of political reasoning to invite the people's support for what he defines as the duty of the nation. It is the task that is needed to be carried out. Using his inaugural address and the Puritans' concept, Bush voices that the nation is asking Americans to be hand in hand with the government to defend their coexistence. It is apparent that Bush presents the American public with the situation faced with their nation, linking them with the Puritan's missionary vision. For such a purpose, Bush claims to be the first example by referring to intention to lead the duty of guarding the nation's security in all forms and fronts. Here Bush designs, provides, and frames the justification for his later domestic political agenda. Nation is insecure and is in need of proper acts as well as in expectation of people's support. These confirm the mission that every American is pushed to accomplish by the Bush administration.

B. The Rhetoric of the American World Mission

Having a sense of a world mission has been the feature of America since its early settlement. The well-known address spoken by the Puritan leader, John Winthrop, has declared the intention on inspiring the world by his famous expression; "the eyes of the world are upon us" which conveys the message of America as a focus of the world from which it gains its definition of mission; to be the model for the world. Americans, taking up the Puritan's heritage, are required to work for the goodness of all, in Puritans' words, "for the entire community" (Madsen, 1998, p.6). This is translated to carrying out the mission for the betterment of the world as a whole. Being the focus of the eyes of the world implies the duty to enact a mission to show the world an example from which the inspiration for better life sparks. The sense of mission energizes and characterizes the making of America as well as the journey of America to a modern nation. The sense of mission is actually rooted in Puritanism. The idea that everyone has a mission is brought by the Puritans to suggest the attempt to spread the Good News of Salvation. This Puritanism sense of mission continues to shape the American mind including the conduction of a world mission related to the Calvinistic view of the duty of the chosen people who "shall be a city upon a hill" as voiced by Winthrop. It becomes the attribute of American vision for the world's coexistence. This serves as a kind of Puritan moralistic view. Steven Calabresi (2006) perceived that America's Puritan moralistic crusade improves the fallen world by presenting that the American's achievement is not apart from

this spirit. For Calabresi, such sense of Puritanism describes "a missionary dimension to American life and policy" (2006, p.1366). The dimension, of course, colors Americans' standpoint to the world interaction and affairs; it is a missionary duty.

The American world mission is then stressed as well as reminded by President George W Bush, in his inaugural address. Recalling Bush senior's address, the American mission for the world exists due to the fact that America cannot stand in isolation from the rest of the world. However the coexistence has to be grounded upon reliable moral basic. This is a kind of Puritan mind of establishing the community based upon the strict moral standard as recommended by biblical teachings. It is American duty to set the standard for their exceptional existence as a model for the world. In other words, it is true that America is not alone in the world, yet its relationship to other nations must have been under the moral criteria believed by the Americans and served to be the aim to be achieved. The following words might reflect such point of view;

> America is never wholly herself unless she is engaged in high moral principle. We as a people have such a purpose today. It is to make kinder the face of the Nation and gentler the face of the world. My friends, we have work to do. There are the homeless, lost and roaming. There are the children who have nothing, no love, no normalcy. There are those who cannot free themselves of enslavement to whatever addiction—drugs, welfare, the demoralization that rules the slums. There is crime to be conquered, the rough crime of the streets. There are young women to be helped who are about to become mothers of children they can't care for and might not love. They need our care, our guidance, and our education, though we bless them for choosing life (G. Bush line 13)

Apparently, these lines articulate the core of the American mission. The mission for the world is to bridge a better world within which the children are well-taken care, the drugs addiction is fought, the welfare and demoralization in the slums are mainly concerned, crime is prevented, and powerless young mothers are given necessary assistance including care, education and guidance as well. These are substances of the American mission for the world in Bush administration. The circumstance slightly modifies Bush's political mission for the world. The end of the cold war does not cease the tendency of America's participation in world affairs. President

Bush signals that his administration may take a necessary action to guarantee the American role to set a standard of peace and liberty for the world.

The president here is put forward the tendency to have a role to establish peaceful communities without oppression as once dreamed by the early American Puritan settlers as they left their Old World. They were persecuted for their beliefs and far from being saved and peaceful. The Iraq oppression may be viewed as the hindrance for the establishment of a better community which had been long launched by the early American settlers Bush is bringing the idea of a world mission conducted under the umbrella of making the community living in a peaceful life; no oppression and full of freedom.

Similar propensity of participating in the world mission is taken by President George W Bush. The intention to flourish the world with the spirit of liberty and set a model as it continues to color the lines of the succeeding the American President's inaugural address. In his second inaugural address, Bush states,

> Some, I know, have questioned the global appeal of liberty—though this time in history, four decades defined by the swiftest advance of freedom ever seen, is an odd time for doubt. Americans, of all people, should never be surprised by the power of our ideals. Eventually, the call of freedom comes to every mind and every soul. We do not accept the existence of permanent tyranny because we do not accept the possibility of permanent slavery. Liberty will come to those who love it. (2 Bush line 13)

From the text, it is seen that President George W. Bush highlights that some people might be doubtful as to the world desire for liberty. However, for American, it is, like in the Puritan perspective, the calling that needs to be answered. Elisabeth Bummiler and Richard W. Stevenson in their collaborative article in the New York Times wrote that Bush's inaugural address obviously strikes for its idealism that spreading liberty around was 'the calling of our time' and that the nation's 'vital interest and our deepest belief are now one" (New York Times, January 21, 2005). This indicates that the world mission, for Bush, is chiefly in the sense of enacting the calling to bring liberty to the world. Like the Puritans, President Bush pictures it as a calling for American; a duty to divine purpose. This calling "comes to every mind and every soul". The implication furthermore is that America will initiate the advocacy to all of the attempts to eradicate tyranny as once

experience by their ancestor in the Old World. Tyranny cannot be accepted. It constitutes an irresistible duty for America when it is questioned in other nation. That will be an arena for America to show its calling. President George W. Bush elaborates such thought by stating,

> A few Americans have accepted the hardest duties in this cause—in the quiet work of intelligence and diplomacy ... the idealistic work of helping raise up free governments ... the dangerous and necessary work of fighting our enemies. Some have shown their devotion to our country in deaths that honored their whole lives—and we will always honor their names and their sacrifice. (2 Bush line 22)

Since the world mission is considered as a puritanical calling, it is consequently bringing the demand for active participation despite the raise of the perils. It is true that Bush does not mention explicitly "our enemies". However, the omission appears to be the point; allowing the president "to cast crises and controversies" related to the issue of Iraq, Afghanistan, Sept 11 or terrorism of his previous administration". Bush leads to the essential message of his second presidency to welcome "a seamless struggle in defense of the nation's founding creed; freedom" (Purdum, New York Times, January 21, 2005). This implicitly depicts Bush's assumption that his foreign policy toward "the enemies" might be misunderstood and misjudged by his fellow citizens. In so doing, Bush connects the American people to the nation fundamental creed of gaining and preserving liberty, and, most importantly, juxtaposes them to the Puritan divine duty that namely answering "the calling of our time". George Walker Bush obtains an opportunity to reset people's possible misunderstanding which is crucial for his political legitimization and support. There can be two ways of arranging the mission, as the lines indicated. Firstly, it might be carried out thorough the work of intelligence operation. Secondly, it would be voiced through diplomacy. Of course, these efforts would not be an easy task to perform. The sacrifice is possibly unavoidable; "devotion to our country in deaths". From Bush's perspective as affirmed in the lines of the inaugural address, it confirms heroic deeds that will be remembered and honored for it was done "for fighting the enemies" and "helping raise up free government". It is kind of dedication to the enactment of the calling whose values of commitment derived from the Puritan mind; it is a duty that had to be responded for the better community of the world. In a relevant context, Bush, in the text of his inaugural address, continues to assert,

> America has need of idealism and courage, because we have essential work at home—the unfinished work of American freedom. In a world moving toward liberty, we are determined to show the meaning and promise of liberty. (2 Bush line 24)

The text implies that it is the American role expected to carry out the world mission for the purpose of accelerating the liberty of the world. Bush seems to cast "the worldwide pursuit of liberty and democracy as more than rhetoric; it had become a mission" (Hamilton, 2010, p.392). In other words, it is a missionary duty for America to spread the freedom for all as once declared in Winthrop's speech, to be the example for the world in creating a better community. This signifies that George Walker Bush, the president of the big nation, which just suffers from the terrorist attack of 9/11, frames the intention to the world mission of guaranteeing the freedom from fear; one of the essential meanings of liberty and what freedom offers. Further, it clarifies the color of the American policy in the context of a world mission, particularly in the Bush administration. The search for Osama bin Laden who is mainly suspected for designing the 9/11 attack became the main ingredient for American policy for foreign affair as pictured by the issue of Patriot Act which characterized "The War on Terror" policy. According to Hamilton (2010), most of Patriot Act is due to expire at the end of 2005. The president can, however, "express his desire to continue it and perhaps expands its reach" (p.389). This hints the reasoning for Bush to key his people in with the aspect of Puritans' calling in the mission for freedom including freedom from fear of terror. Hamilton further explains that Bush's war on terror leads to the proclamation of the Bush doctrine which is summarized into two important elements;

> ... first, the United States would wage preventive war against any group or country that threatened American interest, and it would maintain military supremacy by preventing any other nation from emerging its rival (2010, p.389).

The point is that Bush attempts to include the sense of mission by putting the vision of seeking and guaranteeing liberty by borrowing the Puritans' ideals that the vission constitutes "the calling of our time". This can be interpreted as Bush's effort to give the moral foundation to his doctrines to for the American foreign policy. In other words, through Puritan words, Bush finds the ground for the American world mission related to the war on terror in terms of its historical experience and invitation to people's participation.

CONCLUSION

American presidents define the exigency of the American public to get involved in the national mission by keying their people with typical Puritan terms such as calling, duty and mission itself. These attempts hermeneutically portray the sense of the American mission in the frame of a Puritanism lense which serves to support the presidents commence and successfully launch the new administration.

In addition, Puritans' notion of setting in the New World, as a city upon a hill as voiced by the leader, John Winthrop, remains echoes in the voice of the present American leaders as reflected in Bush's inaugural addresses. The ingredient of American world mission of the contemporary presidents seems to recalls such Puritan ideals as marked by the employment of terms like mission, calling, and duty. Within the inaugural addresses, the President tends to use the Puritans' words to urge their people in advocating the existence and spread of liberty as the substances for their calling and duty in the world affairs for America and the invitation to participate in the mission.

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THE IMPLICATION OF PRE-SERVICE TEACHER'S BELIEFS ABOUT GRAMMAR FOR ENGLISH LANGUAGE POLICY IN INDONESIA

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Abstract: Recent studies have suggested that teachers' beliefs have a significant influence on actual classroom practice and, consequently, on students' achievements. However, little research has been done to investigate the influence of Indonesian language policy and teachers' beliefs. The study reported seeks to examine the influence of English language policy on pre-service teacher's beliefs about the teaching of English language grammar in Indonesian schools. The research participants were pre-service teachers who have taken the subjects of Structure, Teaching Methods, and Micro-teaching in three public and private universities in Central Java and Yogyakarta Special District. Due to time and scheduling limitations, the sampling method used in this study was convenient sampling. Documentation, survey schedules, interviews, focus group discussions were used to gather the data. The findings revealed that although the language policy in Indonesia has put English language teaching and learning within the framework of communicative competence since the enactment of the 2006 School-based Curriculum, the pre-service teachers still believed that traditional method of teaching grammar (explicit grammar instruction) was imperative to use. The pre-service teachers tended to exclude English language policy enacted by Indonesian government in their discussion about teachers' beliefs. Instead, the pre-service teachers constructed their beliefs about English language grammar teaching and learning process on their prior experiences in learning and teaching grammar.

Key words: language policy, teacher's belief, pre-service/in-training teachers

Abstrak: *Studi terbaru menunjukkan bahwa pandangan guru sangat berpengaruh terhadap praktek pengajaran di dalam kelas dan prestasi siswa. Namun, penelitian tentang kebijakan bahasa di Indonesia dan pandangan guru belum banyak dilakukan. Penelitian ini bertujuan untuk meneliti pengaruh kebijakan bahasa Inggris terhadap pandangan calon guru tentang pengajaran tata bahasa Inggris di sekolah-sekolah di Indonesia. Responden penelitian adalah calon-calon guru di tiga universitas negeri dan swasta di Jawa Tengah dan Daerah Istimewa Yogyakarta yang telah mengambil mata kuliah Structure, Teaching Methods, dan Microteaching. Metode sampling yang digunakan pada penelitian ini adalah metode convenience sampling mengingat waktu dan jadwal yang terbatas. Metode pengumpulan data menggunakan dokumentasi, survei, wawancara, dan focus grup discussion. Hasil penelitian menunjukkan bahwa meskipun kebijakan bahasa di Indonesia telah menempatkan pengajaran bahasa Inggris dalam kerangka kompetensi komunikasi (communicative competence) sejak diberlakukannya kurikulum 2006, calon guru masih percaya bahwa metode traditional pengajaran tata bahasa (instruksi pengajaran tata bahasa eksplisit) harus tetap digunakan. Calon guru cenderung tidak menyentuh kebijakan bahasa Inggris yang telah ditetapkan oleh penerintah Indonesia dalam diskusi tentang pandangan mereka terhadap pengajaran bahasa Inggris. Alih-alih, calon guru mendasarkan pandangan mereka tentang pengajaran tata bahasa Inggris pada pengalaman pribadi mereka ketika belajar tata bahasa Inggris.*

Kata kunci: *kebijakan bahasa, pandangan guru, calon guru*

INTRODUCTION

This article discusses the language policy and the preservice or in-training teacher's belief system of the students of English Teacher Education study program in three different cities: Semarang, Salatiga, and Yogyakarta. As a school subject which is mandated by the State in the context of a globalizing economy (see Indonesia Republic Government Enactment number 32, year 2013, chapter 771, article 1 c), English language program teaching and learning deem structured planning and execution to reach the expected result. Studies on preservice or in-training teacher's belief shows that the training given during their study at Teacher Education study program will influence the tendency of a teacher to act including how the preservice or in-training teacher perceive problems they face in teaching and

learning English (Rokeach, 1968). However, it is important to note that there is a belief these preservice can undergo changes as a result of the reality they face in their work later. The language policy of a certain country is one of the 'realities' the English teacher should accept. Law No. 20/2003 on the national education standard, chapter 38 article 2 states that,

> The primary and secondary education curriculum is developed according to their relevance to each group or unit education as well as school/madrasah committee (*komite sekolah*) under the coordination and supervision of the District Education Office (DEO – *Dinas Pendidikan Kabupaten/Kotamadya*), the Ministry of National Education (MONE), or *Kantor Departemen Agama Kabupaten/Kota*, the Ministry of Religious Affairs (MORA) for primary education and the Province for secondary education
>
> [Kurikulum pendidikan dasar dan menengah dikembangkan sesuai dengan relevansinya oleh setiap kelompok atau satuan pendidikan dan komite sekolah/madrasah di bawah koordinasi dan supervisi dinas pendidikan atau kantor Departemen Agama Kabupaten/Kota untuk pendidikan dasar dan Propinsi untuk pendidikan menengah.]

The article above becomes the base of eight national education standards – graduate competency, content, process, personnel, infrastructure, management, funding, and assessment standards. These education standards influence how the English language programs runs.

Unfortunately, the implementation of these national standards in the teaching of English does not go well. The seriousness of the parties involved in the implementation of national standards in education is in question especially those from the Ministry of Education. Yulia (2014) points out that while ELT is perceived as important by both the district and the individual schools, the way to run the program is differently understood by both parties. Yulia (2014) gives some examples of the drawback of implementing ELT standards: The documents which become the guide of the implementation such as curriculum, syllabus, and lesson plans are implemented without proper appraisal; teachers are rarely assessed and supervised, and given in-service training. The lack of monitoring and supervising from the district supervisor may affect teachers' performance in the classroom.

Yulia (2014) also writes that teachers' limited ability in the teaching of English is another major problem on ELT. She says that English teachers do

not have adequate ability in teaching English both in their pedagogical and professional aspects. The teachers' lack of pedagogical and professional aspects is shown by Yulia (2014) in the fact that despite the Government Regulation No. 19/2005 which clearly states that the focus of ELT in Indonesia is to develop students' communicative competence, the teachers tend to ignore the notion by focusing on structural approach to fulfil the students' need to prepare for the national examination. The development of linguistic competence then becomes more important than the communicative competence. The lack of communicate competence as well as motivation results in the students' inability to communicate in English (see Yulia, 2014).

Considering the problems of ELT in Indonesia above, the belief system of preservice or in-training teachers of English Language Education Program has an important role in improving national standard of education. As stated earlier the belief system resulted from the training receives by the preservice or in-training teachers during their study influences the way preservice or in-training teacher perceives a problem of teaching and learning, therefore the belief system which agrees with the national education policy should be encouraged.

Especially on the teaching of English grammar, previous studies show that teacher's belief, indeed, influenced the way teachers choose their method of teaching grammar. However, study on the teachers' belief on teaching grammar has not developed well. Studies on teaching grammar in Indonesia focus on the materials and teaching techniques (Baleghizadeh, 2011; Sugiharto, 2005; Meyer & Gallo, 1998). More studies on Indonesian teachers' belief on teaching grammar will boost the improvement of national standard of English education simply due to the fact that teachers play central roles in the teaching and learning process.

The findings on teachers' belief will encourage the improvement on ELT in Indonesia including the curricula and systematic evaluation of its implementation. ELT teaching improvement will producehighly qualified students who are proficient in English.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Crystal (2003) in his book *English as a Global Language* states that English is a language which has special roles in many countries; hence

English can be regarded as a global language. Crystal mentions two ways for a language to be considered global. The first way is when a language becomes an official language of a country whose mother tongue is not that language. The second way is when a language becomes a country's priority in foreign language teaching. The explanations clearly put English language as a global language as English is the official language in countries such as India, Nigeria, Singapore whose first languages are not English. English is also the priority of foreign language teaching in countries like Indonesia, China and Russia (Crystal, 2003: p. 4-5). Crystal further explains that English is needed by those countries as a medium of communication in areas of politics, business, entertainment, international relations, international travel, and education in order to increase the countries' positions in the world.

A. English Language in Indonesia

English language education in Indonesia is developed around the context of the national language, *Bahasa Indonesia*. The status of *Bahasa Indonesia* as the national language is shown in Indonesian constitution, *UUD 1945, article 36*. The constitution states that *Bahasa Indonesia* is the language of national unity; to unite Indonesians who speaks more than 550 local languages (Sneddon, 2003: p. 5). To foster the use of *Bahasa Indonesia*, it is taught as compulsory subject at all education levels – primary school up to university. With its position as a national language, *Bahasa Indonesia* is the official medium of communication in Indonesia and used in government, education, and business sectors. In its development, *Bahasa Indonesia* has characteristics as a diglossia (Sneddon, 2003). Although formally *Bahasa Indonesia* is standardized by *EYD* (Ejaan yang disempurnakan/perfected spelling) format, Indonesians use *Bahasa Indonesia* differently based on the context, whether it is in a certain situation or with certain people, or even in certain social level. Standardized *Bahasa Indonesia* (Bahasa Indonesia Baku) is usually used in formal settings like in the classroom, government meeting, business meeting, and in official documents. On the other hand, informal *Bahasa Indonesia* is used in casual conversations.

Dardjowijoyo (2000), as cited in Yulia (2014), writes that English is the first foreign language to be taught in schools and universities in Indonesia after their independence. He mentions that Indonesians, after their independence, felt the needs to master an international language for the medium of communication at international level. The decision to choose English , not Dutch, as the foreign language to be taught at all level of education in Indonesia, according to Dardjowijoyo (2000) as cited in Yulia

(2014) was that right after Indonesia's independence from The Netherlands' colonialism in 1945, Dutch language was still unfavourably considered as 'the language of the enemy'. At that time, English was made a compulsory subject starting from high school until university. It is important to note here that English was decided as a foreign language, not a second language, as Bahasa Indonesia is the sole national language. English continues to be a compulsory foreign language taught at Indonesian school and and at the university level as English increasingly becomes more commonly used as a medium of communication internationally (see Kachru, 1998; Kirkpatrick, 2007). In Asia, English becomes Asian lingua franca (McArthur, 2002). Countries in Asia use English to communicate and to conduct business with other countries. Countries joined in ASEAN (Association of South East Asian Nations) use English as their de facto lingua franca (Kirkpatrick, 2007). Therefore, English language becomes more strategic for Indonesians to learn. English language teaching in Indonesia, then, should provide its learners with adequate ability to communicate in English.

B. English Language Teaching (ELT) in Indonesia

As mentioned previously, after the revolution, English language was a compulsory subject offered at high schools and universities. In the early years after gaining independence, the teaching of English in Indonesia relied on the Grammar Translation Method, a method which, according to Dardjowidjojo (2000), as cited by Yulia (2014), was left over by the Dutch. Dardjowidjojo continues that audiolingual method was introduced in 1953 with the help from the Ford Foundation. The books produced from the project, *English for SLTP* and *English for SLTA*, were the compulsory books for SLTP (Junior High School) students and SLTA (Senior High School) students. Those books were the embryoes of the 1975 curriculum (Yulia, 2014).

Madya (2008) describes English curriculum implemented in Indonesia from the early years of Indonesia's independence until 2006. Madya states that the subtopics in the books used in 1975 curriculum are mainly contained grammatical structures, thus it can be said that the 1975 curriculum is structure oriented. Madya adds that the target skills of 1975 curriculum are sequenced into listening, speaking, reading and writing. The learning of language forms is the focus of the 1975 curriculum.

The next curriculum, the 1984 curriculum, concentrates on language use, not language form anymore (Madya, 2008). Madya says that the 1984

English curriculum covers reading, dialogues, and writing which shows the features of communicative curriculum.

> Reading is aimed at developing the students' ability to comprehend various texts and increasing their vocabulary and structural experiences... Dialogues are used to teach skills to use English orally to express various communicative functions. Writing is aimed at developing the students' skills in constructing correct and acceptable sentences and arranging them into a paragraph and various simple texts (Madya, 2008: pp. 13-4)

Madya (2008) claims that despite its objective as communicative English curriculum, 1984 curriculum is still structurally oriented based on the structure-related instructional goal. Madya categorizes the 1984 English language curriculum as the weak functional type.

The 1994 English curriculum concentrates on the mastery of communicative skills using meaning-based approach. This curriculum mention some of the crucial points; they are, first, the themes of linguistic elements of English, such as grammar, vocabulary, spelling, and pronunciation, focus on four English language skills. Second, the teaching and learning process are taught under the related themes. Third, in the teaching and learning process, the four language skills are basically inseparable, and the students involved in meaningful learning activities (Departemen Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan, 1994a, 1994b). Those points aim to develop learners' social communication skills. Kasihani (2000) writes that the 1994 curriculum uses the communicative approach. On communicative approach, Kasihani (2000) notes that the implementation of such an approach is difficult as English as a foreign language is not used in every-day Indonesia, therefore the teaching remains on the cognitive knowledge of English. For the 2006 curriculum, the schools, or educational units, need to develop their own curriculum. These school-level curricula are assisted by the Government through a guide book for school-level curriculum development, and school-level curriculum development training. The 2006 curriculum does not set standards on the level of English proficiency for each level, only differences in vocabulary items and types of expressions used. Like the 1994 curriculum, the 2006 curriculum emphasizes the mastery of communicative competence.

The 2013 curriculum aims at the development on competences and character building andfocuses on the values of moral education. The

emphasis on values and moral education instead of competencies cannot be evaluated as the implementation of this curriculum in the national level is postponed. The most important thing to note in 2013 curriculum for English language teaching is that English in primary schools depend on school policy as it is not mandatory.

In the implementation of 1975-2006 curriculums, Madya (2008) evaluates that the teaching and learning of English has become unsatisfactory as a result of some factors. First, many teachers use outdated methods and have very little training in English teaching. Second, many teachers are not trained in English teaching methodology. Third, there is a lack of quality materials. Fourth, classes are too large.

METHODOLOGY

Data in this study was collected qualitatively from intervies and focus group discussions. The qualitative data aimed to know teacher's belief in detail. The population of this study was preservice or in-training teachers at English Language Education Programs in in three public and private universities in Central Java and Yogyakarta Special District. The method of sampling used is convenient sampling due to time and scheduling limitations.

FINDINGS

Grammar is the most challenging subject in English teaching. It is unarguable that the teaching of English grammar includes the teaching of the structure of that language. Therefore, it is the way to teach grammar which is debatable. Some researchers argue that the teaching of grammar should be fun, communicative, and interactive as Krashen (1981) states that implicit grammar instruction where the learners study the grammar used in the real situation is the best to teach grammar. However, a report by Farrell & Lim (2005) shows that experienced grammar teachers in Singapore heavily believe that the traditional approach of teaching grammar which does not emphasize on communicative teaching strategies is the most effective method of teaching grammar although the same respondents are willing to teach grammar more communicatively.

Respondents basically believed that grammar is important to master English. It is "the most basic" as reported by one member of this study's focus group discussion:

> I think grammar is the most basic skill. I mean, it is important when we learn reading, writing, and speaking. We have to master grammar, whether we like it or not. If we master grammar, everything will be easier. This basic skill is really difficult, so we have to struggle to master grammar. This is the most important, I think (Suri, focus group discussion, June 24, 2014).

It can be inferred from the respondent's opinion that teaching grammar to English language learners is a must. Additionally, respondents of this study stated that grammar served as the foundation for communication as stated by one of the respondents:

> Well, if we meet, communicate with other people, if our sentences are ambiguous, people won't understand us. So we need to understand that one first, structure. After we have agood grammar mastery, we can express our opinions well, and people will understand us (personal interview, June 24, 2014)

The respondent's emphasis on the close relation between communicative competence and the mastery of the grammar implied the respondent's belief that grammar should be taught to support the communicative competence. This respondent's opinion represents other respondents' beliefs.

However, when asked about the best way English grammar should be taught, the opinions differ. Similar to previous studies done by English scholars, the respondents of this study showed different ideas of how grammar should be taught. Some respondents reported that grammar was best taught using communicative approach. One respondent pointed out the necessity to use communicative approach to teach grammar since learning grammar was commonly perceived as boring by students in the classroom.

> Yes learning grammar is boring, yes. In the classroom (we) only listen to the teacher … The teaching of structure must be communicative and interesting too in the classroom, then the students will understand (grammar) better (Vivien, personal interview, June 24, 2014).

The need to make English grammar teaching interesting and communicative is also voiced by other respondent who said that grammar teaching should encourage active learning.

> First, the students themselves. They should be more active. I think ... want, what I teach will make the students active. They should search for themselves, that is the first point (Sari, personal interview, June 24, 2014).

The respondent implied the teaching of grammar should not be the teaching of the form, but most importantly the teaching of the grammar use. A similar opinion is expressed by other respondent:

> In my case, I prefer to have examples first; I prefer to know when and in what context we use certain formulas. I apply deductive method. Later, the teacher teaches the formula. Personally, when I was given the rules (of grammar) first, I would get confused. I prefer examples, how to use them, to formulas (Focus group discussion, June 24, 2014).

The respondent clearly believed that grammar teaching should focus on the application of rules, the context, so the students would be more familiar with the use of English grammar.

Yet, some respondents sounded reluctant to apply the communicative approach. These respondents reported that there were other factors that should be considered in applying communicative approach such as class size which was usually big, the time, and the teaching target which usually aimed to prepare students for written test. The mixed feeling toward the implementation of communicative approach was expressed by the respondent:

> Yes, it can be done, but in fact it is not effective... May be we can use games in the first few minutes to create better atmosphere. But we can't do it for every meeting (Focus group discussion, June 25, 2014).

The opinion above shows that the respondent is willing to use game, one way to implement the communicative approach to teach grammar, but at the same time the respondent voices the objection for using much of the method.

As explained previously, English language teaching in Indonesia is regarded as unsatisfactory to produce qualified English language competence. One of the factors mentioned is the lack of teacher's professionalism, thus teacher's belief can be one of them. The most important finding to be noted in this study regarding teacher's belief is the strong role modelling. The interview with the respondents revealed that their choice of method used for teaching English grammar depends heavily on the method chosen by their teacher/lecturer that they considered the most appropriate. Thus, teachers' prior experiences in learning grammar influence their choices of teaching approaches. The respondents say:

> Later, when I teach grammar, I, Mam, will refer to my grammar lecturer last semester. Yes, I will do ice breaking by asking questions, so the students learn from them. That is, (we) start with questions, then we explain the rules and then do the exercises (Annette, personal interview, June 24, 2014).

> Later, when I teach grammar I will teach it the way my former lecturer taught me. So the focus is not written English but oral (English) … using oral (English). So we will be able to apply (the grammar) and to think hmmm so this is the way to apply the grammar (Debbie, personal interview, June 24, 2014).

During the interviews and focus group discussions, the respondents never referred to the national standard of English language teaching. The respondents' indifference to the English language policy in Indonesia may be the result of the 'imperfect' national language curricula, the lack of government's supervision and training, or the lack of awareness of the teacher's training program on the importance of putting the national language policy to their curriculum.

CONCLUSION

The result of this study show that English language teaching and learning in Indonesia emphasize on communicative competence. On the teaching of English grammar, preservice teachers acknowledged the importance of communicative approach in teaching grammar. However, the pre-service teachers still believed that the traditional method of teaching grammar (explicit grammar instruction) was imperative to use. The other finding is that the pre-service teachers tended to exclude English language

policy enacted by Indonesian government in their discussion about teachers' beliefs. Instead, the pre-service teachers constructed their beliefs about English language grammar teaching and learning process from their prior experiences in learning and teaching grammar.

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