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USING POPULAR CULTURE'S MEDIA OF INDONESIAN - ENGLISH PICTUREBOOKS AS A WAY OF REACHING MORE VEGETABLE CONSUMING CHILDREN¹

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Abstract: A questionnaire and interview recently given to 5-8 year old children and their parents show that consumption of vegetables is low. One of the factors for the low consumption is due to the lack of creativity in making various menu and creative media to obtain children's interest in wanting to consume vegetables. In Indonesia, if young children can be taught to actively use the English language, it will be a great advantage for their future's education. Based on these backgrounds, through the various media available in today's popular culture, picturebooks that can increase children's ability to read English language texts in addition to consume vegetables is created. A picturebook project is regarded highly relevant for teachers who specialize in English language, visual communicative design and food technology. This article shares how with a bilingual picturebook, a reader will know how to pronounce the English language well because there is a

¹ This article is based on a presentation entitled "Teaching Children English through Bilingual Picturebooks: A Popular Culture And Visual Language Case Study" that was delivered at the 4th Celt International Conference: English in the Professional World, 12-13 March 2014, held by the English Department, Faculty of Letters, at the Theatre Room, Thomas Aquinas Building, Soegijapranata Catholic University, Semarang, Indonesia. It is written to actualize the *Ipteks bagi Masyarakat* funding received from the Ministry of Higher Education in Indonesia. Note: the name of Faculty of Letters has recently changed into the Faculty of Language and Arts.

phonetic transcription guide provided at the back of the book. Also at the back of the book is a menu for the vegetable that becomes the main character of the book. With this strategy, the book is projected to be popular to readers who want to also create attractive vegetable menus for children. The picturebook that is packed with simple yet interesting visual language is also a way to show how creative one can be in designing lovable vegetable characters. This article discusses the reasonings of creating the picture book.

Key words: popular culture, vegetables, children, bilingual picturebook, visual language

***Abstract:** Kuesioner dan wawanwara pada beberapa waktu diberikan kepada siswa berumur antara umur 5-8 tahun dan kepada beberapa orang tua menyatakan bahwa konsumsi sayuran dalam keluarga cukup rendah. Salah satu penyebabnya mungkin adalah kreatifitas yang tidak cukup bervariasi melalui macam menu untuk mendapatkan perhatian siswa dalam rangka mengkonsumsi sayur. Di Indonesia, jika anak-anak dapat diajari untuk memakai bahasa Inggris secara aktif, hal itu akan menjadi keuntungan yang besar ke pendidikannya kelak. Berdasarkan latar belakang ini, maka melalui macam media dalam budaya populer saat ini, buku cerita bergambar yang dapat meningkatkan kemampuan anak untuk membaca bacaan dalam bahasa Inggris selain mengkonsumsi sayur akhirnya disengaja untuk diciptakan. Proyek pembuatan buku cerita bergambar ini sangat cocok bagi guru-guru yang mempunyai keahlian dalam bahasa Inggris, Desain Komunikasi Visual dan Teknologi Pangan. Tulisan artikel ini bermaksud untuk mengsosialisasikan bagaimana melalui buku bilingual para pembaca akan dapat mengucapkan beberapa kosa kata bahasa Inggris dengan benar karena di belakang buku ada pedoman fonetiknya. Di belakang buku juga ada menu makanan sayur yang menjadi karakter utama buku. Dengan strategi ini, buku ini dapat diproyeksikan untuk menjadi populer bagi para pembaca yang juga mau membuat masakan yang menarik bagi anak-anak. Buku cerita bergambar ini yang dipenuhi oleh hal yang mudah dan simple tapi menarik untuk dibaca adalah cara untuk menunjukkan bahwa seseorang dapat menjadi kreatif dalam menciptakan karakter-karakter sayur yang menggemaskan. Artikel ini memberikan penjelasan tentang terciptanya buku cerita bergambar itu.*

***Kata kunci:** budaya populer, sayuran, anak-anak, dwi bahasa, cerita bergambar, bahasa visual*

LOW VEGETABLE CONSUMPTION AND ITS EFFECTS IN CHILDREN

It is often the case that when asking children what they prefer to consume for their meal, a more likeable answer is to have fried chicken or have some kind of noodle dish. Rarely would the answer of the children be a preference to have stir-fried vegetables or green salad. When consuming a hamburger from a McDonald's restaurant or fried noodles at a nearby Chinese restaurant, children tend to take out the vegetables from these meals. When asked why, some would answer that the vegetable smells or too difficult to swallow or just simply not tasty enough.

An interview given to 30 children studying at Don Bosco Pangudi Luhur Kindergarten and first and second grade of elementary school that are between the ages of 5-8 and also a questionnaire given out to their parents show that 80% of children dislike vegetables. There are 13.33% of the elementary school and 46.66% of the kindergarten children who do not like vegetables. Their reasons are similar to the above phenomenon. It is interesting that 30% of the children's parents are themselves not a vegetable lover. These parents also often have no idea how to make creative vegetable menu for their children. The easy access to junk food or fast food which is made popular through the advertisements seen on television or billboards may have influenced these children and parents even further away from eating healthy vegetables in their meals. It is, nevertheless, quite shocking to find that according to Bararah (2010), 50% of young children do not enjoy eating vegetables. In addition, according to Dennison, Rockwell & Baker (1998) preschool-aged children only consume 25% of recommended vegetable servings a day.

Children of two years old and over should eat "more fruits, vegetables, and grain products" (Dennison, Rockwell, & Baker, 1998, p. 372). Because of this, it is recommended that the fruits and vegetables are made into fruit or/and vegetable juice, so it will be easier for children to swallow. If not consumed numerous times a day, however, only little dietary fiber gets into the body. Low consumption in vegetables will directly give an advantage to children who during their adult stage will have a low body endurance and vulnerability towards deceases (Hidayati, p. 7). Girls are especially affected by it because they are potential to mother and baby deaths (Hidayati, p. 3). The promotion of consuming high fiber like found in vegetables should, therefore, be made. One way is to promote it through a popular culture media.

A popular culture, according to Danesi (2008, p. 2) not only include the beliefs and rituals of a society but also the lifestyle pattern of that society, which in this case includes the eating habit of the people living in that culture. As informed above, the lifestyle of eating fast food or junk food is also a popular culture shaped by the many advertisements shown on television as a way to answer the people's minimum time for cooking a healthy meal at home. In the interview with some of the children at Don Bosco elementary school, it was also found that some of their parents are busy workers. These kinds of parents do not even have time to take them and pick them up from school. With regards to the daily meal, these children say they do not often see either of their parents cook and what is usually consumed at home are fast food meals.

In Indonesia especially, there are relatively good television shows that can remedy the low consumption of vegetables. For the mothers, Farah Quinn's *Ala Chef*, which is aired at Asian Food Channel TV station and also RCTI's *Master Chef* cooking competition can be an input to how creative one can be in cooking healthy vegetable meals. The recent *Master Chef Junior* program whose judges are from the *Master Chef* cooking competition should have also encouraged the children themselves that they can be the creative one in the kitchen. If parents and children prefer to go out for their meals in the weekends, they can also have input from Bondan Winarno's *Wisata Kuliner* aired at Trans TV as a popular culture program that may give suggestions for places where a healthy vegetable menu is available. Although positioned at a *primetime* schedule (Irawadi, 2012), it seems it is still not enough to attract children and parents to love consuming vegetables. Based on this background, therefore, the writers decide to popularize vegetable consumption through an 'I Love Vegetable' picturebook series.

'I LOVE VEGETABLE' BILINGUAL PICTUREBOOKS AS A MEDIA FOR VEGETABLE AND VISUAL LANGUAGE LEARNING

According to Hsiu-Chih (2008, p. 51) a good picturebook should not only give an overall comprehension of the story, but also stimulate the readers' imagination. If these functions are reached, children usually have some satisfaction in reading a story. Citing Owen and Nowel, Faizah (2009, p. 252) gives further understanding that picturebooks are good media for children because they are usually brief and straightforward. They also contain a limited number of concepts, so that it is easy to be comprehended by

children. The writing style is also direct and simple with attractive illustrations that complement the text. Because a picturebook usually contains lots of pictures with simple words, it is important to make the visual illustrations meaningful. Faizah (2009, p. 253) informs that that visual illustrations help increase children's memory by 14 to 38%. It is consequently understood that a memorable character should be created, so children will want to refer to their picturebooks not once but for a number of times. Pictures as visual language help speeds a story line because there is usually about 40% decrease in time when using visual language.

Faizah continues to explain that children usually love picturebooks because of a number of other reasons (2009, p. 254). A picturebook can make children learn more about their society based on a character from the book. The character may also help children have a let out of their own problems because they can see how the characters deal with a problem similar to their own. The pictures can help children who are not proficient enough in reading feel the enjoyment of reading books. As a consequence, a picturebook can encourage the habit of reading. Thus, it is clear that picturebooks are the right media for children to learn positively about something.

With lots of pictures and minimal words in a picturebook, it becomes a way to easily memorize the wordings used in the story. For this reason, picturebooks is a satisfactory media also for vocabulary learning, too. With the recent trend of not all Indonesian elementary schools providing English language lessons, a bilingual, Indonesian-English picturebook may be the answer to those who are eager to learn English in a fun and simple way.

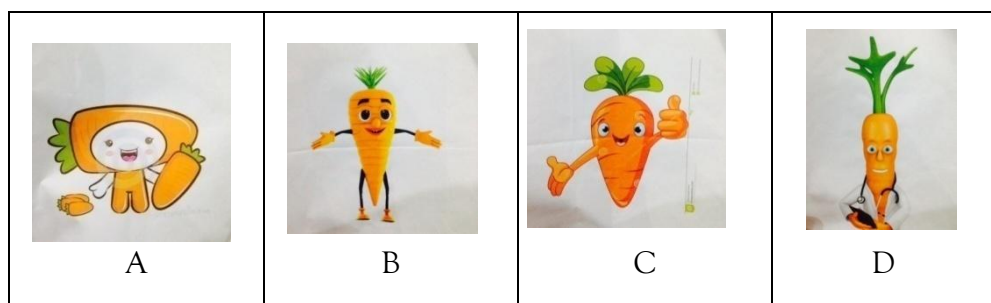
THE CREATION OF VEGETABLE PICTUREBOOKS

Children love to read books that have more visuals rather than verbal texts in capturing information (McNeal & Ji, 2003). Henceforth, as suggested by its name, picturebook, it must contain more pictures than words. In the 'I Love Vegetable' picturebook series, the writers followed the suggestions above that the main character of the book must be made appealing and memorable. In addition to the visualization that must be there in a picturebook, the size and number of pages is also important to provide interest to children as readers of the book. Because of this, before creating the book a small research was done to decide about the book type,

illustration, drawing style and typography preference, in addition to the books' practically.

Using a purposive sampling of a 3-6 year-old children who are from middle to high class families in Semarang area, four different books were given for the children to comment and give insights to the researchers as writers of this article. The books are a 12 page picturebook with sponge media entitled *Sayang Binatang, Anjingku* (Loving Animals, My Dog), then a fancy paper and thick 308 page book, entitled *Dongeng Mini: Cerita Binatang* (Mini Tales: Animal Stories). The other book is a fancy paper and 24 page book, entitled *Seri Mengenal Profesi: "Guru"* (Knowing Professions Series: "Teacher"), as well as a 32 page bilingual picturebook with a popular cartoon character entitled *Step Into Reading 2: Barbie, I can be A Baby Doctor*. Using a video camera recorder, we observed how the children try to read and interact with the books. We also asked their comments about the practicality of the books, the weight, types of paper used and the size of the typeface that makes them easy to read. We also asked the children's preference in the kind of characters they would like to see in picturebooks. The following four different types of illustration of a carrot character were used as media (see figure 1).

Figure 1:
Four different types of carrot character used in the research



The research found that two out of six children prefer to have a feminine character such as A and a masculine character such as in B, so we decided to do two types of visual approach for the character being used in the picturebook. The first one is to draw a character of a person-like figure wearing a vegetable costume. Second, we use a personification and provide an anthropomorphic feature to a vegetable. Using a predetermined storyline, the character is incorporated into the picturebook to help convey the

message as discussed earlier. Figure 2 is a sample of the vegetable characters for A: Rocco the Broccoli Rocker and B: Tommy the Tomato Actor. Since children love to attractive pictures, the writers decide to cover the book with bright

Figure 2:
A is a person-like figure wearing a broccoli costume;
B is a tomato character with an anthropomorphic feature.



colors that are filled with images. Children also do not like lengthy pages, so we limit our pages into only about 18 pages which excluded the menu and phonetic transcription page. The typeface of Sans Serif is chosen since it is easier to read by beginning readers (see Figure 3).

Figure 3:
Sample page from Rocco the Broccoli Rocker



Given that we also want to increase the popularity of the books by showing some Indonesian feature to the vegetable character, in comparison to the broccoli and tomato character above, the other picturebooks give some visualization on Indonesian images. See a sample of the preview in one of Rocco the Broccoli Rocker's picturebook (figure 3) and covers of the book series (figure 4).

Figure 4:
Covers of the 'I Love Vegetable' picturebook series



THE ADVANTAGE OF INDONESIAN - ENGLISH VEGETABLE PICTUREBOOKS

Devising picturebooks as a creative media to increase children's consumption in vegetables as well as learn a foreign language such as English is not as simple as it seems. In order that it reaches its targeted market segment, a small research had to be done so the creation of the characters, typeface and size of the book is appropriate. A picturebook is not only a media to entertain the children but more importantly it gives advantages not only to the children as well as parents as readers of the book, but also to professionals like us who specialize in the English, Visual Communication Design, and Food Technology field of teaching.

The picturebooks that we created is believed to actualize the intention of making children to love consuming vegetables. This is due to the finding that most children do not like vegetables because most TV channels would show more on junk food advertisements, which are packaged attractively for children to enjoy; rather than on TV cooking shows that would show how to cook healthy vegetables for children's nourishment. This is a shame since

vegetables are a high source of fiber and nutrients that can increase the quality of the human resource. Therefore, with a picturebook on vegetable characters, it is hoped that children would be attracted to consume more vegetables.

To achieve popularity, the strategy that we made was also to have cute memorable names for our characters, i.e. Rocco the Broccoli Rocker, Tommy the Tomato Actor, Kartini the Carrot Dancer, Poki the Pak-choy Chef and Spibam the Super Spinach. In addition to the names, the back part of the books is also provided with special menus of the vegetables in mind. We also tried to increase the vegetable consumption by giving a cooking demonstration of the menu contained in the book series, in addition to giving a talk in schools about the importance of it through a community service activity. With these strategies, we hope that children will quickly relate to actual vegetables with the picturebook series' characters, and thereby will love to consume the vegetables.

The second advantage of the picturebook is that it can become an effective visual language media for children to read the Indonesian language fluently and at the same time learn to read the English language translation in a fun, yet professional manner. In order that children, in addition to parents who will help read the picturebooks, know how to read the English words and phrases correctly the end part of each book is provided with a list of some of the words and phrases' phonetic transcriptions. In the story of Tommy the Tomato Actor some of the phonetic transcriptions provided in Table 1 can be seen as follows:

Table 1:
Phonetic transcriptions sample

Howdy =	[haʊdi:]	Yellow =	[jeləʊ]
I'm =	[aɪm]	You =	[ju:]
I'm Tommy =	[aɪm tɒmi:]	My friends =	[maɪ frendz]
I'm so popular =	[aɪm səʊ pɒpjʊlə]	Talented actor =	[tæləntɪd æktə]

Since the picturebook is bilingual, the third advantage is not only for Indonesian children to quickly learn English vocabularies but it can also benefit foreign children who want to learn the Indonesian vocabularies

creatively. This is why in the other three vegetable picturebooks, some Indonesian images and storylines are consciously created for foreigners to learn something about the Indonesian (Javanese) culture. Below are some sample pages of the vegetable picturebook series:

Figure 5:
Kartini the carrot dancer is shown wearing the
Javanese Golek dance costume



Figure 6:
Poki the pak-choy chef is shown with an Indonesian
Bakso (meat ball soup) seller

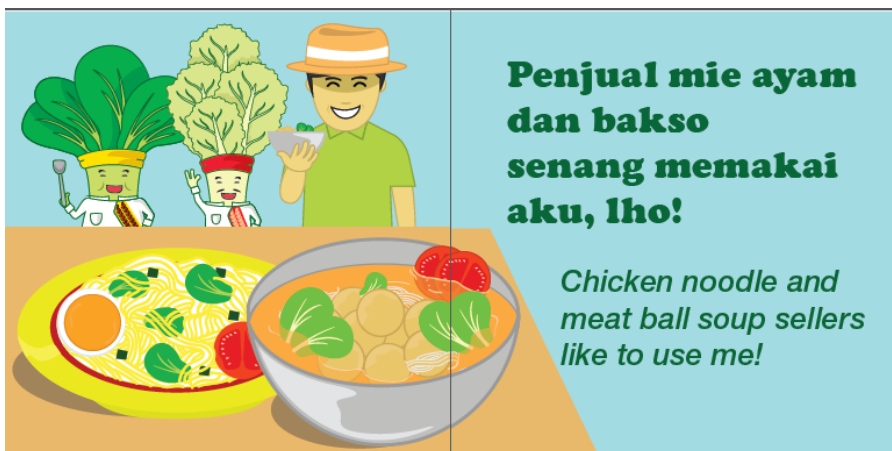


Figure 6:
Spibam the super spinach is wearing an Indonesian costume from the
superpower shadow puppet character, Gatutkaca with a big star in the
middle



Not only will foreigners relate the picturebook with Indonesian culture, but to Indonesian readers, the illustrations can help readers remember the vegetable characters with the vitamins or nutrients found in them.

Last but not least, English language, Visual Communication Design, and Food Technology teachers can also enjoy a fourth advantage, i.e. providing an additional income if teachers can create picturebooks like discussed in this article. Not only can teachers get credit for being good English language teachers since they can show their students how to read and pronounce English words, phrases, or sentences well through a picturebook as media, but they can also receive credit as creative visual language story book writers. Just like us perhaps other teachers can also have the opportunity to be published by a well known publisher like PT Gramedia. All in all, there is more to just teaching if teachers would care to make opportunities for the advantages of teaching children to love vegetables through a bilingual vegetable picturebook such as discussed in this article.

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CULTURAL UNTRANSLATABILITY: A STUDY ON *THE RAINBOW TROOPS*

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Abstract: The notion of translatability is possibly done with the extent to which meaning can still be adequately conveyed across languages. For this to be feasible, meaning has to be understood not only in terms of what the source text contains, but also in terms of target audience and purpose of translation. In linguistic untranslatability, the functionally relevant features include some which are in fact formal features of the language of the source language text. If the target language has no formally corresponding feature, the text, or the item, is (relatively) untranslatable. What appears to be a quite different problem arises, however, when a situational feature, functionally relevant for the source text, is completely absent in the culture of target language. As culture has something to do with the concept, source language texts and items are more or less translatable rather than absolutely translatable or untranslatable. An adaptation, then, is a procedure whereby the translator replaces a term with cultural connotations, where those connotations are restricted to readers of the original language text, with a term with corresponding cultural connotations that would be familiar to readers of the translated text. Translating such culturally untranslatable items entails profound knowledge on both source and target cultures. Most cases in this particular work are solved by keeping cultural terms in the source language text, with or without explanation. Ecological, social, and religious culture terms undergo the process most frequently.

Key words: cultural untranslatability, target culture, source language text, unequivalence

Abstrak: Penerjemahan dilakukan sepanjang pesan sebuah teks bisa disampaikan dalam bahasa lain dengan makna yang sama. Proses ini dimungkinkan jika makna dipahami tidak hanya dalam teks bahasa sumber, melainkan juga dalam kaitannya dengan pembaca sasaran dan tujuan penerjemahan itu sendiri. Kesulitan penerjemahan sangat berhubungan dengan sifat-sifat formal bahasa yang dipakai dalam teks sumber. Jika bahasa sasaran tidak memiliki sifat-sifat yang sama, teks tersebut (relatif) tidak bisa diterjemahkan. Masalah lainnya adalah jika ada sifat situasional dalam teks sumber yang sama sekali tidak terdapat dalam budaya bahasa sasaran. Namun, karena budaya terkait dengan konsep, teks bahasa sumber sangat mungkin diterjemahkan dengan makna yang kurang lebih sama. Oleh karena itu, perlu dilakukan proses adaptasi. Dalam proses ini penerjemah menggantikan istilah budaya yang hanya diketahui oleh pembaca teks bahasa sumber dengan istilah budaya yang serupa yang lebih dikenal oleh pembaca teks bahasa sasaran. Menerjemahkan teks seperti ini memerlukan pengetahuan mendalam mengenai budaya sumber dan budaya sasaran. Penerjemahan sebagian besar kasus dalam karya yang dianalisis dalam penelitian ini dilakukan dengan mempertahankan istilah budaya dalam teks bahasa sumber, dengan atau tanpa keterangan penjelas. Istilah yang paling sering mengalami proses tersebut adalah entitas yang terkait dengan ekologi, sosial dan keagamaan.

Kata kunci: penerjemahan, istilah budaya, budaya sasaran, teks bahasa sumber, ketidaksetaraan

RATIONALE

One of the ways of cross-cultural communication to be possible is through translation. It may be perceived as a means of transferring message in a language (source language) into that of another language (target language). McGuire (1980, p. 2) mentioned translation involves the transfer of 'meaning' contained in one set of language signs into another set of language signs through competent use of the dictionary and grammar; the process involves a whole set of extra-linguistic criteria as well.

Sang and Zhang (2008) wrote that communication across languages and cultures is a markedly complex issue, and translation is more than just a careful linguistic transfer. It is a purposeful action designed to achieve the most effective result in the target group. Translating from a text in a language

to that in another is, however, not that easy. Sometime we face specific terms with no equivalence in the target language.

Translating from a text in a language to that in another is, however, not that easy. Sometime we face specific terms with no equivalence in the target language. The notion of translatability and untranslatability is not a clear-cut incongruity. Translation may be done with the extent to which meaning can still be adequately conveyed across languages. Source language texts are more or less translatable rather than absolutely translatable or untranslatable. What appears to be a quite different problem arises, however, when a situational feature, functionally relevant for the source language text, is completely absent in the culture of which the target language is a part (Catford, 1965, p. 93).

That is always the case, as no matter how good the translation, something always seems to be lost. Nolan (2010, p. 57) mentioned people from different culture use the language with different words and expression which sometime are not perfectly translated into one another. Here is the example: the language of desert people have more words referring to what other people call sand and the language of the Inuit people has many word for ice.

Hatim and Munday (2004, p. 15) perceived translatability as a relative notion, and it has to do with the extent to which meaning can still be adequately expressed across languages. This might be possible when meaning is understood in terms of such factors as communicative purpose, target audience and purpose of translation.

This paper primarily concerns on the cultural terms in *Laskar Pelangi*, a work by Andrea Hirata (2008), from which the English version is published in 2009. The focus of this paper is to find out what kinds of cultural terms used and what strategies applied by the translator to cope with those terms.

TRANSLATABILITY AND UNTRANSLATABILITY

Dealing with untranslatable concepts, whether represented in words or phrases, is an avoidable problem when translating. Catford (1965, p. 93) proposed two types of untranslatability, which he terms linguistic and cultural. On the linguistic level, untranslatability occurs when there is no lexical or syntactical substitute in the target language for a source language

item. Cultural untranslatability is due to the absence in the target language culture of a relevant situational feature for the source language text. He quotes the example of the different concepts of the term *bathroom* in an English, Finnish, or Japanese contexts, where both the object and the use made of that object are not at all alike. But Catford also claimed that more abstract lexical items such as the English term *home* or *democracy* cannot be described as untranslatable, and argues that the English phrases *I'm going home* can 'readily be provided with translation equivalence in most languages' whilst the term *democracy* is international. To serve as an example, the word *home* and *house* in English are different notions, but both possibly be translated as *rumah* in Indonesian.

A. Cultural untranslatability

Culture is a more general tendency rather than individual personality and it changes over time (Nida, 2001, p. 18-9) and is reflected by language (Hatim and Mason, 1989, p. 237). Culture is a group-based notion. As a relative concept, something acceptable in one group is not necessarily a good and respectable in the other groups. Newmark (1987, p. 94) defined culture as the way of life and its manifestations that are peculiar to a community that uses a particular language as its means of expression. It includes objects, processes, institutions, customs, ideas peculiar to one group of people.

As culture is related to a specific group of people and it is reflected in the language of the group, equivalence in languages is something relative consequently. Baker (2001, pp. 21-26) presented some common types of non-equivalence at word level. Those are culture-specific concept, lexicalization of the source language concept in the target language, the source language word which is semantically complex, the different distinctions in meaning between the source and target language, the lack of a superordinate in the target language, the lack of a specific term (hyponym) in the target language, differences in physical or interpersonal perspective, differences in expressive meaning, differences in form, differences in frequency and purpose of using specific forms, and the use of loan words in the source text.

Getting laid out the meaning associated with social distinction, I would like to go over the reason why the idea of cultural untranslatability is essential. The actual main cause refers to Nida (1964, p. 12) that the greatest interpretation does not feel like the translation. Naturalness is really a crucial requirement (Munday, 2001, p. 42).

Certainly, a translation frequently needs an excellent interpretation which displays 'naturalness', even though description associated with 'quality' differs based on the interpretation environment or even objective and purpose (Nord, 1997). The idea of cultural untranslatability is essential once the cultural distinction is excellent simply because, without having coping with this, translators cannot achieve 'naturalness' as well as express the actual source text's purpose.

In order to demonstrate the significance associated with cultural untranslatability, I've attracted upon linguistic items which consist of several phrases in order to signify particular cultural specificity within the wide sense. There are 2 causes of this particular: 1) connections between social specificity as well as 2) converting the socio-cultural item (Newmark, 1987, pp. 82-84). Converting the socio-cultural item doesnot include the social distinction.

In this paper, I'd like to go over below exactly what conditions a word is actually untranslatable, or even exactly what decides the actual event associated with cultural (un) translatability within the target culture. This is essential simply because, for example, the culturally incongruous interpretation can be utilized being suitable inside an interpretation in which the audience allows this.

The actual ambiguity within the indisputable fact that source text messaging tend to be pretty much untranslatable (Catford, 1965, p. 93). For this function, we presuppose that we now have a few problems associated with event associated with cultural untranslatability, as well as there is a determining element with regard to this kind of problems.

B. The problems of unequivalence

Baker (2001) proposed the notion of unequivalence at various levels. At word level, culture-specific concept is the most common factor leading to untranslatability. The source language word may express a concept which is totally unknown in the target culture. The concept may relate to religious belief and social customs.

Aspects which may appear as culture-specific conceptcover ecological culture, social culture, material culture, religious culture and linguistic culture (Nida and Taber, 1969). These words are examples in Indonesian to

represent those five aspects, which may not be easily found their equivalence in other languages: *pancuran*, *siraman*, *kendi*, and *maghrib*.

Some of those culture-specific concepts are not lexicalized in the target language. The source language word may express a concept which is known in the target culture but simply not lexicalized. The word *standar* (Indonesian) is preferable when translating English word *standard* which means ordinary.

Some cultures have words which are semantically complex. The word *siraman* means the ceremonial event in a Javanese (a traditional tribe in Indonesia) wedding a bride has to get through the day before the wedding, taking place in her parent's house, where she has to be bathed by seven people and closed with the dropping of *kendi* by the make-up artist.

The different distinctions in meaning between the source and target language may cause another problem. Indonesian people will find it difficult to translate English phrase going out in the rain unless the context is provided the detail. In Indonesian, we use different words when people are going out in the rain without knowing it before and with the knowledge that it is raining. The first we use *kehujanan* and the second is *hujan-hujan*.

The lacks of a superordinate and the lacks of a specific term (hyponym) in the target language also make the translator hard to find the correct words. Indonesian has *padi*, *gabah*, *beras*, and *nasi* but has no general term for them, while English uses *rice*.

Physical or interpersonal perspective may be considered important in one language than it is in another. Indonesian has some word for English word *bring*: *membawa*, *menjinjing*, *mencangklong*, *memanggul*, *menyunggi*, *menggendong*, etc.

Differences in expressive meaning, differences in form, differences in frequency and purpose of using specific forms are some other notions that cause problem in cultural translation. In Indonesian, the phrase *hujan lebat* is *heavy rain* in English. Indonesian people use *lebat* in the particular phrase (thick) to illustrate a heavy rain.

The use of loan word in the source language text may pose another problem. Loan word *chic* in English may lose its sense of sophistication in the target language. Indonesian may have the word *anggun* or *menawan*, but it does not reflect the actual meaning of *chic*.

Dealing with those cultural matters, a translator may have some strategies to use. The first strategy used by a translator is leaving the word in its original language and inserting an explanation (Nolan, 2010, p. 57-58). Others are using a more general word, more neutral word, cultural substitution, loan word with explanation, paraphrasing, using unrelated word, omission, illustration (Baker, 2001, pp. 26-42).

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

A. About the novel

In this paper, some examples are taken from Indonesian best seller novel *Laskar Pelangi* (Hirata 2008), translated into English by Angie Kilbane under the title *The Rainbow Troops* (published in 2009). This particular work was first published in 2005, yet in this paper, I refer to the 23rd printed edition. It has now been adapted into motion picture and musical drama.

As a literary work, *Laskar Pelangi* is an oasis in Indonesian literary time, which was flooded by thousands of chicklit back at the time. Not only does it tell a story of a wonderful childhood, it also contains a unique, new way of telling a story. Set on the Indonesian island of Belitong, it conveys a sad tale with laughter and lightheartedness. It tells of oppressed, marginalized people protesting in admirably good humor, without swearing, violence, divisive political movement, and anyone to take up their cause. The vicissitudes of growing up are depicted brilliantly. The reader will be touched by an absurd yet pure first love, and one can't help but smile at the innocence of the children as they earnestly plan their futures. It also tackles serious issues, such as the right to education and corporate exploitation, while framing those sensitive issues within the tale of a beautiful childhood journey and friendship of ten country children.

Laskar Pelangi (*The Rainbow Troops*), set on Belitong Island, Indonesia, tells the story of a tight-knit group of hardship. Fabulously rich in natural resources, Belitong is also home to chronic poverty and educational discrimination. This amazing story tells a persistent young teacher and her tireless efforts to fight for her ten students' right to an education. Together, they take the reader on a journey through the beauty of childhood friendship, the inspiration of love, and the power of education. Both the teacher and the students' magnetic personalities and unflagging determination are sure to inspire.

This inspirational novel is the first book in *The Rainbow Troops Quartet*. *Sang Pemimpi (The Dreamer)*, *Edensor*, and *Maryamah Karпов* are the other three books in the series.

The beautiful story of *Rainbow Troops* was adapted for the big screen in 2008. It has found success not only in Indonesia, but also worldwide, and received some awards, including:

- A showing at the Berlin International Film Festival (Panorama), 2009
- Golden Butterfly Award, 23rd International Children & Young Adults Film Festival, Iran, 2009
- 3rd Place Audience Award, 11th Udine Far East International Film, 2009
- SIGNIS Award, Hong Kong International Film Festival, 2009
- Best Film, Bandung Film Festival, 2009
- Best Film, Indonesian Film Festival, 2009
- Nomination for Best Film and Best Editor, Asian Film Awards, 2009
- Musical drama, 2011

B. Unequivalences in both works

This paper presents data from both works (*Laskar Pelangi* and *The Rainbow Troops*) and categorizes them according to Baker (2001) about unequivalence. To begin with, let us have a review on Baker (2001) about unequivalence, especially in word-level. As mentioned earlier in this paper, there are five aspects which may appear as culture-specific concept. It covers ecological culture, social culture, material culture, religious culture and linguistic culture. Observe the following examples.

(1a) *Permainan kuno nan legendaris itu disebut tarak.* (Hirata, 2008, p. 168)

(1b) Herein lay the appeal of the ancient and legendary game of *tarak*. (Kilbane, 2009, p. 132)

The word *tarak* in sentence (1a) is the example of ecological culture term. In the game of *tarak*, which is played mostly in the Belitong area, two rubber

fruits were stacked and then hit with the palm of the hand. Whichever fruit didn't break was the winner. It was a game that opened the rainy season, a warm up for the far more exciting games to come when the rain flooded down from the sky.

The translator keeps some more ecological words in the source language. There are words dealing with plants, which may not be found in the target language. Those words are *gayam* tree, *santigi* tree, *kupang* tree, *bintang* tree, *jengkol* beans, *rambutan* seed, *aren* fruit, *pinang hantu* tree, *medang* tree and *angsana* tree to name a few. There are also some words about animals in the area: *prigantil* birds, *pinang barik* snakes, *satam* stone, *manau* snakes, and *jalak kerbau* birds.

Social culture words are found in the work and here are some examples.

(2a) *Sembilan orang, baru sembilan orang Pamanda Guru, masih kurang satu.* (Hirata, 2008, p. 2)

(2b) Nine people, just nine people, *Pamanda Guru*, still short one. (Kilbane, 2009, p. 2)

The word *pamanda* is an example of social culture term. *Pamanda* is an addressing form for a man in the area. It is used to someone of a close relative, meaning *uncle*.

(3a) *Bau hangus yang kucium tadi ternyata adalah bau sandal cunghai, yakni sandal yang dibuat dari ban mobil, yang aus karena Lintang terlalu jauh mengayuh sepeda.* (Hirata, 2008, p. 11)

(3b) That burnt smell I noticed earlier was actually the smell of his *cunghai* sandals, made from car tires. (Kilbane, 2009, p. 11)

Cunghai is a specific term for rubber sandals, which is usually used by people of suburban area in Belitong.

(4a) *Bagi Lintang, tempat sekolah kami ini, adalah metropolitan yang harus ditempuh dengan sepeda sejak subuh.* (Hirata, 2008, p. 11)

- (4b) For Lintang, the city district of our school was like a metropolitan city, and to get there he had to begin his bicycle journey at *subuh*, early morning prayer, around four o'clock a.m. (Kilbane, 2009, p. 11-12)

Subuh is one of five compulsory prayers in Islam, considered the first prayers and done early in the morning before sunrise. The exact time for *subuh* may vary from time to time, but no later than 04.40 in the morning. There are some other religious culture terms: *maghrib*, *tasbih*, *kopiah*, *azan*, *zuhur*, *halal*, and *lebaran*.

- (5a) *Lebih mudah menyerahkannya pada tauke pasar pagi untuk jadi tukang parut atau pada juragan pantai untuk menjadi kuli kopra agar dapat membantu ekonomi keluarga.* (Hirata, 2008, p. 2)

- (5b) It would have been much easier to send *me* to work as a helper for a Chinese grocery stall owner at morning market, or to the coast to work as a coolie to help ease the family's financial burdens. (Kilbane, 2009, p. 2)

In sentences (5b), the word *me* is chosen to replace the pronoun *-nya* in the Indonesian version. The pronoun is a third person singular, but since the previous sentences are talking about the main character (*me*, first person point of view), it is a lot easier for readers to grab the meaning when the translator uses *me* instead of *him*.

One difference between two language is the difference in form for some lexical categories. Next is the use of loan words in the source text. See the following sentences.

- (6a) *Aichang, phok, kiaw, dan khaknai, seluruhnya adalah perangkat penambangan timah primitif yang sekarang dianggap temuan arkeologi, bukti bahwa nenek moyang mereka telah lama sekali berada di Pulau Belitong.* (Hirata, 2008, p. 35)
- (6b) Their terms for these techniques, *aichang*, *phok*, *kiaw*, and *khaknai*, are still spoken by Mayal tin prospectors to this day. (Kilbane, 2009, p. 41)

C. Strategies employed by the translator

As aforementioned, dealing with cultural untranslatability probably has to do with some strategies: translating by a more general words, more neutral/less expressive words, cultural substitution, loan word or loan word plus explanation, paraphrase using related words, paraphrasing unrelated words, omission, and illustration. Look at the following strategies the translator employs.

(7a) *Jumpai aku di acara sembahyang rebut.* (Hirata, 2008, p. 257)

(7b) Meet me at *Chiong Ki Su*. (Kilbane, 2009, p. 21)

In sentence (7b), the translator uses *Chiong Ki Su* for *sembahyang rebut*, a more general and widely-known term. This strategy is also applied to the following.

(8a) *Hari ini Pak Harfan mengenakan baju takwa yang dulu pasti berwarna hijau tapi kini warnanya pudar menjadi putih.*
(Hirata, 2008, p. 21)

(8b) On this first day, Pak Harfan wore a *simple shirt* that at some point must have been green, but was now white.
(Kilbane, 2009, p. 23)

In (8b) the translator uses *simple shirt* to replace *baju takwa*, which is a more specific kind of shirt. *Baju takwa* is a moslem shirt, usually with some embroidery on it and comes in many light colors. It might both short and long sleeved.

(9a) *N.A. Sahara Aulia Fadillah binti K.A. Muslim Ramdhani Fadillah, gadis kecil berkerudung itu, memang keras kepala luar biasa.* (Hirata, 2008, p. 14)

(9b) *Sahara* was extraordinary hard-headed. (Kilbane, 2009, p. 15)

In (9b), the translator omits some parts of the source text, leaving only the main word, *Sahara*.

Next strategy is using loan word or loan word plus explanation, as shown in the following sentences, though there is not enough explanation for some words.

- (10) Subhanallah, my goodness, Lintang, praise Allah's holiness, praise Allah's holiness. (Kilbane, 2009, p. 55)
- (11) I read books on the *angkot*, the public transportation minivan. (Kilbane, 2009, p. 434)

If I consider local language as a loan words, then the following sentences serve as examples of keeping loan words without explanation.

- (12a) *Kiak-kiak! A Miauw memanggil tak sabar, dan Bang Sad tergopoh-gopoh menghampirinya.* (Hirata, 2008, p. 201)
- (12b) *Kiak-kiak! A Miauw summoned his coolie, Bang Arsyad, telling him to come quickly.* (Kilbane, 2009, p. 164)

The translator also uses illustration and explanation to give information for the reader, as in the following sentences.

- (13a) *Lalu persis di bawah matahari tadi tertera huruf-huruf arab gundul yang nanti setelah kelas dua, setelah aku pandai membaca huruf arab, aku tahu bahwa tulisan itu berbunyi amar makruf nahi munkar artinya menyuruh kepada yang makruf dan mencegah dari yang mungkar. Itulah pedoman utama warga Muhamadiyah.* (Hirata, 2008, p. 19)
- (13b) I knew the sentence read *amar makruf nahi munkar*, meaning do what is good and prevent what is evil – the primary principle of Muhamadiyah, *the second largest Islamic organization in Indonesia with more than 30 millions members.* (Kilbane, 2009, p. 18-19)

D. Naturalness

This book is marvelously translated, however, it reads unnatural when it comes to the proper names. Some song titles are translated instead of given the explanation on their contents. Even the whole song is presented in English. Look at the followings.

- (14) A Kiong was singing *Berkibarlah Benderaku – May my Flag Flutter* – as if he were a drill sergeant . (Kilbane, 2009, p. 112)

- (15) After having been scolded by Bu Mus for always singing the song *Potong Bebek Angsa – Chop the Goose’s Neck* – this time I decided to progress a little with a new song: *Indonesia Tetap Merdeka, or Indonesia Forever Free* by C. Simanjuntak. (Kilbane, 2009, p. 113)

The name of a shop, the name of a radio station, and a poem below also undergo the unnecessary translation process.

- (16) *Sinar Harapan Shop – Ray of Hope Shop*, the one and only place that sold chalk in East Belitong, was very far away. (Kilbane, 2009, p. 160)
- (17) Lintang obtained knowledge from Pak Harfan’s book collection, and Mahar had artistic insight – plus he knew about music because he hung out with the local radio broadcasters from *Suara Pengejawantahan (The Voice of Manifestation)* AM. (Kilbane, 2009, p. 123)
- (18a) *Dengar anak muda, mana bisa kau hargai karya sastra bermutu, nanti jika Buya menulis lagi buku Si Kancil Anak Nakal Suka Mencuri Timun barulah buku itu cocok buatmu.* (Hirata, 2008, p. 76)
- (18b) May be if Buya writes a book called *The Bad Little Boy who Steals Cucumbers*, it would be more suitable for your literary tastes. (Kilbane, 2009, p. 63)

CONCLUDING REMARKS

Translating a source text is aimed to get the message across in the target language. Since meaning is contextual, some words which may seem to be untranslatable at first come to be something understandable with the little help from context.

Without having discovering as well as coping with the untranslatability, translators might neglect to express the actual naturalness as well as the actual source text’s accurate purpose. With respect to the idea associated with correctness towards the socio-cultural framework, nevertheless, a few translations may certainly end up being inappropriate in the target culture.

Converting this kind of culturally untranslatable products involves adequate understanding of the actual lifestyle and culture.

Cultural translation and its attendants quandaries – knowing when to explain something and when to just leave it as it – should be the main concern. It entails profound knowledge on both source and target cultures. Dealing with cultural untranslatability has to do with some strategies: translating by a more general words, more neutral/less expressive words, cultural substitution, loan word or loan word plus explanation, paraphrase using related words, paraphrasing unrelated words, omission, and illustration. Most cases in this particular work are solved by keeping cultural terms in the source language text, with or without explanation. Ecological, social, and religious culture terms undergo the process most frequently.

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ANALYZING COMPLAINTS BY INDONESIAN EFL SPEAKERS

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Abstract: The English language competence of an EFL learner can be reflected in his pragmatic competence. Yet, for language learners and teachers a mastery of the pragmatic competence may unconsciously be neglected. In other words, it may not be taught in line with the grammatical competence since the initial period of learning. The article centers on two problems: (1) the similarities and differences of speech act of complaints among Indonesian EFL learners, Indonesian EFL teachers and American native speakers, and (2) the evidence of any pragmatic transfer in the complaint performance. DCT was used to gather the data, which was then analyzed using Rinnert, Nogami and Iwai's aspects of complaining (2006). It was found that there were both differences and similarities of complaints performed by both the native and non-native speakers of English when power and social status were involved. Some evidence on pragmatic transfer was also tangible; mainly it was due to cultural differences.

Key words: pragmatic competence, speech act of complaints, pragmatic transfer

***Abstrak:** Kompetensi berbahasa Inggris seorang pembelajar bahasa Inggris dapat dilihat dari kompetensi pragmatiknya. Namun, penguasaan kompetensi pragmatik tampaknya belum menjadi prioritas utama para guru dan pembelajar bahasa Inggris. Dengan kata lain, penguasaan kompetensi pragmatik tidak seiring sejalan dengan penguasaan kompetensi tata bahasa Inggris sejak awal masa pembelajaran bahasa Inggris. Artikel berikut ini berfokus pada dua hal: (1) persamaan dan perbedaan tindak tutur mengeluh dari para*

pembelajar bahasa Inggris, guru bahasa Inggris, dan penutur bahasa Inggris Amerika, dan transfer pragmatic dalam strategi mengeluh tersebut. Instrumen pengambilan data menggunakan Discourse Completion Test, yang kemudian dianalisa berdasarkan komponen tindak tutur mengeluh dari Rinnert, Iwai dan Nogami (2006). Penelitian menunjukkan bahwa terdapat persamaan sekaligus perbedaan antara keluhan oleh penutur dan bukan penutur bahasa Inggris ketika melibatkan variabel kekuasaan dan status sosial. Juga terdapat bukti adanya transfer pragmatik, yang terutama disebabkan adanya perbedaan budaya.

Kata kunci: kompetensi pragmatik, tindak tutur mengeluh, transfer pragmatik

INTRODUCTION

Being competent second or foreign language speakers is demonstrated not only through the linguistic but also communicative competence (Hymes, 2001, p. 55). While the former covers one's performance with regard to grammatical forms including the phonological, morphological, syntactic and lexical forms, the latter displays what functions that one can produce with his grammatical knowledge, e.g. requesting, thanking, inviting, and complaining (Canale & Swain, 1980, p. 2). Nevertheless, one also needs what is called the strategic competence, which is all about one's capability in dealing with communication breakdown (Canale & Swain, 1980, p. 27).

Thus, to be able to produce appropriate utterances in a target language learners need to be exposed to various situations containing different pragmatic aspects, e.g. deixis, implicatures, and speech acts, that may require different communication strategies (Prachanant, 2006, pp. 189-190). However, numerous research has shown that it is not easy for learners to create appropriate utterances that involve the pragmatic strategies frequently used by the English native speakers. The pragmatic awareness, though, is an integrated part of a language that has to be reflected in one's language performance (Rhurakvit, 2011; Tanck, 2002; Umar, 2006).

In addition, cultural differences and lack of exposures to the commonly employed pragmatic strategies can be some of the causes of the lack of learners' pragmatic competence (Prachanant, 2006, pp. 182-183; Rhurakvit, 2011, p. 39; Azarmi & Behnam, 2012, p. 85). Culture is a product of a longitudinal construction of a society in which a language learner is a

member of, which can present in “the repeated act of speaking . . .”, hence it is always contextual (Chaudary, 2004, pp. 56, 57). In other words, different cultures require different strategies in communicating different purposes, though many strategies may be universal or apply across cultures (Kramsch, 1998, pp. 17-18; Cutting, 2002, pp. 21, 33). That is why adjusting to the culture’s target language including the pragmatic aspects may create problems for many EFL or ESL learners, even if it is said that the notion of pragmatic coherence may be shared by speakers of different languages (Kramsch, 1998, p. 28). As a matter of fact, lack of pragmatic understanding and failure of applying the pragmatic knowledge may lead to conversational misunderstanding from the hearer’s point of view as well as frustration from the learners’ side (Kramsch, 1998, pp. 29-30).

Drawing from the above problems of pragmatic competence among FL learners, the study was aimed at answering the following questions: (1) what are the differences and similarities between the Indonesian EFL learners complaints in English with those of the English native speakers?, and (2) what is the evidence of pragmatic transfer, if any? It is expected that the result of the study can highlight the need to introduce more various expressions of complaints in various contexts as those are the missing points in the curriculum of English skills in the Faculty of Education, English Department, Atma Jaya Catholic University of Indonesia (based on e-mail correspondence with the Head of the Department, June 27, 2013).

LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Speech act theory and politeness

Speech act theory is proposed by Austin in 1940s, which was later developed by Searle in 1957. It rooted itself from the philosophy of language, i.e. knowing the meaning of language and what the users can do with language. In other words, it is considered to be very crucial to discover and analyze how language has been used to fulfill human beings’ needs and serve their purposes including the effect of language to the users. Thus, language was not viewed as purely symbols or words from which merely descriptive analyses of the sentences and structures can be carried out (O’Keeffe, Clancy, & Adolphs, 2011, p. 84). Instead, people have used language to fulfill a number of minor to major functions in humans’ lives. Language actually reflects the interlocutors’ mind: what they think of, how they perform their propositions and even make others also conduct the propositions and

intentions of the speakers. To put it another way using language indicates the performance of some actions, hence, the Speech Act. (Cutting, 2002; O'Keeffe, Clancy, & Adolphs, 2011; Sbisá, 2009).

Austin (1962) in his Speech Act Theory suggests that one's utterance consists of a Locutionary Act, an Illocutionary Act, and a Perlocutionary Act. The sounds, words, symbols, texts and the meanings that uttered by humans are the Locutionary Act, whereas what the speakers actually mean with her/his utterance is the Illocutionary act. The Illocutionary Act therefore consists of the utterance and the proposition, which should meet several conditions so that it can be successfully carried out. It is imperative that the proposition and the meaning are correctly and completely understood by the hearer so that he can be expected to provide appropriate responses. The Perlocutionary Act then is the intended act performed by the hearers upon hearing the utterances (Cutting, 2002, p. 16; Mey, 2001, pp. 94-95; O'Keeffe, Clancy, & Adolphs, 2011, pp. 84-85; Sbisá, 2009, pp. 231-232).

The Speech Act is then categorized by Searle (1976) into Directives, Expressives, Declarations, Representatives and Commissives (Cutting, 2002, pp. 16-17; Mey, 2001, pp. 120-124; O'Keeffe, Clancy, & Adolphs, 2011, pp. 86-87). Each type of the Speech Act is characterized by different performative verbs, hence the classification is the improvement of Austin's performative verbs. As a speaker asks, requests, or commands a hearer to do some actions, he is performing a Directives Speech Act. When the speaker shows his feeling which is reflected in his utterances, he is presenting the hearer with Expressives Speech Act, and as the speaker gives utterances whose consequence is the alteration of the world, he is committing Declarations. Hence uttering a Representatives Speech Act, the speaker says his opinion, stance, or belief of the world's state of affairs (Mey, 2001, pp. 120, 124), and employing a Commissives Speech Act, the speaker shows that he is ready to do some particular actions in the future. The Speech Act of Complaint for example can be said to represent an Expressive Speech Act because a complaint represents the complainer's emotional state, feeling, and or opinion (Prykarpatska, 2008, p. 91; Azarmi & Behnam, 2012, p. 78)

The speech act of complaint is an example of the Expressive Speech Act for it represents the complainer's emotional state, feeling, and or opinion (Prykarpatska, 2008, p. 91; Azarmi & Behnam, 2012, p. 78). It may require politeness, whose degree is dependent upon social contexts (Brown & Levinson, 1992, p. 57). However, speech act may also inherently contain politeness, reflected in the choice of words, intonation, body language, facial

expressions or gestures (Leech, 2005, pp. 5-6). Hence, the utterances, through which one performs speech act of complaint, will consist of one's effort to express politeness. In that regard, 'face', or one's personal ideal self-representation before the society, should be taken into account. Face can be either positive or negative. The former refers to one's desire to be respected by others, while the latter is one's desire to be free from any inconvenience caused by others. Complaints, as well as insults and accusations, can potentially threaten the positive face (Brown & Levinson, 1992, pp. 61, 62, 66) if speakers produce inappropriate utterances, which may relate to improper diction, intonation, and context of EFL beginners (Olshtain & Weinbach, 1993, pp. 120-121).

B. Pragmatic transfer

Kasper and Blum-Kulka (1993) note that distinctive features across cultures have been one of the causes of the inappropriate pragmatic behavior reflected in the speech acts produced by EFL learners. If there is no communication breakdown resulting from the differences, both speakers and interlocutors may expect a positive pragmatic transfer shown across the L1 and L2 cultures. So, the higher the EFL learners' proficiency is, the more chances they have to create pragmatic transfer because they already possess ". . . control over the English . . ." to express their intended meaning in their cultures through English (Takahashi & Beebe, 1993, p. 152). However, when communication problems due to the cultural differences displayed in the pragmatic performances appear, there can be a negative transfer across the different cultures. The negative transfer does not always indicate lack of pragmatics competence, though.

A pragmatic transfer illustrates the effect of a speaker's L1 linguistic and socio-cultural aspect into the L2 (Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1993). As cultures are different from one to another, even though some values are shared universally across cultures, it is always possible that not all of the pragmatic aspects in L2 can be easily understood and conveyed in the learners' speech act. For example, in a study of refusals performed by three groups: the American English speakers, the American Japanese speakers, and the Japanese speakers, it was found that the former two groups produced more direct refusals than the last group (Kawate-Mierzejewska, 2009, p. 203). The findings indicated a pragmatic transfer of the Americans who learned Japanese as a foreign language. Another example was a study of interlanguage pragmatics between Korean and English, in which a speaker's pragmatic

transfer may lead to the improper selection of particular lexical items that would cause misinterpretation by the interlocutor (Haugh, 2010, pp. 144-145).

C. Previous studies on the speech act of complaint

There has been much research on the difference between the pragmatic competence of EFL learners and English native speakers. Tanck (2002) found that the non-native speakers of English tended to produce inappropriate complaints that may lead to unexpected situations. In addition, the non-native speakers were likely to personalize complaints, which in the American culture can be irksome to the interlocutors. Likewise, Azarmi & Benham (2012) indicated that the intermediate and upper intermediate Iranian EFL learners did not perform appropriate complaints: they preferred direct and explicit complaints without considering the FTA strategies. In the case of complaining to someone having higher position, they did not regard power and social distance in FTA strategy realization because of cultural differences, absence of pragmatic transfer & limited linguistic and socio-pragmatic competence. Similarly, Umar (2006) noted that the speech act produced by the Sudanese students was very distinctive from that performed by the British, which was the result of cultural differences between the British and the Sudanese and the low level of the Sudanese pragmatic competence. Furthermore, Prykarpatska (2008) showed that the complaint strategies of the Ukrainians were more various, and could be put in a continuum. At one end was the least offensive complaint, and on the other end to the most severe complaint. The (AES) preferred indirect strategies. Ukrainians also opted for more direct and spontaneous complaints than those performed by the AES.

With regard to the components of complaints, Rinnert, Nogami, and Iwai (2006) discovered several components of complaints, i.e. main components (comprising Initiators, Complaints, and Requests), level of directness (indirect, somewhat direct, and very direct) and amount of mitigation. They found that with regard to the level of directness, the Japanese EFL learners showed higher levels of directness in comparison to the less fluent Japanese students and the English native speakers in both situations. The English native speakers showed low level of directness. In addition, the native speakers of English preferred the indirect complaints with a considerable amount of mitigations. On the other hand, the JEFLL learners viewed direct requests to be more effective. Rhurakvit (2011) found

that the Thai English learners in Thailand seemed to have similar complaint patterns to the native Thai speakers, whereas Thai English learners in the UK performed the complaint patterns which tended to be similar to the English native speakers. Another finding was that both groups of English learners in Thailand and UK did not use downgraders appropriately from the point of view of the English native speakers. The study implied that in terms of EFL learning, students must be also taught the sociopragmatic aspects of English which would enable them to produce daily utterances the closest possible to the ones produced by the native speakers.

The earlier studies have shown that pragmatic competence is a problematic for EFL learners. None of the above research raised the pragmatic competence of Indonesian EFL learners and Indonesian EFL teachers in comparison to that of the English native speakers, hence the focus of the present study.

METHODOLOGY

To collect the data I used the non-attested data since I want to get a clear picture on the subjects' pragmatic competence (Bednarek, 2011, p. 540). Hence, the study employed the Discourse Completion Tasks or Discourse Completion Tests (DCTs) (Tanck, 2002; Rinnert, Nogami, & Iwai, 2006; Umar, 2006; O'Keeffe, A., Clancy, B., and Adolphs, S., 2011) which were distributed to Indonesian EFL teachers, Indonesian EFL students and American native-speaker teachers, who were selected based on convenient sampling. There were fourteen EFL students (henceforth the IES) of the Faculty of Education, English Department, Atma Jaya Catholic University of Indonesia, ten Indonesian EFL lecturers (henceforth the IEL), of the same university one teacher of *LIA Language Course*, and eight American English native speaking teachers of the Regional English Language Office, Jakarta (henceforth the ANS) participating the study.

The DCT, consisting of four situations, two of which were distractors (vide Appendix 1) was analyzed using the components of complaints by Rinnert, Nogami & Iwai (2006). I am curious as to whether the IES and IEL would behave similarly or differently from the Japanese subjects in the study by Rinnert, Nogami & Iwai, bearing in mind there are some cultural similarities between the Indonesians and the Japanese such as respect and politeness to the older generation, and indirectness in speech acts that would potentially threaten the face of the hearers. The two distractors were taken

from Tanck (2002, pp. 20, 21), while the other two situations requested the subjects to produce complaints to an interlocutor of the same age in a queue (Umar, 2006, p. 36), and to a teacher about a low grade (Park, 2001, p. 190). The pragmatic transfer analysis was based on Kasper and Blum-Kulka's notion of pragmatic transfer (1993). In addition to the DCT, I had an Informed Consent and Demographic Survey (vide Appendix 1) in order to get the subjects' ages, genders, occupations, and language backgrounds. Also, I interviewed five IES to confirm several ambiguous lexical items that may provide several meanings.

RESULTS

In this section, I present my findings according to the situations for which the speech act of complaint was required. I will start by describing the third situation, followed by elucidating the fourth situation.

Situation 1:

You need to buy a ticket to travel to a nearby city to visit your family over the weekend. You go to the ticket office at the train station and you have to wait in a long line to get a ticket. The tickets are almost sold out. You have been waiting there for more than an hour. While you are standing in line, someone about your age, tries to cut in line in front of you. What would you say to him/her?

The data showed that there are some differences and similarities in terms of the following points: (1) lexical items used in Initiators, (2) level of directness, (3) mitigation and (4) patterns of complaints. In terms of Initiators, while around half of the IES used *sorry*, the Indonesian EFL teachers (55%) and the ANS (75%) preferred *excuse me* (vide Table 1). Thus, both the IET and the ANS would rather use *excuse me* than any other openings. Yet, the IET (27%) and IES (14%) used one word: *hey*, that was not chosen by the ANS.

For the IES the word *sorry* functioned to mitigate their complaints (Hau, 2013) (Karina, 2013) (Rosalina, 2013). Another purpose was to express politeness (Karina, 2013), and as an attention getter (Hau, 2013). Interestingly, one student admitted that she used *sorry* to remind the interlocutor that what he did (jumping the line) was not appropriate

(Purwanti, 2013). The same student, who is a Javanese, also employed *eh*, which functions as warm greeting, which was part of her culture (Purwanti, 2013) (cf. Kawate-Mierzejewska, 2009, p. 203; Haugh, 2010, pp. 144-145). Another lexical item that attracted my attention was *hey*, that was used by both Indonesian students and teachers. The interviews revealed that the lexical item *hey* was used for these reasons: (1) as an attention getter, (2) and to show a distant relationship with the interlocutor (Karina, 2013); (Purwanti, 2013). The ANS did not use *hey* at all, which might indicate that politeness was still maintained even when complaining to a stranger who had caused some inconvenience.

With regards to the level of directness, the IES (93%) and IET (73%) opted for a very direct complaint in which there was an explicit mention of offense or inconvenience the interlocutor had caused the speaker, and the interlocutor's responsibility to redress the situation (cf. Rinnert, Nogami & Iwai, 2006, p. 39), while the ANS used "somewhat direct" complaints (88%) in which the speaker told the interlocutor about his wrong doing, but does not ask the interlocutor to improve the situation (vide Table 1).

Employing very direct level of complaint, the IES and the IET did not seem to save both the positive and negative faces of their interlocutors (Mey, 2001, pp. 74-75) and might potentially lead to a negative pragmatic transfer (Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1993; Takahashi & Beebe, 1993). The interviews with the IES presented some important points: the directness was a projection of their unhappy feelings and disagreement with the interlocutor's action, and or an attempt to have an effective complaint, i.e. the interlocutor knows that his behavior was inappropriate and would immediately redress the situation (Gabriella 2013; Hau, 2013; Rosalina 2013).

Despite their reasons, direct complaints may lead to a conflict between the subjects and their interlocutors (cf. Tanck, 2002, pp. 7-8; Prykarpatska, 2008, p. 94), especially when the complaint was compared to the ANS who employed somewhat direct complaint, the decision of which may be due to the politeness. One student, however, said that she performed an indirect complaint because she wanted her interlocutor to infer her complaint, the decision of which was influenced by her Javanese culture (Purwanti, 2013), which could indicate a positive pragmatic transfer from Javanese to English.

All groups used mitigation constantly, regardless of the level of directness. The IES liked to use *sorry* and *please* (50%, respectively) better than *could*, *better*, and *thank you*, which do not support similar research. Forty-

five percent of the IET, on the other hand, preferred *please*. Meanwhile, the ANS did not show strong preference for one or two particular words. Instead, they used various lexemes like *sorry*, *would*, *guess*, *think* and other forms, i.e. rhetorical questions.

The patterns of complaints used by the three groups were somewhat different (vide Table 2). Forty-three percent of the IES used I+C+R. Another 43% used I+R, the pattern which is not selected by the ANS. Meanwhile, more than half of the IET (64%) apply I+R, which seems to reflect their politeness. Finally, 75% of the ANS made use of I+C. Thus, both the IET and the ANS prefer one pattern to the others. The frequent use of Initiators by the three groups shows an awareness of face-saving strategies regardless of the different cultures (Leech, 2005; Murphy & Neu, 2005).

Situation 2:

You received your final grades. You were shocked that Professor Andrea Smith gave you a C. Her class was one of your favorites and you studied very hard. You got an A on your report, so you don't understand why your final grade was so low. You knock on the door of her office. You say . . .

In a different situation where subjects had to make complaints to their teacher, the IES and IET show similar ways in initiating a conversation (vide Table 3). More than eighty percent of the two groups employ address terms like *Ma'am*, *Professor* or *Sir*, that are accompanied by opening expressions like *would like* or *want to*, which is contrary to what Rinnert, Nogami & Iwai (2006) found. Thus, the IES' and IET's constant use of the above address terms shows that there is a pragmatic transfer (Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1993, pp. 10-11; Takahashi & Beebe, 1993, p. 152; cf. Kawate-Mierzejewska, 2009, p. 203). Indonesians value seniority highly, hence rarely do Indonesians address their teachers or older acquaintances by merely their names. Instead, they used address terms such as *Bapak* for male, *Ibu* for female. On the other hand, only half of the ANS use the same address term. They also used *Hi* or *Hello*, the items of which are not used at all by IES and the IET. Besides, the ANS used chunk like *how are you*, which is not chosen by both the IES and IET.

With reference to the level of directness, the three groups do not show any strong preference of level of directness. The IES do not show a strong preference for one particular style. Less than half of the students (43%) perform very direct complaints; the rest are divided into those employing

'somewhat direct' complaints (29%) and indirect complaints (29%). On the other hand, more than half of the IET (55%) employ indirect complaints, and the rest (45%) very direct complaints. Interestingly, 38% of the ANS chose very direct complaints, 38% indirect complaints, and 25% somewhat direct complaints. It can be seen that in general, the subjects seem to avoid using very direct complaints when power and social distance are involved (cf. Behnam & Niroomand, 2011, p. 211).

With regards to the lexical items used in the mitigation, 43% of the IES use *would*, 21% *could*, and 14% *sorry*. Meanwhile, 36% of the IET employed *may*, 27% *would*, and 27% *could*. Hence, the frequent use of mitigation as well as the appropriate address terms by both IES and IET indicate a positive pragmatic transfer (Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1993, pp. 10-11), which is opposed to Rinnert, Nogami & Iwai's findings (2006). The ANS also employ *would* (50%) as well as *just* (38%) and *wonder* (38%). Besides, they have other expressions like *a little*, *feel like*, *well*, *great* to mitigate their complaints. The ANS' use of more various expressions show the dynamicity and fluidity of language use, which Indonesian subjects lack.

The IES do not seem to have a preference for one pattern (vide Table 4); 36% of the students used I+R, 29% I+C, and 21% only I. On the other hand, over half of the IET choose one particular pattern, i.e. I or Initiators. The rest used I+C+R. The ANS' choice is almost similar to that of the IET. The ANS also used I (38%), and I+C+R (38%). In addition, they employ another pattern: I+R (25%).

The three groups had different patterns for the two situations. While the IES prefer I+C+R, and I+R (43%, respectively) for Situation 3, they opt for I+R (36%) for Situation 4. Meanwhile, IET mostly prefer I+R for Situation 3 (64%), but use I only (73%) for Situation 4. The ANS also have a tendency for using different patterns: 75% of them preferred I+C for Situation 3. However, they do not show a strong tendency for the other situation: they either employ I (38%), I+C+R (38%), and I+R (25%). The differences, I believe, are relevant to the contextual differences reflected in the two situations, particularly concerning the power and social distance between the speakers and their interlocutors (cf. Behnam & Niroomand, 2011, p. 211), which does not support Rinnert, Nogami and Iwai's findings (2006).

CONCLUSION

To this point, I have presented how the IES, the IET and the ANS performed the English pragmatic competence through the speech act of complaints. Due to cultural aspects and exposures to the English pragmatic competence, there have been several differences and similarities performed by the Indonesiansubjects and the ANS.

In a situation that involved no power and social status between the speakers and their interlocutors, the two groups had different preferences for the different lexical items used in the Initiators and Mitigation. In addition, both the IET and IES tended to be more direct or explicit to a stranger of their age than the native speakers did (cf. Abdolrezapour, Dabaghi, & Kassaian, 2012; Prykarpatska, 2008;) indicating the unawareness of the face-saving strategies which may potentially lead to a negative pragmatic transfer. Also, while the IET favored Initiators + Requests, and the Americans Initiators + Complaints, the IES did not show a preference for one pattern of complaint over the other patterns. That may be an indication of the IES' lack of pragmatic awareness in conversation (cf. Rinnert, Nogami & Iwai, 2006), which should be the attention of the syllabus maker (Celce-Murcia, 2007)

The similarities appeared in the situation where power and social status were taken into account, i.e. teachers or older people are considered to have more power and higher social status than students do (cf. Azarmi & Behnam, 2012; Prykarpatska, 2008). All groups evidently did not strong preference for very direct complaint which did not support findings of Rinnert, Nogami & Iwai (2006) in which the student subjects performed very direct complaints to their teachers. Besides, they used more mitigation, and employed it constantly, which was also contrary to the study by Rinnert, Nogami & Iwai (2006) in which the Japanese students used fewer mitigation when complaining to their teacher.

Finally, looking at the use of address terms and regular mitigation, I can conclude that there was a positive pragmatic transfer from Indonesian to English. Due to the limitations of the study, particularly concerning the sampling and validation of the DCT result, a further study covering more number of subjects with in-depth interviews should be conducted in the future.

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APPENDICES:

Table 1:
Components of complaints to a stranger in a queue

COMPONENTS COMPLAINTS INITIATORS	OF SUBJECTS		
	IES n=14	IET n=11	ANS n=8
Sorry	50%	18%	13%
Excuse me	29%	55%	75%
Hey	14%	27%	0%
Hi	0%	0%	13%
Dude	0%	0%	13%
DIRECTNESS			
Very direct	93%	73%	13%
Somewhat direct	7%	9%	88%
Indirect	0%	18%	0%
MITIGATION			
Sorry	50%	9%	13%
Could	21%	0%	0%
Please	50%	45%	0%
Better	14%	0%	0%
Thank you	14%	0%	0%
Would	0%	9%	13%
Guess	0%	9%	13%
Think	0%	0%	13%
Others	0%	0%	25%

Table 2:
Patterns of complaints in a queue

PATTERNS OF COMPLAINTS	SUBJECTS		
	IES n=14	IEL n=11	ANS n=8
Initiators + Complaints + Requests (I+C+R)	43%	9%	13%
Initiators + Complaints (I+C)	7%	27%	75%

Initiators + Requests (I+R)	43%	64%	0%
Complaints + Requests (C=R)	7%	0%	0%
Complaints (C)	0%	0%	13%

Table 3:
Components of complaints about a low grade to a teacher

COMPONENTS OF COMPLAINTS	SUBJECTS		
	IES n=14	IEL n=11	ANS n=8
Good morning/afternoon	29%	36%	13%
Ma'am/Sir/Prof	86%	82%	50%
Would like/want to	64%	55%	63%
May I/can I/could I?	21%	36%	0%
Sorry	7%	0%	13%
Excuse me	29%	55%	0%
Do you have time/a minute?/	14%	0%	25%
Are you busy?/am I interrupting you?			
I need to / I come to . . .	0%	18%	0%
Hi/Hello	0%	0%	75%
How are you?	0%	0%	25%
I was wondering . . .	0%	0%	13%
DIRECT			
Very direct	43%	45%	38%
Somewhat direct	29%	0%	25%
Indirect	29%	55%	38%
MITIGATION			
Sorry	14%	9%	13%
Could	21%	27%	13%
Please	7%	0%	0%
Thank you	7%	9%	0%
Would	43%	27%	50%
Think	7%	0%	0%
Just	7%	9%	38%
Wonder	7%	9%	38%
May	7%	36%	0%
Others	14%	9%	75%

Table 4:
Patterns of complaints to a teacher

PATTERNS OF COMPLAINTS	SUBJECTS		
	IES n=14	IEL n=11	ANS n=8
Initiators + Complaints + Requests (I+C+R)	14%	27%	38%
Initiators + Complaints (I+C)	29%	0%	0%
Initiators + Requests (I+R)	36%	0%	25%
Complaints + Requests (C+R)	0%	0%	0%
Complaints (C)	0%	0%	0%
Initiators (I)	21%	73%	38%

Part 1:

Discourse Completion Test

Directions: Please write your response in the blank area. Do not spend a lot of time thinking about what answer you should provide; instead, please respond as naturally as possible and write your response as you feel you would say it in the situation.

1. A classmate that you have known for a couple of years stops by your desk at the library and invites you to lunch. You want to leave school early today, so you would rather work through lunch to get ahead on your project.

Classmate: "Hi. How have you been? Hey, do you want to go to the cafeteria and get a bite to eat?"

You: _____

2. You are working on a group project with three other students. Your group is having a discussion with your professor late Friday afternoon. It is 5:30pm. You are planning to pick up a friend at the airport immediately after the meeting and must leave the university within 15 minutes.

Professor: “*Hey, it’s getting late. Why don’t we all go down to the cafeteria? We can finish up there while we eat dinner.*”

You: _____

3. You need to buy a ticket to travel to a nearby city to visit your family over the weekend. You go to the ticket office at the train station and you have to wait in a long line to get a ticket. The tickets are almost sold out. You have been waiting there for more than an hour. While you are standing in line, someone about your age, tries to cut in line in front of you. What would you say to him/her?

You: _____

4. You received your final grades. You were shocked that Professor Andrea Smith gave you a C. Her class was one of your favorites and you studied very hard. You got an A on your report, so you don't understand why your final grade was so low. You knock on the door of her office.

Professor: “*Come in!*”

You: _____

Part 2.

Demographic Information

1. Age and Gender:
2. Nationality:
3. Occupation:
4. Educational background:
5. First language:

Thank You

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TEACHER QUESTIONING IN CLASSROOM INTERACTION

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Abstract: Questions play an important role in every classroom-both students' questions and teachers' questions. The types of question used by teacher can help students to lift their own levels of understanding toward the concept given or even to build up new ideas. The study explored (1) how eventually teachers provide some ease to the students in creating an interactive classroom interaction through questions and answers exchanges; (2) how the questioning technique used by the teachers might encourage the students to be active in classroom interaction. By using Brown's Interaction Analysis System (BIAS) the data were analyzed in order to find out what types of question were mostly used by the teachers during teaching learning process in encouraging the student's activeness. The data were collected through observations in two English classes in SMP N 2 Pekalongan with two different English teachers. The data showed that the cognitive level of teacher's questions which mostly occurred was lower order cognitive questions. The questions were aimed to invite the learners to speak and deliver their ideas. Based on the observed data, in details, the result showed that teachers used recall questions for 52%, comprehension for 42% and application occupied the remaining that was 6%. The target language was usually used on several occasions such as praising, encouraging, explaining and giving directions during the classroom interaction. Therefore, the suggestions are given to the teacher to understand practical uses of questioning techniques in minimizing students' barriers to speak up in English.

Key words: Teacher's questioning, types of questions, BIAS, cognitive level, classroom interaction

Abstract: *Pertanyaan memainkan peran penting di setiap kelas- baik pertanyaan guru dan pertanyaan siswa. Beberapa jenis pertanyaan yang digunakan oleh guru dapat membantu siswa untuk meningkatkan pemahaman mereka terhadap konsep yang diberikan atau bahkan untuk membangun ide baru. Penelitian ini berupaya menggali (1) bagaimana guru mempermudah siswa dalam menciptakan interaksi kelas yang interaktif melalui pertanyaan dan jawaban; (2) bagaimana teknik pertanyaan yang digunakan oleh guru yang mungkin dapat mendorong siswa untuk aktif dalam interaksi kelas. Dengan menggunakan Brown Interaction Analysis System (BIAS) data dianalisis untuk mengetahui jenis pertanyaan yang sering kali digunakan guru selama proses belajar mengajar dalam mendorong keaktifan siswa. Data dikumpulkan melalui observasi di dua kelas bahasa Inggris di SMPN 2 Pekalongan dengan dua guru bahasa Inggris yang berbeda. Data menunjukkan bahwa tingkat kognitif pertanyaan guru yang sebagian besar terjadi adalah pertanyaan kognitif dengan tingkatan yang lebih rendah. Beberapa pertanyaan itu bertujuan untuk mengajak peserta didik untuk berbicara dan menyampaikan ide mereka. Berdasarkan data yang diamati , secara detail , hasil analisis menunjukkan bahwa guru menggunakan jenis pertanyaan recall sebesar 52%, comprehension sebesar 42% dan application sebesar 6%. Bahasa target biasanya digunakan pada beberapa kesempatan seperti memuji, mendorong, menjelaskan dan memberikan arah selama interaksi kelas. Oleh karena itu, saran yang diberikan kepada guru untuk memahami penggunaan praktis dari teknik pertanyaan dalam mengurangi kesulitan siswa untuk berbicara dalam bahasa Inggris.*

Kata kunci: *pertanyaan guru, jenis pertanyaan, BIAS, tingkatan kognitif, interaksi kelas*

INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, English is important and used by people all over the world. That's why people are interested in learning this language. Based on the newest curriculum-2013 Curriculum, the purpose of English education in Indonesia is to enable students to use English communicatively as a

communication means. Students of junior high school are targeted to be able to develop their communication competence to achieve the functional literacy, means that students should be able to communicate in English either spoken or written to solve daily problems they face (Depdiknas 2006, p. 5).

The target that has to be reached will be a challenging task for the teachers. Furthermore, the inexistence of speaking class in junior high schools becomes another case to be paid attention for the teachers in gaining the purpose since there is no appropriate time to train students' speaking skill. As the result, teachers have to conduct good and successful teaching.

Although there are no agreed conceptual or operational definitions of good teaching and successful teaching, Brown (1975, p. 11) explains that good teaching is in the eyes of the beholders and successful teaching is in the performance of the students. Harmer (2002, p. 56) also asserts that the indicator of a good lesson is the student's questioning activities during the teaching learning process, not the performance of the teachers. In this case, the teachers must create an interactive class so that the teaching learning process will go interactively and eventually students can understand the concept given well.

A good teaching learning process does not only put the teachers as single main source but also involve the students in that process. The involvement of the students is an important thing in every teaching learning process as there will be an excellent interaction among the teachers and the students. In creating an interactive classroom, teachers need to provide supports, which can be in the form of questions, to students by interacting and involving them in order to train their speaking skill also to ensure that the students master the concepts. The supports given by the teachers and the result of them will clearly be seen in spoken cycle through teacher's talk and students' talk or students' speaking performance.

The purpose of this study was to describe what types of questions used by the teachers in helping the students to find some ease in speaking English particularly in classroom interaction. The types of question used by the teachers might help students to lift their own levels of understanding toward the concept given or even to build new knowledge therefore; it also

could train students' speaking skill. How the teachers provide and support students using some types of question would be discussed in this study. The questions raised in this study are presented as follows:

1. What types of question which are mostly used by the teachers in teaching learning processes?
2. How do the questioning technique used by the teachers encourage the students to be active in classroom interaction?

THE GENERAL CONCEPT OF QUESTIONING

There are lots of studies about the use of Questioning in helping students learning target language and improving students' achievement. Regarding the study done by Cotton (2001) entitled "The Schooling Practices That Matter Most", the findings reported in his summary are drawn from thirty-seven study documents. The study is concerned with a variety of treatments. By far the largest number of documents - twenty-six - is concerned with the relative effects on student learning produced by questions at lower and higher cognitive levels. That's why I am interested in carrying on the study about the use types of question in helping students understand the concepts or materials given and even to build new knowledge also improving their speaking skill.

The skills of questioning are as old as the instruction itself. They are the basis of the method of the teaching developed by Socrates in the fifth century B.C. Despite this long history of the use of questions, it is surprisingly difficult to define precisely what a question is. Brown (1975, p. 103) has given a general definition of question. He states that a question would be any statement which tests or creates knowledge in the learner.

Cotton (2001) defined a question inas any sentence that has an interrogative form or function. In classroom settings, teacher questions are defined as instructional cues or stimuli that convey to students the content elements to be learned and directions for what they are to do and how they are to do it. According to the quotations above, in my opinion, a question is any sentence in the interrogative form that can arouse learners' interest to the content elements to be learned and create knowledge of them. The

idea of using questions came up as the result of creating active and interactive classroom activities so that the teachers can use students' knowledge to lift their understanding toward the lesson to develop their speaking skills. Yet, the students will produce English sentences while they are conveying their idea, interacting and communicating each other by increasing their talking time.

Turney states, "the purposeful use by teachers of questioning provides a sound structure for the promotion and sustaining of pupil learning" (1983, p. 72). It can be drawn that these purposes are generally pursued in the context of classroom performance, defined as a series of teacher questions, each eliciting a student response and sometimes a teacher reaction to that response. It is clear that in order to help students through questions; the teacher should be able to identify various types of question, effectively use the various types of question in teaching, and help the students to give better answers. The awareness of the use of various types of question will also help the teachers to plan ways of monitoring how far the students master the concepts given and evaluating students' learning.

THE COMPONENTS OF QUESTIONING

According to Brown (1975, p. 104), there are at least four out of eight components in questioning techniques which should be mastered by teachers:

A. Clarity and Coherence

Teachers should give questions clearly, easily to be understood by the students, not confusing, and coherently expressed. Teachers should not give questions with conflicting alternatives or 'double barreled questions' in order to avoid confusing the students. If the students do not respond the questions, the questions should be repeated and rephrased. In the early stages of teaching, clear and coherent questions should be planned and written in the lesson plans and scrutinized carefully, especially in using high level cognitive questions.

B. Pausing and Pacing

Pausing after asking and also varied pacing at which teachers ask a question is important. Beginner teachers frequently ask more questions than they receive answers (Brown, 1975, p. 105). The speed of delivery of a question is determined by the kind of questions asked. Low level cognitive questions can be asked quickly, but more complex questions, in this case are high level cognitive questions, should be preceded by a short pause, should be asked slowly and clearly, and also should be followed by a long pause.

C. Directing and Distributing

Teachers should direct some questions at individual students and distribute questions among the whole group of students around the class. While asking questions, teachers can use them as controlling tools since teachers should monitor the class to see who is attending and who is not attending. If a question cannot be answered by the first person asked, after a pause, teacher can redirect it to another pupil. Directing questions towards students in a non-threatening way will help to draw them in a discussion. If they give response and their responses should as far as possible be praised and subsequently used again in the discussion. If they cannot respond, teachers should redirect the question to another pupil after giving them an encouraging nod and remark.

D. Prompting and Probing

Prompting and probing can be given to any weak answers uttered by the students. Prompting consists of giving hints to help the students formulating their answers. A series of prompts followed by encouragement can help students to gain confidence in giving replies. Probing questions can direct the pupil to think more deeply about his initial answer and to express himself more clearly. In so doing they develop a pupil's critical awareness and his communication skill. Prompting and probing can be given to help students especially for higher order cognitive questions because these types of questions need more hints to help students formulating their answers in giving replies. Prompting and probing can also help teachers deliver the questions and choose which types of question which appropriate so that they do not overwhelm the students.

These components of questioning are important to be accomplished and used by the teachers, so that they can create effective and interactive classroom through the exchanging of questions-answers during the teaching learning process in a conversation class. However, I will only analyze prompting and probing since in BIAS only these two components of questioning which are included to be analyzed in this study.

COGNITIVE LEVEL OF QUESTION

There are many types of question. According to Bloom there are 6: Knowledge, Comprehension, Application, Analysis, Synthesis, and Evaluation. While according to Brown (1975, p. 103) there are two types of question: lower order cognitive questions and higher order cognitive questions. And supporting Brown's idea, Cotton (2001) also grouped types of question into two: lower and higher cognitive questions. Even though question is the basis of the teaching method and interest to researchers and practitioners because of its widespread use as a contemporary teaching technique, but often coming up some questions, such as, should the teachers be asking questions which require literal recall of text content and only very basic reasoning? Or ought the teachers to be posing questions which call for speculative, inferential and evaluative thinking? The majority of researchers, however, have conducted more simple comparisons: they have looked at the relative effects on student outcomes.

Cotton (2001) has given the definition of lower and higher cognitive questions. Lower cognitive questions are those which ask the student merely to recall verbatim or in his/her own words material previously read or taught by the teacher. Higher cognitive questions are defined as those which ask the student to mentally manipulate bits of information previously learned to create an answer or to support an answer with logically reasoned evidence. While Brown (1975, p. 103) defines lower order question are questions which are used to create correct single answers and higher order questions are questions which used to create new knowledge in the learner. In my study I will use Brown's types of questions. Categories of teacher questions are as follows:

Lower

1. Compliance: The pupil is expected to comply with a command worded as a question

2. Rhetorical: The pupil is not expected to reply. The teacher answers his/her own questions
3. Recall: Does the pupil recall what he has seen or read?
4. Comprehension: Does the pupil understand what he recalls?
5. Application: Can the pupil apply rules and techniques to solve problems that have a single correct answer?

Higher

6. Analysis: Can the pupil identify motives and causes, and make inferences and give examples to support his statement?
7. Synthesis: Can the pupil make predictions, solve problems or produce interesting position of ideas and images?
8. Evaluation: Can the pupil judge the quality of ideas, or problem solutions, or works of art? Can he give rationally based opinions on issues or controversies? (Brown, 1975, p. 108)

RESEARCH METHOD

Classroom interaction has primarily been studied from a psycholinguistic or cognitive perspective to examine how individual learners acquire linguistic knowledge and skills through interaction with teachers or other language learners. Hughes (2002, p. 27) shows that these studies are generally based on empirical, semi-real world data, gathered through recording and transcribing oral performance to investigate a central research question or a hypothesis. Nevertheless, this study only focused on the teachers' questioning. This is a study of teacher questioning and student response interaction during conversation class. It emphasizes on the verbal interaction among the teacher and students, which is considered as a core element in the teaching learning process. I tried to find out what types of question mostly used by the teachers during the teaching learning process in a conversation class. The idea of giving types of questions during the teaching learning process in conversation class was to train students' speaking skill since the students would produce English sentences in answering the questions which increased students talking time.

I used the qualitative data analysis, in which I described, explained, and gave reason for the findings, data, and arguments. Nunan (1992) suggests that qualitative research advocates the use of qualitative methods concern with the understanding of human behavior from the actor's own frame of reference, exploratory, descriptive and process-oriented.

This study tried to explore the teacher questioning and student response interaction which were analyzed in seven categories based on Brown's Interaction Analysis System (BIAS). It also tried to identify the types of question used by the junior high school English teachers during conversation class based on Brown (1975, p. 103). Even BIAS can be regarded as old-school theory, but the framework of this system is really suitable for analyzing the questions.

Dealing with the validity upon this study, I used triangulation method to maximize the validity of it. Triangulation is a method in research used to measure the validity of data by using other instruments (Moleong, 2004). The triangulation method which was used by the researcher in this study was by comparing and crosschecking the data gained from observation with that of from interview (Alwasilah, 2002).

SITE AND PARTICIPANTS

The object of the study was the classroom interaction in conversation classes at SMP Negeri 2 Pekalongan since the purpose of this study was the analysis of teacher questioning and student response interaction. The participants who involved in the interaction were two English teachers of SMP Negeri 2 Pekalongan. Teacher A was graduated from Semarang State University in 2007. She has already had experiences in teaching for almost five years. She had ever taught a kindergarten level student, she taught all the primary subjects in English. She also had ever taught an immersion class and in International School. Teacher B was a senior English Teacher who was graduated from Semarang State University in 1991. She has had teaching experiences for more than 10 years at the level of junior high school. All participant was voluntary. I guaranteed their anonymity although they me permission to use their real names in my reserach report.

DATA COLLECTION AND CODING

In order to collect the data, I directly observed the teachers and students interactions in the English conversation class. I did the observation in two ways: by recording the teaching learning process and taking field notes. The procedures of collecting data were as follows:

1. Making a try out in coding
Before doing the observation and witnessing the classroom activity, I made a try out in coding. The try out was done in SMP N 2 Pekalongan.
2. Witnessing the classroom activity as field observation.
Because of the limit of the time, I only recorded two classes and one meeting for each class. So, there would be two meetings altogether. The meetings occurred in 90 minutes.
3. Recording the classroom activity in the form of audiotape.
While recording the classroom interaction, I marked and coded also took notes any information about types of question used by the teachers.
4. Copying the record into written form
In copying the record into written form, I played the record and listened to it then transferred the data in transcription of the dialogues.
5. Analyzing the data interaction by classifying the data by using Brown's Interaction Analysis System (BIAS) suggested by Brown (1975: 66-67). I classified the interaction data into seven categories: TL = Teacher describes, explains, narrates, directs, TQ = Teacher Questions, TR = Teacher Responds to pupils' response, PR = Pupils' Response to teachers' questions, PV = Pupils' Volunteer information, comments, or questions, S = Silence, and X = Unclassifiable. The teachers' questions were classified into two: lower order cognitive questions consist of recall, comprehension and application; and higher order

cognitive questions consist of analysis, synthesis, and evaluation.

RESULTS AND FINDINGS

Initially the data analysis presents general finding of the use types of question by the junior high school English teachers during teacher - student interaction in conversation class. Afterwards, the data analysis describes the implementation of types of question during the teaching learning process.

In recording the interaction during teaching learning process, I followed the model suggested by Brown that was three seconds as one time unit recording instead of ten or five second intervals. As he explains that ten or five second intervals prove to be more difficult than three seconds because so many things can happen in the time interval that judgment of what is happening at the end of the intervals is difficult (1975: 73). The results of the two time observations are presented below:

Teacher A

Beginning the lesson, teacher A discussed about the students' favorite stuff. The class activities were guided by some questions about the topic. She pointed at the students randomly. The teacher encouraged her students to answer the questions and accepted any answers from them. It lasted for about 5 minutes. Then, the teacher read a dialog in Part A for the students and asked them to repeat. Next, the teacher discussed the difficult words. She then asked the students to practice the dialog with their partners and also checked the students' pronunciation. Those activities lasted for approximately 10 minutes.

Next, the teacher gave a game and played it with the students. The game was giving some statements based on the dialogue in Part B, and the students should give responses to every single statement. If the statement was true, the students should stand up but if the statement was false, the students should raise their left hands. The situation in the class was alive and the students enjoyed the game. While playing the game, the teacher also asked the difficult words to the students. It took 10 minutes. Then,

the teacher asked whether the students like playing the game or not. She also explained the expressions of like and dislike in Part C. Then she drilled the students using the expressions by asking them to find out 5 friends who have the same opinion about “like and dislike”. But before that, she gave examples in order to make the students understood. It lasted almost 15 minutes. Then, the teacher moved to activity in Part D that was practicing dialog by using provided words. The students were assigned to practice that dialog with a partner. It took for about 15 minutes. Then the teacher moved around the class to check the students’ work.

Next, the teacher asked the students to do exercise in Part F that was continuing a dialog. It took about 15 minutes. After that, she asked them to practice the dialog they made in front of the class until the bell rang.

Next, I completed each of verbal interaction with the descriptive codes based on the seven categories of teacher – student interaction of Brown’s Interaction Analysis System (BIAS). After that, I plotted the coded data into a matrix to find out the teacher-student interaction during the teaching learning process.

A brief analysis from table 1 above indicates that the teacher is responsible for 16 % of the talk, the students for 9 %, silence period for 1 % and unclassifiable occupied the remaining that is 74 %.

Explicitly the teacher’s talk time was spent in the following ways:

- | | |
|----------------------|------|
| a. Teacher Lecturing | 11 % |
| b. Teacher Question | 2 % |
| c. Teacher Response | 3 % |

While the students’ talk was spent in the following ways:

- | | |
|--------------------|-----|
| a. Pupil Response | 8 % |
| b. Pupil Volunteer | 1 % |

The silence period was 1 % and the unclassifiable was 74 % which was spent for activities that were not included in the seven categories based on Brown. The examples of the activities were: teachers checked the attendance list, teachers gave handout, students helped teachers distributing handout, students talked in their native language (*Bahasa*

Indonesia) so that it made the classroom situation became noisy and the communication could not be understood, students gave response to the teachers in the form of actions or gestures while they were playing games, students did exercises from the handout e.g. preparing their dialog, teachers circulated the class to check the students' work, students looked for the meaning of some words in the dictionary, students moved around the class and make some noise. Teacher A used three types of question; they were recall, comprehension, and application questions. She used recall questions for 81 % from the whole questions, comprehension questions for 8 %, and application questions occupied the remaining that was 11 %.

Teacher B

In the beginning of the lesson, teacher B asked the students' favorite foods, like and dislikes expressions. It took about 5 minutes. Then the teacher gave handout and read the dialog loudly. The teacher also asked the students whether they understood what the dialog told about. Next, she asked the students to practice the dialog with their partner at their seats. The teacher pointed the students randomly. After that the teacher read the dialog and the students repeated the teacher. The teacher then divided the class became two groups. Group one got the turn to read Anna's dialog and group two got the turn to read Katie's dialog since there were two girls namely Anna and Katie in the dialog. Then, the teacher switched the role. Group one acted as Katie and group two acted as Anna. After that she discussed the difficult words. Next, the teacher asked the students to identify like and dislike expressions in the dialog. It lasted for about 10 minutes. Then, she moved on activities B. The students did the exercises and after they finished doing the exercises in Part B, the teacher discussed the answers and some difficult words. Next, she moved on activities in Part C. She explained the expressions and then drilled the expressions. She mentioned some foods' and drinks' name then asked the students to give response which was determined by the teacher. Those activities lasted for approximately 10 minutes. Then the teacher moved on activities in Part D. The teacher asked the students to make a dialog. But before that, she read the example on the handout then asked them to practice it first. The class became so noisy since they practiced the dialog and asked each other. After 15 minutes, the teacher called her students randomly to perform the dialog in front of the class with their partner.

There were 10 pairs presenting the task in front of the class. Some of them acted very well, but most of them only read the text plainly. Next, the teacher moved on activities in Part E. The teacher asked the students to find another partner's favorite foods and drinks also the reason why they like them using the expressions they have learnt. The teacher checked the students' work and asked some students to practice using the expressions in their seat. After that, the teacher moved on activities in Part F. She asked the students to make dialog with their partners and performed it in front of the class. After 15 minutes, the teacher pointed the students randomly to practice in front of class. Thus, the activities lasted almost 35 minutes until the bell rang. A brief analysis above indicates that the teacher is responsible for 17 % of the talk, the students for 16 %, silence period for 0 % and unclassifiable occupied the remaining that is 67 %.

Explicitly the teacher's talk time was spent in the following ways:

a. Teacher Lecturing	10 %
b. Teacher Question	4 %
c. Teacher Response	3 %

While the students' talk was spent in the following ways:

a. Pupil Response	16 %
b. Pupil Volunteer	0 %

The silence period was 0 % and the unclassifiable was 67 % which was spent for activities that were not included in the seven categories based on Brown. Teacher B used three types of question; they were recall, comprehension, and application questions. She used recall questions for 72 %, comprehension questions for 24 %, and application questions occupied the remaining that was 4 %.

Record of the Overall Types of Question used by the Teachers

We can see that from the whole time of teacher talk, it was mostly spent for lecturing that was 8 %. The teacher questioning was 4 % and teacher respond was 2 %. From those only 4 % of the whole time which were used for questioning, there were 469 utterances. To find out what

types of question mostly used by the teachers, those 469 utterances were analyzed and the results are presented in the following table:

Table 1:
Types of Question

No	Types of Question	OBSERVATION			
		A	B	total	%
1	Recall	29	41	70	75
2	Comprehension	3	14	17	18
3	Application	4	2	6	7
4	Analysis	0	0	0	0
5	Synthesis	0	0	0	0
6	Evaluation	0	0	0	0
Total		36	57	93	100

From the table above, it can be seen that the teachers totally used lower order cognitive questions in the classroom observation which can be described further as follows:

- | | |
|------------------|------|
| a. Recall | 75 % |
| b. Comprehension | 18 % |
| c. Application | 7 % |

On the other hand, higher order cognitive questions were not used at all by the teachers. This study has proved that the cognitive level of teacher's questions in teaching children was mostly lower order cognitive questions. This study also has proved that there is no significant difference in using the types of questions during the teaching learning process between graduated teachers (Teacher A and B). But there seems little difference in the amount of questions used by the teachers between the first and the second observation.

CONCLUSIONS

In every classroom there will be some talks among the teachers and the students and usually the teachers' talks will dominate it. It is good for

the teachers to dominate their classroom as long as those talks bring good impact toward the students' behavior. On the other words, they will stimulate the students' development in mastering and understanding the concept given and gradually they will be independent learners. The use of questioning is actually to know how well pupils understand the concept given to them. The questions given by the teachers will lead the students' interest and curiosity also. It will encourage the students to have some contributions in the teaching and learning process. Turney et al (1983, p. 73) provides nine components of the skills of basic questioning to consider in teaching and learning process: structuring, phrasing or clarity and brevity, focusing, re-directing, distributing, pausing, reacting, prompting, and changing the level of cognitive demand.

Here are the types of questions which have been formulated to answer the first research question: types of question which were mostly used by the teachers were lower cognitive questions (recall questions). Lower cognitive questions were quite effective when the teacher's purpose was to communicate factual knowledge and help students in committing this knowledge to memorize. Higher cognitive questions were not better than lower cognitive questions in eliciting higher level responses or in promoting learning gains with junior high school students (primary level). Greater frequency of questions was positively related to student achievement when there are great numbers of appropriate lower level questions. Moreover, when the mostly lower level questions were used, their level of difficulty should be sustained in order to elicit students' correct responses.

Furthermore, the second result of this study showed that the types of question not only can be used to guide, lead, direct the students but also can be used to promote students to speak up and give contribution during the teaching learning process. Questions can create an interactive classroom interaction, so that the students enjoy learning English. Through questions, learners can learn new words and grammatical structure in a simple way because their capacity for taking in and retaining new words, structures, and concepts is limited. That's why the concepts or materials should be presented in simple segments by the teachers that do not overwhelm them. Moreover learners can also learn grammar of the target language through questions when they use the full-length replies in formulating their answers.

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APPENDICES:

Teacher : Teacher A
 Day/Date : Saturday, 1stFebruary 2014
 Time : 10.30 - 12.00 P.M.
 Duration : 2 x 45 minutes

TL = Teacher describes, explains, narrates, directs

TQ = Teacher Questions

TR = Teacher Responds to pupils' response

PR = Pupils' Response to teachers' questions

PV = Pupils' Volunteer information, comments, or questions

S = Silence

X = Unclassifiable

Table 1:
 Category of teacher-student interaction

Time (minute)	Category of teacher-student interaction						
	TL	TQ	TR	PR	PV	S	X
0-5	31	3	7	14	0	6	42
6-10	45	8	11	29	0	1	1
11-15	32	7	4	46	5	2	2
16-20	36	16	13	16	3	0	7
21-25	0	0	0	0	0	0	100
26-30	0	0	0	0	0	0	100
31-35	0	0	0	0	0	0	100
36-40	13	2	1	4	0	1	73
41-45	0	0	0	0	0	0	100
46-50	0	0	0	0	0	0	100
51-55	16	0	9	17	12	1	35
56-60	0	0	0	0	0	0	100
61-65	0	0	0	0	0	0	100
66-70	0	0	0	0	0	0	100
71-75	2	0	0	1	0	0	100
76-80	4	0	0	1	0	1	101
81-85	0	0	0	0	0	0	100
86-90	7	0	0	10	0	0	2
Total	186	36	45	138	20	12	1263
%	11	2	3	8	1	1	74

Figure 1:
The Percentage of Teacher – Students Interaction Category of Teacher A

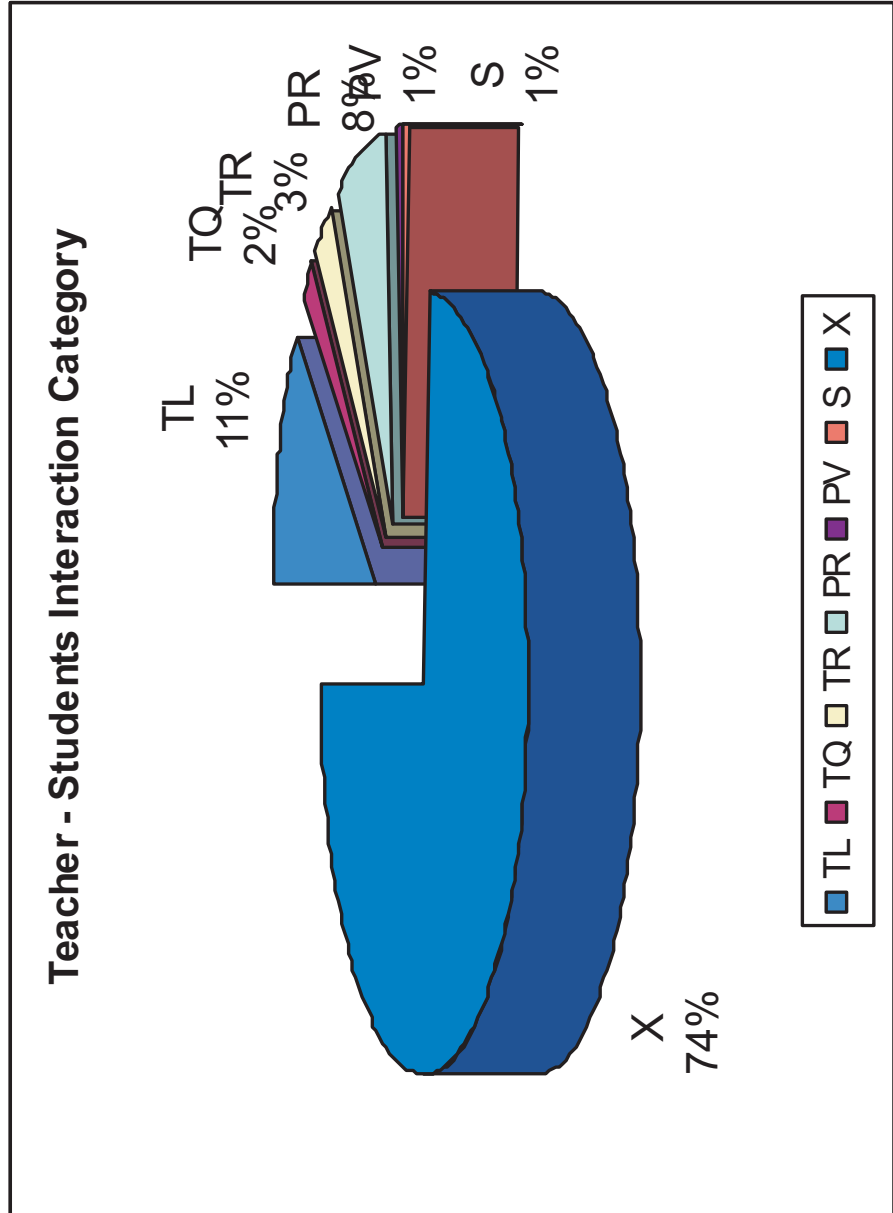


Table 2:
Matrix for Recording Types of Question Used by the Teacher

LOCQ = Lower Order Cognitive Questions
 HOCQ= Higher Order Cognitive Questions
 Re = Recall
 Comp = Comprehension
 App = Application
 An = Analysis
 Syn = Synthesis
 Eva = Evaluation

Time (minute)	TLS	Activities	Task Characteristics	Questions	LOCQ				
					Re	Comp	App	An	Syn
0-5	BK OF	Discuss about students' favorite stuff	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Teacher asked students' favourite stuff Students answered teacher's questions 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Do you know the meaning of stuff? Do you know what doll is? Faika lebih suka Nokia dari pada Motorola atau Siemens. How do you say that? 	√ √		√		

6-10	M OF	Discussing the dialog and the difficult words	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Teacher asked students about the dialog then discussing difficult words 	<p>4. All right, who has the birthday? 5. Who has the birthday? 6. Katie or Anna? 7. What is the meaning of treat? 8. Anyone knows what order is? 9. What is hot in Bahasa Indonesia? 10. What's sour in Bahasa Indonesia? 11. How about sweet?</p>	<p>✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓</p>				
11-15			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Teacher corrected the students' pronunciation 	<p>12. What is bitter? 13. What about salty? 14. Kalau Spicy apa? 15. Okay, what's the meaning of it's on me? 16. Okay, how do you say prefer? 17. How do you pronounce prefer? 18. [prɛ'fər] or [prɪ'fər]?</p>	<p>✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓</p>				

Teacher : Teacher B
 Day/Date : Monday, 3rdFebruary 2014
 Time : 12.30 - 02.00 P.M.
 Duration : 2 x 45 minutes

TL = Teacher describes, explains, narrates, directs
 TQ = Teacher Questions
 TR = Teacher Responds to pupils' response
 PR = Pupils' Response to teachers' questions
 PV = Pupils' Volunteer information, comments, or questions
 S = Silence
 X = Unclassifiable

Table 3:
 Category of teacher-student interaction

Time (minute)	Category of teacher-student interaction						
	TL	TQ	TR	PR	PV	S	X
0-5	21	14	3	20	0	1	23
6-10	41	2	1	56	0	0	0
11-15	16	10	8	51	0	4	0
16-20	4	0	1	0	0	0	100
21-25	12	22	12	40	1	1	0
26-30	27	7	6	11	3	1	45
31-35	0	0	0	0	0	0	100
36-40	0	0	0	0	0	0	100
41-45	15	0	5	32	0	0	55
46-50	7	2	3	12	0	0	75
51-55	0	0	0	0	0	0	100
56-60	0	0	0	0	0	0	100
61-65	9	0	5	12	0	0	25
66-70	0	0	0	0	0	0	100
71-75	0	0	0	0	0	0	100
76-80	0	0	0	0	0	0	100
81-85	2	0	0	1	0	0	100
86-90	6	0	2	31	0	0	0
Total	160	57	46	266	4	7	1123
%	10	4	3	16	0	0	67

Figure 2:
The Percentage of Teacher – Students Interaction Category of Teacher
B

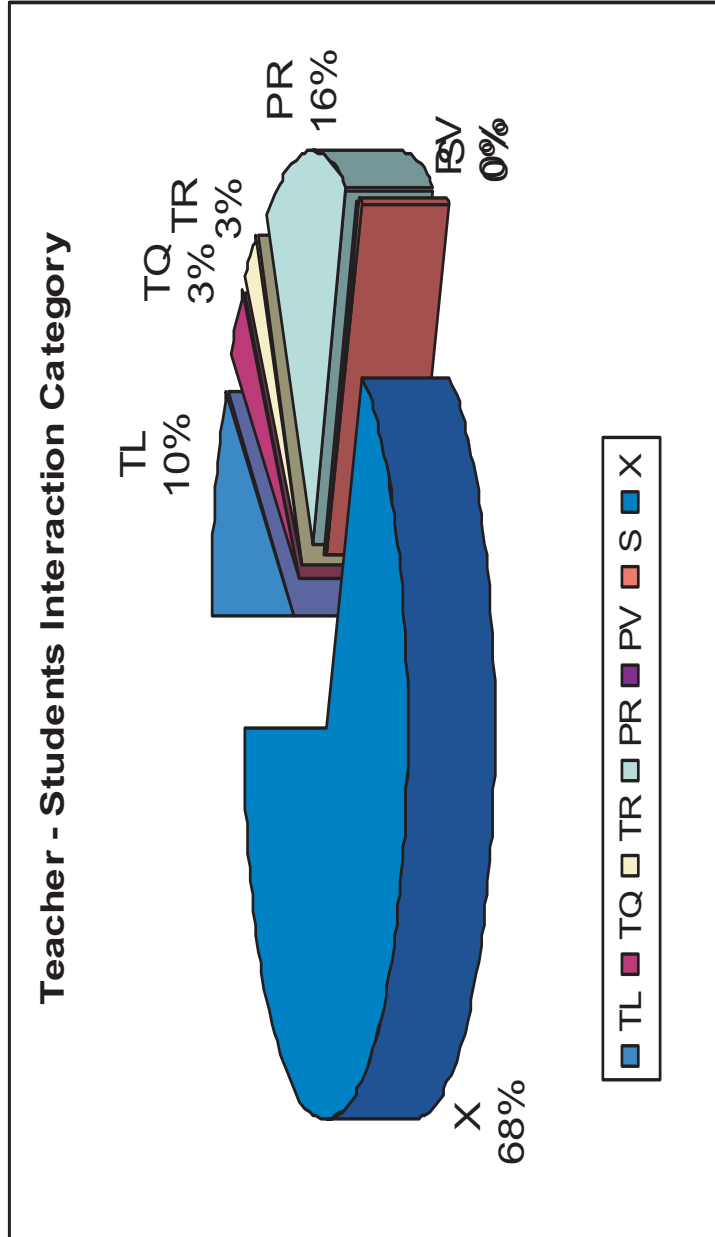


Table 4:
Matrix for Recording Types of Question Used by the Teacher

LOCQ = Lower Order Cognitive Questions
 HOCQ = Higher Order Cognitive Questions
 Re = Recall
 Comp = Comprehension
 App = Application
 An = Analysis
 Syn = Synthesis
 Eva = Evaluation

Time (minute)	TLS	Activities	Task Characteristics	Questions	Types of Question						
					LOCQ			HOCQ			
					Re	Comp	App	An	Syn	Eva	
0-5	BKOF	Question - answer about students' favourite foods and drinks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Teacher asked students' favourite foods and drinks also little bit inserted explaining the 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> How about you, Krisna, do you like fried chicken? Gani, what's your favorite drink? How about you, Deska? What's your favorite drink? Do you like milk? How if you don't 	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

			<p>expressions of like and dislike</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students gave responses 	<p>like milk?</p> <p>6. What will you say?</p> <p>7. Can you mention Indonesian food, students?</p> <p>8. Do you like sayur asem?</p> <p>9. Do you like sandwich?</p> <p>10. Do you like meatball?</p> <p>11. Do you like cake?</p> <p>12. Do you know cake?</p> <p>13. What is that?</p> <p>14. How about drink?</p>	<p>✓</p> <p>✓</p> <p>✓</p> <p>✓</p> <p>✓</p> <p>✓</p> <p>✓</p>			
6-20	MOF	<p>Reading dialog</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teacher asked students what the dialog tells about • Students answered teacher's questions 	<p>15. What are they talking about, do you think?</p> <p>16. Who are they?</p>	<p>✓</p> <p>✓</p>			
		<p>Discussing</p>		<p>17. What is birthday in</p>	<p>✓</p>			

				<p>Bahasa Indonesia? 18. What about "I'll treat you" in Bahasa Indonesia? 19. What's "Let's take an order" in Bahasa Indonesia? 20. What's order? 21. How about sour? What's sour in Bahasa Indonesia? 22. What about "It's on me" in Bahasa Indonesia? 23. What's delicious in Bahasa Indonesia?</p>	<p>✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓ ✓</p>	<p>✓ ✓ ✓</p>				
21-25	<p>Identifying the expression of like and dislike in the paragraph</p> <p>Doing exercises in</p>	<p>asked the difficult words</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Discussed together 	<p>asked the difficult words</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Discussed together 	<p>Identifying the expression of like and dislike in the paragraph</p>	<p>Teacher asked students to identify the expression of like and dislike in the dialog</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Teacher checked 	<p>Teacher asked students to identify the expression of like and dislike in the dialog</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Teacher checked 	<p>Can you identify the sentences? Kira-kira kalimat itu menyatakan like or dislike? Can you mention another sentence?</p> <p>What's the answer? Putri, A or B?</p>	<p>✓ ✓ ✓</p>	<p>✓ ✓ ✓</p>	

		<p>Part B</p> <p>students' works</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Teacher discussed the answers 	<p>29. Can you show me the sentence that refers to your answer?</p> <p>30. What's the answer, Nino?</p> <p>31. Can you show me the sentence that refers to your answer?</p> <p>32. What's the answer, Risma?</p> <p>33. Can you show me the sentence that refers your answer?</p> <p>34. What's the answer, Deska?</p> <p>35. Can you show me the sentence that refers to your answer?</p>	<p>✓</p> <p>✓</p> <p>✓</p> <p>✓</p> <p>✓</p> <p>✓</p> <p>✓</p>				
<p>Discussing expressions of like and dislike in Part C</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Teacher drilled the expressions of like and dislike 	<p>36. What is your favorite drink, Putri?</p> <p>37. Why do you like soft drink?</p> <p>38. What's your favorite</p>	<p>✓</p> <p>✓</p> <p>✓</p> <p>✓</p>					

46-90	JCOT	Doing exercises in Part E	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Teacher asked students to practice Part E 	<p>pizza?</p> <p>52. Risma, do you like gado-gado?</p> <p>53. Farah, do you like soto?</p> <p>54. Rizky, do you like gado-gado?</p> <p>55. Azmi, do you like iced tea?</p> <p>56. How if you want to ask your friend's favorite food?</p> <p>57. How about your friend's favorite drink?</p>	<p>✓</p> <p>✓</p>							
Total					41	14	2	0	0	0	0	0
%					72	24	4	0	0	0	0	0

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STUDENTS' PERSPECTIVES ON THE ROLE OF OPEN ACCESS CENTRE AND LANGUAGE LABORATORY AS SUPPORTING UNITS IN DEVELOPING ENGLISH LANGUAGE SKILLS

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Abstract : This study aims at revealing the perception of the 2010, 2011 and 2012 academic year students of the Faculty of Letters on two supporting units at the faculty, namely Open Access Centre (OAC) and Language Laboratory (LL) in enhancing their English Language Skills. The results show that the average students consider both OAC and LL useful in developing their English Language competence. On the whole, they are satisfied with the existence of these two media except for a few things which need improving, such as facilities and instruments.

Key words: perception, OAC, LL

***Abstrak:** Penelitian ini bertujuan mengungkapkan persepsi mahasiswa Fakultas Sastra angkatan 2010, 2011, dan 2012 terhadap 2 unit penunjang yang ada di Fakultas Sastra yaitu Open Access Centre (OAC) dan Language Laboratory (LL) dalam membantu meningkatkan kemampuan berbahasa Inggris mereka. Hasil penelitian menunjukkan bahwa rata-rata mahasiswa menganggap OAC maupun LL sebagai media yang membantu perkembangan kecakapan bahasa Inggris mereka. Secara umum mereka juga puas dengan keberadaan dua unit penunjang ini. Namun ada juga hal-hal yang menurut mereka perlu diperbaiki, misalnya fasilitas dan peralatan yang ada.*

***Kata kunci:** persepsi, OAC, LL*

INTRODUCTION

The advancement of technology has a great impact on the education realm including language learning. A wide variety of modern tools are used as supporting elements in the teaching learning process of a language. Language Lab, CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning), SALL (Self Access Language Learning) are some instances of this (Benson, 2001). He further says "In principal self access, self instruction, and distance learning foster autonomy by providing learners with opportunities to direct their own learning"

It is obvious that there is a strong connection between the use of the afore-mentioned modern tools with autonomous learning which is defined as a mode of learning which requires the learners to study independently of direct contact with teachers (Littlejohn, 1997). In the past two decades, it has been noted that there is a tendency of self instruction and distance learning in language learning. Such a style automatically relies on technology-based approaches.

Being a language school, in this case an English department, the Faculty of Letters, Soegijapranata Catholic University employed modern facilities such as language lab and SALL. The use of such facilities has two-folded purposes. Firstly, they are meant for improving the students' skills in learning English. Secondly, they serve as assisting tools in self language learning or the so-called autonomous language learning. Keeping the above issues in mind, the research questions were formulated as follows:

1. What are Language Lab and OAC (Open Access Center) used at the Faculty of Letters Unika Soegijapranata?
2. What are the students' perception on the use of these two facilities (LL and OAC) in developing their English Language Skill?

LITERARY REVIEW

A. Independent Learning

Independent learning or is also often called autonomous learning has undergone an explosion of interest since two decades ago. In an attempt to encourage out of class learning, many language institutions have established

language resource centres where learners are encouraged to work independently. Such centres are known to be Self Access Language Learning (SALL). Following Cotterall and Reinders (1995), SALL can be defined as:

A place consisting of a number of resources (in the form of materials, activities, and support) which is designed to accommodate learners of different levels, styles, goals and interests. It aims to develop learner autonomy among its users.

Still according to them, Self Access Language Learning is the learning that takes place in a Self Access Centre.

SALL has the potential to promote learner autonomy in a number of ways. Firstly, it provides facilities which allow learners to pursue their own goals and interests while accommodating individual differences in learning style, level and pace of learning. Secondly, the resources have the potential to raise learners' awareness of the learning process by highlighting aspects of the management of learning, such as goal setting and monitoring progress. Thirdly, SALL can act as a bridge between the teacher - directed learning situation, where the language is studied and practised, and the real world, where the target language is used as a means of communication. Finally, SALL can promote the learning autonomy of learners who prefer or obliged to learn without a teacher, by supporting their learning in the absence of an organised language course (Gardner and Miller, 1999).

Many previous studies of SALL have investigated different types of learner preparation and support (Esch,1994), material design and evaluation(Gardner and Miller,1994), methods of monitoring learner progress (Martyn,1994), the role of technology (Morrison,1996) etcetera but so far no study on the perception of learners at a certain place on the role of SALL has been conducted. Thus, it will certainly be interesting as well as beneficial to investigate such a topic.

B. Perception

Following Crystal (1992), perception or attitudes are the feelings people have about their own language variety or the language varieties of others. It is believed that perception influences language learning in a number of ways.

Stern (1983) has investigated a number of different kinds of perception that are considered relevant to second language learning. He classifies these kinds of perception into three types:

1. Perception towards the community and people who speak the same language.
2. Perception towards learning the language concerned.
3. Perception towards languages and language learning in general.

Perception is a central part of human individuality, it may encompass effective, behavioural and cognitive responses. Perception can be said as a final thought of someone about something

C. Language Skills

It is a universal concept that the study of language consists of four basic skills. They are listening, speaking, reading and writing skills (Harmer, 2001). Listening should be the first skill introduced to the students as in listening class students are exposed to the spoken target language before they are expected to be able to produce or speak the language. The second skill that should be taught to the student is speaking. As a matter of fact, listening and speaking are inseparable skills as in real communication it is those skills that are mostly involved. Reading and writing skills come after the previous two skills. Harmer further states that there are four things that students need to do with the target language. They are: be exposed to it, understand its meaning, understand its form, and practices it.

METHODS

The type of this research is descriptive as it aims at revealing the perception of a certain group of students on the existence of two supporting units provided by the Faculty of Letters. They are Open Access Centre (OAC) and Language Laboratory (LL). The quantitative analysis is used to find out to what extent the respondents consider both of them useful and whether or not they are helpful in developing their English skills

A. Respondents

The respondents in this research were 2010, 2011 and 2012 Students of The Faculty of Letters, Soegijapranata Catholic University. There were 86 students who became the respondents of this study. They consisted of:

1. 20 students from 2010 academic year
2. 24 students from 2011 academic year
3. 42 students from 2012 academic year

The method used by the researcher in selecting the respondents is that of sample equals to population (Vredenberg, 1984) as all students of the above academic year were involved as research participants.

B. Research Instruments

The research instruments used in this study are as follows:

(1) Questionnaire

Questionnaire is research instrument consisting of a list of written questions about a particular problem (Vredenberg, 1984). There are 2 kinds of questionnaire. They are the closed-ended and the open-ended types. The open-ended type gives a chance to the respondents to answer the questions based on their own situations while the closed-ended type consists of questions whose answers are already provided, so that the respondents should only choose the answers from the list. The choice of questions, is usually arranged, based on the Likert-Scale.

Before the questionnaire is administered, a piloting stage is conducted. It is a kind of try out in which a number of students are asked to fill it out for the purpose of finding out some unclarity about it. The questionnaire is then corrected and improved before being administered to the real respondents.

(2) Interviews

Vredenberg (1984) defines an interview as an interaction and communication process to find out something about life and human behaviour. In this process, several variables play a very important role as they

might influence or even determine the results of the interviews. Such variables are as follows:

- a. The interviewer
- b. The respondents
- c. The list of questions or the interview guide being used.
- d. The rapporteur of the interviewer and the interviewee

In this research, the interviews were made with 15 students who represented students of the three academic years, 2010,2011, and 2012. The results of the interviews were then used to cross check the results of the questionnaire as well as to complete the data obtained from it.

DATA ANALYSIS METHOD

The method of data analysis used in this research is quantitative method,i.e. Descriptive Statistics which was employed to synthesize the observed condition and modified it into some information. In this study, the data obtained from the questionnaire were analyzed using SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Science)and then the results were presented in tables. They were inthe form of Mean, Standard Deviation, Minimum and Maximum scores. To cross check and complete the data obtained from the questionnaire, the researcher made use of the results of the interviews.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

A. Data Collection

As has been mentioned previously, the data collection method in this research covers the following:

1. Administration of questionnaire
2. Interviews

The research participants were Faculty of Letters students from 3 academic years. They were 2010,2011, and 2012. There were 20 respondents from 2010, 24 respondents from 2011 and 42 respondents from 2012. Therefore, in total there were 86 respondents for the questionnaire.

B. Questionnaire

The questionnaire for both OAC and LL were designed in order to find out the students' perception on those 2 supporting units. It consists of 26 questions formulated based on the theory of interest or perception discussed earlier in this article.

C. Interviews

The interviews were made with 15 students from the 3 different academic years. In those interviews, 16 guided questions were asked to the students and the results were used to crosscheck the results of the questionnaires and complete the obtained data. The interviews were done in an informal and relaxing way, so as to put the interviewees at ease. In such atmosphere, they were expected to answer the questions the best they could.

D. Questionnaire Results

The following is the presentation of the questionnaire results followed by the interpretation of each.

Table 1:
Questionnaire Results

No	Information	Min.	Max.	Mean	Standard Deviation
1	General Perception on OAC and LL	2,00	5,00	3,5581	,71298
2	The Importance of OAC and LL in Developing Students'English Skill	2,00	5,00	3,9302	,71605
3	The Importance of OAC and LL in Developing Students'English Knowledge	2,00	5,00	3,6977	,72062

From the first item above, it can be concluded that in general the respondents have positive perception on OAC and Language Laboratory. It is proven by the mean score 3,5581. The minimum score is 2 which means that some respondents state both media are not helpful enough. However, the maximum score is 5 meaning some respondents agree that both media are very useful. Since the standard deviation is below 1,00, it can also be

interpreted that their answers do not vary greatly. As can be seen from the second item, both media are regarded important in developing students' English skills. It is based on the mean score of 3,9302 for this variable. On one side, the maximum score 5 means that both of them are very important in developing students' English language skills. On the other side, the minimum score 2 means that they are not important. Nonetheless, the standard deviation is 0,71605. So, this suggests that the dispersion among the answers is not large. The importance of both media in developing students' English knowledge is reflected through the mean score 3,6977 for the third variable. The minimum score 2 shows that there are some students who disagree on the importance of both media in developing their English knowledge. The maximum score 5, however, shows that other students agree upon the importance of both media in developing their English knowledge. The standard deviation below 1 indicates that there is not much variation among the answers of the respondents.

Table 2:
 Questionnaire Results (continued)

No	Information	Min.	Max.	Mean	Standard Deviation
4	Perception on OAC and LL's Facilities	1,00	5,00	3,4884	,79327
5	Satisfaction with OAC and LL's Facilities	2,00	5,00	3,3837	,78469
6	OAC and LL's Facilities Used by Students	2,00	5,00	3,2558	,75438

The fourth variable in the table above indicates that the students generally have good perception on OAC and LL as shown by the mean score 3,4884. The minimum score 1, however, shows that some students have unfavourable perception on OAC and LL's facilities. Nevertheless, the standard deviation is below 1 meaning the students' answers do not vary greatly. The fifth variable in the table above implies that students on the average are satisfied with the facilities in both media. Meanwhile, the

maximum score 5 shows that there are some students who are already satisfied with the facilities in both media. The standard deviation is 0,78469 indicating a small dispersion of answers. A further investigation in students frequency in using facilities in both media show that they very often use them as indicated by the maximum score 5 regardless of the fact that some seldom use them as shown by the minimum score 2. The standard deviation is 0,75438 showing a small variety of answers.

Table 3:
Questionnaire Results (continued)

No	Information	Min.	Max.	Mean	Standard Deviation
7	Opinion about OAC and LL as A Place to Improve Listening Skill	1,00	5,00	3,7674	,79223
8	Perception on OAC and LL's Comfortability	2,00	5,00	3,6977	,72062
9	Opinion about OAC and LL as Place to Practise Listening	1,00	5,00	2,5116	1,05990
10	Students' Purposes in Visiting OAC and LL	2,00	5,00	4,0116	,83306
11	Opinion about LL Used not Only for Listening Classes	2,00	5,00	3,8140	,80457
12	Opinion about The Need of Schedule for Students' to Practise Listening	1,00	5,00	3,8488	,83338
13	Opinion about The Needs of Materials Provided for Students' to Practise at LL	1,00	5,00	3,7209	,80661

14	Satisfaction with Services at OAC and LL	1,00	5,00	3,4070	,75736
15	Opinion about the Helpfulness of the People in Charge of OAC and LL	1,00	5,00	3,5116	,66411
16	Opinion about the Well Informedness of the People in Charge of OAC and LL	1,00	5,00	3,4070	,65759
17	Opinion about the Availability of OAC and LL's Materials	1,00	5,00	3,3721	,63332
18	Opinion about the Relevance of OAC and LL's Materials with Their Needs	1,00	5,00	3,4302	,69521
19	Opinion about the Comfortability of OAC and LL' Rooms	1,00	5,00	3,5814	,74305
20	Opinion about the Sophisticatedness of Equipment in OAC and LL	2,00	5,00	3,1860	,64190
21	Opinion about the Equipment in OAC and LL in General	2,00	5,00	3,2442	,71843
22	Preferences to Spend Time at OAC and LL	1,00	5,00	2,8488	,84738
23	Preferences to Use Equipment at OAC and LL	1,00	5,00	3,3023	,76803

Referring to the above results, it can be interpreted that students agree both media being researched are proper places to improve their English language skills. The mean score 3,7674 serve as evidence in this case. Eventhough there is a big discrepancy between the minimum and maximum scores, namely 1 and 5, the standard deviation is below 1 meaning there is not a great variety of answers. Students also seem to have good perception about OAC and Language Lab's comfortability. This can be seen by the mean score 3,6977. However, the minimum score 2 means that there are students who have unfavourable perception on the comfortability of both media. Yet, the maximum score for this variable is 5, which means some other students have very good perception on the comfortability of both. The standard deviation 0,72062 shows that the dispersion among the answers is not large. The result of the questionnaire also shows that students do not quite agree with the statement saying OAC and LL are good places to practise listening. This is based on the mean score 2,5116 out of the maximum score 5. The minimum score is 1 which means that some students disagree that both media are good places to practise listening. However, the maximum score is 5. It means there are students who agree that both OAC and LL are very good places to practise listening. However, the standard deviation for this particular variable is above 1 meaning that the students' answers have a large dispersion.

Based on variable 10, there is an indication that students sometimes visit OAC and LL for purposes other than learning. We can conclude it from the mean score 4,0116. The minimum score is 2 meaning there are students who visit these places for other purposes, while the maximum score is 5 which means there are students who visit both media for learning purposes only. For this item, the standard deviation is 0,83306 meaning the students' answers do not vary much.

As can be seen from variable 11 above, students agree with the opinion that LL should be used not only for listening class. This is because the mean score is 3,8140. The minimum score is 2. It means there are students who disagree with the notion that Language Lab should be used only for listening classes. However, the maximum score is 5 meaning there are other students who agree that language lab should not only be used for listening classes. The standard deviation is 80457 meaning there is not much variation on the answers.

From variable 12 above, it can be concluded that students agree the schedule for them to practise listening has to be provided. It is shown by

the score of the mean 3,8488. The minimum score 1 means that there are students who think the schedule for them to practise listening is not necessary. However, the maximum score is 5 meaning there are other students who think that it is essential to have a schedule for them to practise listening. The standard deviation is 0,83338 meaning there is not much variation in the students' answers.

The next variable in the above list indicates students' agreement to the supply of materials for them to practise at Language Lab. This is shown by the mean score of this variable which is 3,7209. The minimum score is 1 meaning there are students who think that they do not have to be provided with materials. On the other side, the maximum score is 5 meaning there are students who think that materials must be provided for students to practise at language lab. The standard deviation below 1, means that the answers do not vary much.

Variable 14 shows that students are generally satisfied with the service at both OAC and LL. This can be seen through the mean score 3,4070 out of the maximum 5. The minimum score 1 means that there are students who are not satisfied with the services at both places. However, the maximum score 5 means that other students are satisfied with the services there. The standard deviation 0,75736 means that the students' answers do not vary much.

From the data above, the students feel that the people in charge of both OAC and LL are generally helpful. The mean score 3,5116 is the proof. However, the minimum score is 1 which means that some students think the people in charge of both places are not helpful. The maximum score 5 shows that there are students who think that they are helpful. The standard deviation 0,66411 means the students' answers do not vary greatly.

Further result in the table above shows that the respondents feel the people in charge of OAC and LL are well informed enough. It is shown by the score of the mean 3,4070. The minimum score 1, however, means there are students who think the people in charge of LL and OAC are not well informed. However, the maximum score 5 means there are students who think they are very well informed. The standard deviation 0,65759 means that there is a small dispersion among students' answers.

Variable 17 above proves that the respondents have a positive perception about the availability of OAC and LL's materials. It is proven by

the mean score 3,3721. The minimum score is 1 which means that students think negatively about the availability of language lab materials. The maximum score is 5 meaning some other students think positively about the availability of materials in both media. The standard deviation below 1 means there is not much variation in the students' answers.

Variable 18 describes the respondents' opinion about whether or not the materials in both OAC and LL are relevant enough with their needs. Based on the respondents' answers, the materials have been relevant enough as the mean score is 3,4302. There are respondents that feel the materials in both media have already been relevant. It is shown by the maximum score 5. Nevertheless, the minimum score is 1. It means other respondents think that the materials in Language Lab are not relevant with what they need. The standard deviation is below 1 meaning that the variation among the answers is not much.

The above result also indicates that in general the respondents feel comfortable with both OAC and Language Lab rooms. It is proven by this the average score of 3,5814. There are respondents who feel very comfortable with the 2 rooms as shown by the maximum score 5. However, the minimum score 1 means that there are respondents who do not feel comfortable at all with both media's rooms. The low standard deviation means that the dispersion among the answers is small.

From variable 20, it can be concluded that in general the respondents feel that the equipment in both OAC and LL are sophisticated. This can be seen by the mean score 3,1860 out of 5. The maximum and minimum scores respectively are 5 and 2. The respondents' answers do not vary much as the standard deviation is far below 1.

Based on table 21 above, it can be interpreted that the respondents generally have good opinions about the equipment in both OAC and LL as the mean score is 3,2442. The minimum score is 2 which means that there are respondents who think that the equipment in both media in general are bad, while the maximum score is 5 meaning that other respondents think the equipment in both places in general are very good. The score of the standard deviation that is below 1 shows that there is only a little variation of the respondents' answers.

From variable 22 above, it can be seen that the respondents prefer not to spend the time at both OAC and LL frequently. This is shown by the

mean score 2,8488 out of 5. The minimum score is 1 which reflects that some respondents do not often want to spend their time at both places. However, some other respondents are the opposite. They really want to spend their time there a lot. This is shown by the maximum score 5. The standard deviation that is below 1 shows that the answers of the respondents do not vary greatly.

This next variable depicts that the respondents prefer to use the equipment at Language Lab. It is shown by the mean score 3,3023 of the maximum 5. The minimum score 1 means some respondents prefer not to use equipment at language lab. We can see that the maximum score 5 means some other respondents prefer to use equipment at Language Lab. The answers of the respondents do not vary a lot. It can be seen from the standard deviation which is below 1, namely 0,76803.

Table 4:
 Questionnaire Results (continued)

No	Information	Min.	Max.	Mean	Standard Deviation
24	The Needs of OAC and LL to Improve Its Facilities	2,00	5,00	4,0000	,84017
25	The Needs of OAC and LL to Improve Its Services	2,00	5,00	3,9419	,80227
26	The Needs of OAC and LL to Improve Its Materials	2,00	5,00	3,9651	,83240

The respondents feel that there is a very high need of both OAC and LL to improve their facilities. It can be seen from the means score 4,0000. The minimum score 2 means some respondents do not perceive that it is necessary for both media to improve their facilities. However, other respondents deem that it is crucial for both of them to improve their facilities. This is shown by the maximum score 5. The standard deviation that is below 1 means that the answers of the respondents do not vary

greatly. It can also be concluded that both media need to improve their services. It is proven by the mean score 3,9419. The minimum score is 2 meaning some respondents do not think that the services at both places need to be improved. Meanwhile, the maximum score 5 means some other respondents believe that their services need improving. The standard deviation 0,80227 indicates that the dispersion among the respondents' answers is small.

The last variable in the table above indicates that the respondents on the average feel the need of both media to improve their materials. It can be seen from the mean score 3,9651 out of the maximum 5. From the minimum score 2, it can be concluded that there are some respondents that feel the materials in both places do not need to be improved. However, the maximum score 5 means that there are some other respondents who want the materials there to be improved. The score of the standard deviation that is below 1,00 shows that the answers of the respondents do not vary greatly.

E. Interview Results

The results of the interview on OAC show that 2010 and 2011 students frequently go to OAC between and after classes. They usually go there to do their assignments and to find information related to their lessons or assignments. They find that OAC is very useful for them and most of them are satisfied with the existence of OAC. They are also happy with the OAC assistant whom they find helpful. However, they suggest that OAC needs to be expanded, so that there will be more room for them. They also complain about the old carpets that need changing, the computers that do not work well and the collection of books especially novels that need updating.

The 2012 students seem to be unfamiliar or reluctant to make use of the OAC facilities partly because they do not know what is in it, how useful it is for them and why they should spend their time there.

As for LL, the average students express their favourable perception in relation to the usefulness of LL in developing their listening skill. They also appreciate the facilities, equipment, materials and services at LL. Some suggestions that they make concern with the broken headsets, too warm air conditioners and some of the squeaking chairs.

CONCLUSION

Based on the above findings, the following conclusion can be drawn that in general, students consider OAC a useful place for them to do assignments, find information related to their study, do other purposes and even to kill the time. Surprisingly, they do not really think that OAC is a good place for them to practise their English. Yet, they find OAC an appropriate place to develop their English knowledge. Students on the average also claim OAC's materials to be relevant to their needs, Regardless of the fact that they are satisfied with the existence of OAC in general, they think OAC still needs to improve its facilities, materials, equipment and services.

In comparison with OAC, LL seems to be considered far useful in terms of developing students' English skill particularly listening. Students tend to agree that the facilities, equipment, materials and services provided at LL are relevant to their needs. They even feel the needs of LL not only as a medium for their listening classes but also as a place for them to practise their listening skill. Therefore, they suggest that there should be a free time for them to have an individual practice outside listening classes. They also suggest that there should be separate, guided materials provided for them in their individual practices.

With regard to the students' comments on OAC, a few things need to be done. They are among others:

- a. The use and function of OAC needs to be socialized to students particularly first year students.
- b. More tasks or assignments given to the students need to involve the use of OAC.
- c. OAC needs to be enlarged and better facilitated in terms of equipment, materials, and services.

For LL as a supporting unit at the Faculty of Letters, there are a few things that should be done in order to improve its function and use. They are as follows :

- a. Students should be given extra time to practise their listening skill at LL.
- b. There should be a tutor to supervise students while doing their extra listening practices.
- c. Some guided, extra materials should be provided for students in their free practices.

- d. Some facilities and equipment at LL, such as headsets, Air Conditioners and chairs should be fixed or even renewed.

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