

**HASIL PENILAIAN SEJAWAT SEBIDANG ATAU *PEER REVIEW*
KARYA ILMIAH : BUKU**

Judul Jurnal Ilmiah (Artikel) : Concern In Language Teaching and Learning

Penulis Buku : Woro Retnaningsih

Identitas Buku :

- a. Tahun Terbit : 2020
- b. Nomor ISBN : 978-623-218-644-6
- c. Penerbit : Fakultas Adab dan Bahasa IAIN Surakarta
- d. Jumlah halaman : 122 halaman

Kategori Publikasi Karya Ilmiah :
Buku (beri pada kategori yang tepat)

Buku Referensi
 Buku Monograf

Hasil Penilaian *Peer Review* :


Komponen Yang Dinilai	Nilai Maksimal Buku		Nilai Akhir Yang Diperoleh
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b. Ruang lingkup dan kedalaman pembahasan (30%)		3	2.5
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Sukoharjo, 25 Februari 2021

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Hasil Penilaian Peer Review :

Komponen Yang Dinilai	Nilai Maksimal Buku		Nilai Akhir Yang Diperoleh
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a. Kelengkapan unsur isi buku (20%)	2		2
b. Ruang lingkup dan kedalaman pembahasan (30%)	3		3
c. Kecukupan dan kemutakhiran data/informasi dan metodologi (30%)	3		3
d. Kelengkapan unsur dan kualitas penerbit (20%)	2		2
Total = (100%)	10		10

Catatan oleh Reviewer :

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Link ISBN Perpusnas:

<https://isbn.perpusnas.go.id/Account/SearchBuku?searchTxt=9786232186446&searchCat=ISBN>

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IN ENGLISH
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TEACHING AND LEARNING

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Prof. Dr. Toto Suharto, S.Ag., M.Ag.
(Dekan Fakultas Adab dan Bahasa IAIN Surakarta)

**CONCERNS
IN ENGLISH
LANGUAGE**

TEACHING AND LEARNING

Zainal 'Arifin

Nuning Wahyu Astuti

Fitri Ana Ika Dewi

- **Woro Retnaningsih**
- **Irwan Rohardiyanto**
- **Ika Sulistyarini**

Editor

Zainal 'Arifin



CONCERNS IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING

Edisi Pertama

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ISBN 978-623-218-644-6

14 x 20.5 cm

xii, 122 hlm

Cetakan ke-1, Oktober 2020

Kencana. 2020.1326

Penulis

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PREFACE

English language education paradigm has shifted from teaching to learning paradigm since communicative approach was established. This brings educators to work hard on realizing meaningful process of learning for the students. English language learners' communicative competence has become the major concerns as it is the most prominent goal in teaching learning process. Regarding this, current post method era still also takes into account of communicative competence as the main goal in English language teaching and learning especially in the context of English as a second and foreign language. Current formulated aspects of communicative competence may include Sociocultural Competence, Discourse Competence, Linguistic Competence, Formulaic Competence, Interactional Competence, and Strategic Competence (Celce-Murcia, 2007).

This book addresses the concerns of teachers and learners to cope with communicative competence as the main goal of current learning paradigm of English education. Six chapters of this book are written by six different authors who propose the

concerns in English language teaching and learning to support meaningful process of students' learning experience to achieve communicative competence in ideal sense.

Editor



SAMBUTAN

Dekan Fakultas Adab dan Bahasa
IAIN Surakarta

Salam literasi! Segala puji bagi Allah, Tuhan seru sekalian alam. Selawat serta salam semoga Allah curahkan kepada Nabi Agung, Muhammad saw., beserta para sahabat dan keluarganya.

Fakultas Adab dan Bahasa IAIN Surakarta menyambut baik dan memberikan apresiasi setinggi-tingginya kepada para dosen fakultas, yang meskipun di masa pandemik, dapat menyelesaikan penulisan buku teks bagi mahasiswa. Buku teks merupakan salah satu bagian terpenting dari terpenuhinya standar nasional pendidikan tinggi, yaitu menyangkut standar sarana dan prasarana. Untuk tahun anggaran 2020, fakultas mengalokasikan penerbitan buku teks sebanyak 10 judul, yang disebar di lima program prodi yang ada di Fakultas Adab dan Bahasa.

Keberadaan buku teks merupakan bentuk dari pelaksanaan tridharma pendidikan oleh dosen. Tentu saja buku teks ini ditulis sebagai refleksi hasil riset para dosen, sehingga pembelajaran

di kelas selalu mengikuti perkembangan keilmuan yang terjadi. Pada gilirannya, penerbitan semacam ini, selain dapat dimanfaatkan oleh para mahasiswa dalam proses pembelajaran, juga merupakan wujud kontribusi keilmuan fakultas dan prodi bagi pengembangan ilmu secara umum.

Dengan terbitnya buku teks ini, fakultas mengucapkan terima kasih kepada Penerbit Kencana-PrenadaMedia, Jakarta atas kerja samanya dalam penerbitan ini. Semoga penerbitan ini menjadi bentuk tindak lanjut fakultas dari kerja sama yang telah ditentukan.

Surakarta, Agustus 2020

Prof. Dr. Toto Suharto, S.Ag., M.Ag.

Dekan Fakultas Adab dan Bahasa IAIN Surakarta



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CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF ACADEMIC READING ASSESSMENT

Zainal 'Arifin

Fluent reader is a must for student pursuing knowledge in higher education and regarded determines student's academic success. Typically university students deal with reading tasks of academic purposes such as reading books and journal articles. Inadequate reading fluency prospectively makes barrier of the students' personal idea and theories underlining and supporting the idea. The university accreditation indicator in terms of productive students to write articles published in high reputed journal publishers adds the the prominent concern of reading fluency. That is why, since years ago, numerous surveys, as noted by Lynch and Hudson (1991: 216), have indicated that reading may be the most important skill for academic success (John, 1981; Ostler, 1980; Robertson, 1983). Research (Kubina, 2005) has shown fluency plays a vital role in learning. Precision Teaching, a method for measuring behavior and facilitating decision making, has demonstrated it can benefit teachers interested in fostering fluency.

Academic reading is regarded complex. The materials of this kind of reading are usually scientific writings that have been

researched, organized, and documented in accordance with the rules of academic discourse (Sekara, 1987: 121). The academic reading material has particular structures that are different from any others in terms of its syntax, vocabularies, and genre. The characteristic of its syntax, for example, is that the verb of scientific material is usually simple whereas the subject is often complex. This is in contrast with literary works (Swales, 1971 in Walsh, 1982 in Forum anthology, 1986: 144). In terms of vocabularies, scientific writing usually uses particular store of words that has been purposefully coined by practitioners of the subject (Walsh: 1982 in Forum Anthology 1986: 143). The genre of academic reading material, as the other characteristics, can be classified into description, recount, report, procedure, explanation, exposition, and discussion (Santosa et al., 2012). Santosa (2009) says that this group of genres, the purpose of the writer, belongs to micro genre. It is somewhat different to those in any other writings. Clearly, the complexity mentioned above shows that academic reading is specific and need much attention.

To assess academic reading fluency of university students an effective and efficient use of assesment tool is a must as the complexity of the nature of the material of the test, that is academic reading material. The use ICT integration in assessing students academic reading fluency is feasible and chalenging as the determination of university students in ICT especially after the rapid development of smartphone and the availability of internet connection happend anywhere. This artikel will describe a conceptual framework of assessing academic reading fluency of university students and suggested making use of moodle.



A. ACADEMIC READING: COMPLEX MATERIAL AND ACTIVITIES TO ASSESS

Academic reading is one of the main skills in English for Academic Purposes (EAP) which is a branch of English for Specific Purposes (ESP). The ESP itself is just one branch of English as a foreign or Second Language (EFL/ESL), the main branch of English Language Teaching in general (Hutchinson and Waters, 1994: 18). So, Academic Reading is a part of reading in general. For this reason General Reading will be discussed first before the Academic Reading.

General Reading

a. *The Nature of Reading*

Reading is language ability. The raw material of reading sounds, words, sentences, communicative intentions is much the same as that of language in general. Thus over the years, reading has been described as psycholinguistic guessing game. The processes of learning to talk and learning to read have some parallels. People who currently use the term “whole language” acknowledge that reading is language ability and should be taught in close and meaningful connection with the whole spectrum of language abilities including talking, listening, writing, and thinking. (Gillet and Temple, 1994: 3)

The nature of reading has many sides of activities as being stated by Bamman (1967: 1). It shows that reading can be described as a mode of thinking. As thinking, reading requires that the reader follows the line of thought, which the writer has expressed. The process of reading therefore must (1) recall pertinent previous experiences and already learned facts that will help him understand the printed material; (2) follow the writer's



development and, organization of ideas; (3) evaluate the accuracy and appropriateness of information and conclusions; (4) see how the printed data can apply to a problem the reader may be trying to solve; and (5) select the fact that is important to his purposes, and so on. Unless the reader understands the writer's message and thinks along with him, there is actually little or no reading. Mere word calling is not reading.

Thus, reading can be seen as the processing of information. The reader brings to the text his own store of general information derived from his native culture, education, personal experience, and normally some specific knowledge of the topic of the written text. At the same time, the reader also possesses a linguistic competence including knowledge of words (lexis), of how these words are developed according to the linguistic system in order to form sentences (syntax), and of rhetorical patterns and linguistic convention which characterizes different types of text (Haarman et al., 1988: vii).

b. The Kinds of Reading

Broughton et al. (1980: 92) suggest that the word "reading" has a number of interpretations. It may mean reading aloud a very complex skill, which involves understanding the black marks first, and then the production of the right noises. It must be recognized that reading aloud is primarily an oral matter, and for those who teach a foreign language, it is closer to pronunciation than it is to comprehension.

Reading may also be silent reading and this is the interpretation, which is most likely for the term and is perhaps the nearest approach to the essence of reading. It is obvious that by far the greatest amount of reading that is done in the world is silent. It



varies according to the use to which it is being put. Some of the uses are: (1) to survey material, which is to be studied. To look through indexes, chapter headings, and outlines; (2) to skim; (3) to gain superficial comprehension; (4) to study the content; and (5) to study the language in which the material is written. Of these few kinds of reading activity, the first three are sometimes grouped together and called extensive reading. The other two kinds of reading activity are called intensive reading (Broughton *et al.*, 1980: 92)

According to Sonka (1979:121), intensive and extensive reading have two major components: efficiency and comprehension, both of which need readers' good understanding of the organization of text. The efficiency refers to reading speed, that is, the reader's management to understand more material in less time. Comprehension can be divided into general reading skills and skills for reading particular kinds of materials.

The division of Reading thus can be described as follows:

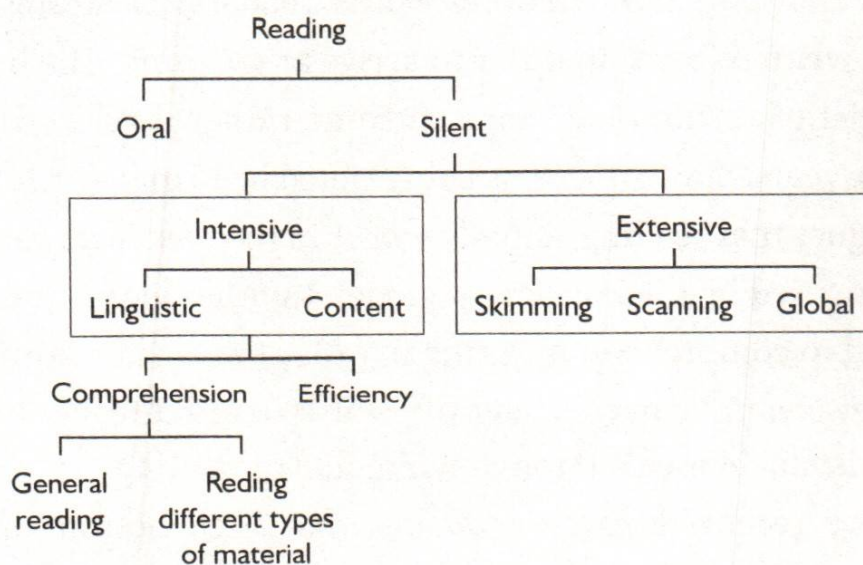


FIGURE 1. THE DIVISION OF READING



The efficiency requires the reader to be able to recognize and use the organization of passage. Understanding the organization provides the reader with a rough mental outline, which he then completes by reading. It gives him a basis for anticipating what follows, and thus establishes the appropriate mental set for understanding an assimilation of new material (Sonka, 1979: 121). The efficiency also can be supported by reading by phrases rather than by words. This can be achieved successfully only by having well developed knowledge of grammar, especially, its Syntactic components by which he can guess or predict unfamiliar words (Dwyer, 1986: 134).

c. *The Models of Reading*

The analysis toward reading comprehension process cannot be separated from the implementation of two models of reading, namely bottom-up and top-down. With the bottom up model, reading is viewed as a process of decoding written symbols, working from smaller units (individual letters) to larger ones (word, clauses and sentences). In other words, readers use strategies to decode written forms in order to arrive at meaning. The bottom up model of reading has come in some rather severe criticism over the years. Smith (1978), as being rioted by Nunan (1995: 33), in fact, argues that reading actually works in the reverse order from that proposed by the bottom up model. In other words the readers need to comprehend meaning in order to identify words and that they generally need to identify words in order to identify letters. This model is called top-down model of reading.

More recent research indicates that both bottom-up and top-down strategies may be used in learning to read and that efficient reading may require the integration of both bottom-up and



top-down strategies (Stanovich, 1980 in Nunan, 1989: 33). Dubin and Bycina (1991) call this model as 'interactive' model of reading. It stresses the interplay of all meaning gathering activities, which take place during reading. Interactive theory acknowledges the role of previous knowledge and prediction but, at the same time, reaffirms the importance of rapid and accurate processing of the actual words of the text. According to the interactive model, the reading process works like this. First, clues to meaning are taken up from the page by the eye and transmitted to the brain. The brain then tries to match existing knowledge to the incoming data in order to facilitate the Further processing of new information. On the basis of this previous experience, prediction is made about the content of the text, which, upon further sampling of the data, is either confirmed or revised (Dubin and Bycina, 1991: 197).

So, there are three models of reading: bottom-up, top-down, and interactive, each of which has its own effectiveness according to whom the models are implemented. That is, the implementation of those three models are based the need of the readers.

B. ACADEMIC READING

Academic reading is the most frequent and important activity of students in tertiary education whose avenue to further academic advancement is English. Demand of acquiring this kind of reading comes as learners of English for second or foreign language realize that what they actually need is the skills to read various kinds of scientific material through their study in universities. A course of academic reading which most universities offer is "Intensive English program" or "Advanced level Reading"



or "Reading for Academic purposes" or even English for study purposes (Sekara, 1987: 121).

1. The Definition of Academic Reading

Sekara (1987) define academic reading as reading not for pleasure but for information that has been researched, organized, and documented in accordance with the rules of academic discourse. This reading needs both understanding of the syntax and of semantic aspect of academic English and understanding of specific aspect of academic reading. This means that it requires readers to familiarize themselves with certain aspects of academic reading such as definitions, generalizations, hypothesis, and claims with or without evidence. In addition, it also requires them to familiarize themselves with certain aspects of academic discourse which includes syntactic sequences and words that are frequently used in academic discourse, especially sentence initial grammatical sequences such as This study attempts to..., The finding of the study states that..., and There is considerable evidence to support that..., and devices used to create textual cohesion as in Grallet (1981: 14-16) such as on the contrary, however, and furthermore.

Other definition is given by Smith and Coffey (1983: 2-3). They state that academic reading is reading for specialist purposes in various sciences or science-related fields. This kind of reading needs the combination of the acquisition of important skills with lively and innovative language work, both of which clearly relate to the students' academic needs. It needs comprehension and interpretation not only of written text but also of charts, graphs, and diagrams. Besides, it needs a range of skills required to function effectively in English, and to practice activities such as data



collection, note making, and the compilation reports.

This idea is seemingly the same as Dubin and Bycina's (1991) idea. They say that actually academic reading is a cover term for a variety of strategies that bring together advanced reading, study skills, vocabulary building, and even writing activities such as note taking, summarizing, and underlining. It means that in this kind of reading course a teacher must be able to simultaneously juggle a variety of objectives: instruction in reading per se; language culture concerns, or the element that makes activities in an ACADEMIC READING classroom different from native-born students; study skills and how to learn content from text.

To sum up, academic reading is reading not for pleasure but for information that has been researched, organized, and documented in accordance with the rules of academic discourse. In other words, it is reading for specialist purposes in various sciences or science related fields. It also can be said as a cover term for a variety of strategies that bring together advanced reading, study skills, vocabulary building, and writing activities.

2. The Specialization of Academic Reading

Dubin and Bycina (1991) give the specialization of academic reading, namely, the implementation of the interactive model of reading, the attention on cultural dimensions to reading, and the implementation of reading to learn and learning by doing. Dealing with the first term, they assume that students of academic reading course usually come with different experience of reading strategies. That is why interactive model of reading fits them. They are sure that it can fill in the lack of experience in one or both of the two models of reading: bottom-up and top-down.

The second characteristics which they find refer to three



kinds of cultural dimensions, namely, cultural dimension of the world of academic, of the readers' purpose, and of the nature of material. The first term, cultural dimension of the world of academic, refers to what they say below:

"Learners in ESL/EFL academic reading courses come with values, beliefs and attitudes which reflect their own cultural patterns of living and thinking. At the same times, all of the reading activities, which are carried out in the classroom, are themselves reflective of a distinct subculture, namely, the world of schooling. While teachers are usually sensitive to cultural differences, they may take for granted, or simply overlook, those cultural aspects, which belong uniquely to the world of academic" (Dubin and Bycina's, 1991: 199).

The second cultural dimension to reading that they state belongs to one's purposes for reading and attitude one holds toward the book and its content. Dealing with this they argue:

"it may be appropriate for theorists to conjuncture about the idealized dialog between the reader and the author, but if a reader has been culturally embed with the idea that texts are sacred, not to be doubted or discussed, then the ESL/EFL teacher needs to utilize techniques and instructional practices which take attitudes based on cultural background" (Dubin and Bycina's, 1991: 200)

A further cultural dimension, according to them, lies in the nature of the subject matter content and academic discipline from which it stems. As the explanation, they say:

Physical and biological sciences tend to have their own system for presenting information; they are written in particular format; they make use of specialized vocabularies; they contain a tone which is associated with the field. Similarly, The sub-fields of social science have their own ways of presenting knowledge in text. Readers must be made aware of these significant subculture differences among disciplines since it can make academic reading and learning easier to cope with (Bensoussan



& Gollan, 1985; Folley, 1985; Mustapha, Nelson, & Thomas; Szollosy, 1985 in Dubin and Bycina's, 1991: 200)

Dealing with this cultural dimension, Walsh (1982: 143-146) states that scientific text is a very complicated document. The complexity is product of three separate, yet closely connected variables: the linguistic that can be described in terms of vocabulary and syntax, the rhetorical that reflects the scientific method, and the conceptual that originally comes from the subject.

Dealing with the syntax as linguistic part of scientific text difficulties, Walsh (1982) in Forum Anthology (1984: 144) states some linguistic features in the text, which he notes from some writers. He provides a list of scientific text's features that would include the following:

- a. Passive voice: to depersonalize text. Also used to focus attention on the grammatical subject.
- b. Present simple: used to describe sequences, process and cycles. Also used to state general truth.
- c. Past tense and present perfect: used to refer to previous research and imply relevance to present research by an appropriate choice between these tenses.
- d. Complex subject and simple verb forms: in contrast with conversational or literary English, the verb form in scientific text is usually simple whereas the subject is often complex.
- e. Modal verbs: use widely in scientific text; in particular, to make predictions. Latin and Greek affixes: many scientific words are formed from these two languages.
- f. The use of pronouns, articles, modifiers, and relativization in scientific texts.
- g. The use of measurements, the use of interpretation and low-like statements.



- h. Conclusion sentences, and the use of comparative and temporal structures. (Walsh, 1982 in Forum Anthology, 1984: 141)

The third characteristic of academic reading that is stated by Dubbin and Bycina (1991) is that academic reading course should emphasize both reading to learn (activities that stress comprehension of subject matter content) and learning by doing (activities that call for utilization of the ideas in the text). The former deals with the text at hand exclusively; and the latter takes the learner beyond the text and into some kinds of reformulation of the fact, information, and concepts found in it.

The last characteristic that they find is the role of teacher. They assume that in academic reading class, teachers have responsibilities that are unique to the skills of reading itself, for it is the teacher who must provide a model granted of how a good reader behaves. However, they assume that it is up to the teacher to impart a positive attitude about the activity of reading.

3. The Aspects of Academic Reading

Scientific materials are usually written by scientists who work scientifically. They usually describe, illustrate, compare, classify, analyze the process, analyze the cause, define, and generalize their finding. They, then, use those scientific rules as the pattern of their writing by means of such discourse markers that make the patterns work (Zimmerman, 1998: 1)

Regarding this, modelling various kinds of scientific text is the major requirement for the reader to follow the writer's way of thinking. By the modelling, the readers are required to be aware of the important parts of each model. In general, this includes distinguishing among the given models, identifying the



2. Ability Level of Readers

Reading fluency is a product of complex interactions between the properties of the text and what readers bring to the reading situation. Proficient readers approach a text with relevant knowledge, word decoding ability, text-based and situation model-based inferencing skills, competency with a variety of reading strategies, metacognitive skills, and so on (Graesser 1997; McNamara & O'Reilly, in press; Oakhill, 1994; Perfetti, 1985, 1994, Snow, 2002). Each of these dimensions has a profound impact on fluency and may hold implications for the assessment of individuals' reading fluency ability (Hannon & Daneman, 2001; Oakhill, 1994; Perfetti, 1985, 1994).

3. Influence of Text Characteristics

Students read text for different purposes, and reading purposes are closely associated with the text genre. For example, some goals for of reading narrative stories may be to understand the basic sequence of events described, be entertained, and extract some moral or point. On the other hand, the primary purpose of reading expository texts such as science or history texts is to learn or acquire new information about scientific or historical facts about natural/social events. In addition, these two types of texts differ in terms of the novelty of information contained in the text. Thus, the same reader may appear relatively strong or weak depending on the reading situations, which often involve different purposes that are largely associated with the text genres (Best, Rowe, Ozuru, & McNamara, 2005; McNamara, Floyd, Best, & Louwerse, 2004).

In order to accurately detect the intra-individual differences in reading fluency resulting from text/genre effect, it is impor-



tant to take into consideration the notion that different goals are associated with these different types of texts.

4. Assessment Goals

The complexities suggest that selecting an assessment tool should be guided by the specific goal of the assessment. In this section, we discuss issues related to assessment goals in order to provide more specific guidelines for the selection process. Fluency assessment may occur in any situation in which a researcher or educator is interested in understanding psychological processes or products of reading. Assessment may occur for a variety of purposes:

Evaluating the fluency of on-line processing of materials, assessing the nature of a memory representation, or determining how effectively a student can apply the knowledge gained from a text to a relevant task (e.g., law school students developing an argument based on legal materials). Assessment occurs in variety of contexts that range from laboratory to educational settings. The same assessment techniques are not appropriate in all settings. For example, in the context of discourse psychology research, the primary goal of the assessment may be to identify the nature of inference processes that occur online during reading (e.g. Graesser et al., 1994; Magliano & Graesser, 1991; McKoon & Ratcliff, 1992). As such, researchers have used a variety of tasks that provide measures of reading behavior, such as sentence reading times, eye movements, probe response methodologies (e.g., lexical decision, word naming), and verbal protocol methodologies (e.g., thinking aloud). Many of these methodologies could not be readily implemented in educational settings for both practical and institutional reasons. In addition, an emphasis on test-based



accountability has resulted in individual state governments mandating the use of standardized assessment tools (Dwyer, 2005). As a result, alternative assessment approaches for evaluating student achievements used by discourse and school psychologists (Deno, 1985, 1986; Shinn, 1989) may not be readily adopted.

5. Technical Administration of Academic Reading Assessment: Using Moodle

There are substantial advantages to assessing academic reading fluency by means of computer-based internet-hosted quizzes. Including such tests helps develop student academic reading digital literacy, which as I elsewhere identify, is critically needed. These tests can be integrated into comprehensive learning management systems such as Moodle, and administered as class tasks, with credit given. Administering such literacy tests at the start and completion of a course would provide a sense of individual and class academic reading aptitude, and of the effectiveness of the course in developing such aptitude. The tests can be given quickly and efficiently, and are automatically graded, so students can, if desired, learn their score on completion, while teachers can view the scores online in an integrated grading resource, and download class scores into spreadsheets.

However, there are very real limitations to using such testing for evaluating student improvement in academic reading ability. Firstly, it is absolutely critical that the online hosting service be reliable, with dependable access. Secondly, it is advisable to ensure students have some prior experience in creating an online account, logging in, and undertaking online quizzes before placement tests are set. Thirdly, the types of questions that can be set in an online environment have certain constraints, and favor set



answers e.g. true/false, multiple choice and matching question types, though open-ended and even essay-type questions can also be set and fairly efficiently graded. Fourthly, it is very difficult to ensure students do not cheat. Whilst I maintain that access to online resources should generally be facilitated and consider the skills required to access them desirable to instill, it is difficult to prevent students then improperly accessing online resources when taking online quizzes, placement test and exams, where they may have been instructed not to do so. Similarly, students are adept at using instant messaging clients (as well as cell-phone SMS) to improperly communicate with one another during such tests, and to prevent this is challenging, requiring constant proctoring and distasteful threats to fail cheating students. Fifthly, institutional computer facilities are very probably limited; computer labs require sufficient computers for each student in the class, and are often set up in pairs, where it is easy for a student to view their partner's computer screen. Where many teachers and classes require these tests be done at about the same time of semester (e.g. during final exam week), the inherent clustering of demand for suitable computer labs will likely greatly exceed the supply, while at other times of the semester there will probably be little or no use of these facilities. Sixthly, an inherent limitation may be that of teacher motivation - the desire to get good results in a class, so that it appears the class has made a substantial improvement in academic reading fluency, may result in the teacher unduly coaching the students for the test, which invalidates the results.



E. CONCLUSION

Assessing academic reading fluency of university students is a complex matter. The complexity comes from the nature of the academic reading covering its specialization: the implementation of the interactive model of reading, the attention on cultural dimensions to reading, and the implementation of reading to learn and learning by doing. Appropriate framework of constructing assessment approaching the nature of academic readers competence is also a highstake task. Making use of model based test can possibly approach the complex framework of assessing academic reading ability.

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importance of major parts of the text (the thesis and supporting details) and identifying the importance of discourse markers or transitional phrases explored in different types of text.

In details, the most activity of academic readers is that they have to follow the way of thinking of the writer through awareness of the important aspects of the written text. He has to consider what the writer's main point is (main idea), how the writer presents his idea (text type), and what claim he made and the evidence he presented. Besides, he has to recognize the writer's approach (does he begin the article by directly stating the problem or by using a sequence of example), attitude (is he objective or critical, serious or humorous), opinion, (his opinion about the subject he is talking about), and purpose (to inform, to argue, to pursue, etc). Academic reading material also has nonlinguistic presentation of information, including diagrams, maps, graphs, and tables. The reader should also familiarize themselves with how to read the nonlinguistic presentation then (Sekara, 1987: 121).

Walsh (1982: 143-146) gives other aspects of academic reading namely the vocabularies. He argued since the vocabularies of scientific texts are also regarded difficult, the readers needs such practices of vocabulary building which relies on the uniqueness of scientific terms. This includes skills of identifying the existence and the importance of root of words, affixations, synonymy, hyponymy, blending, coinage, etc.

The aspects mentioned indicates that academic reading is a complex activity and is not easy to cover in such a set of academic reading test. Madsen (1983: 90-2), however, suggests that the most important aspects of reading for more advanced readers are reflected on three types of reading questions: (1) paraphrase, which



requires readers to understand the meaning of a sentence said in other words; (2) synthesis, which requires integration of ideas from more than one sentence; and (3) inference, which requires readers to see implications in what they read.

According to the writer, Madsen's idea can adequately cover those aspects stated by the other experts. As described previously, readers need to get closer to the way of thinking of the writer of scientific text, therefore, the following would be the reasons of choosing Madsen's aspects of academic reading as the basis for drawing the blue print for academic reading test.

Ideally, the readers should first know and be aware of those aspects of academic reading to reach adequate comprehension of the academic reading text. Too, the readers need to summarize the text which includes sub-skills of heading, underlining key words, taking notes, drawing charts, etc. Furthermore the readers are required to generate written expression, using their own words, based on the authentic materials they read while working on library research.

Readers need to identify the main idea of what they read. Identifying the main idea of the text can be acquired through such practices of **synthesizing**. This will include recognizing types of text that reflect the way of thinking of the writer that can be gained through such practices of analyzing various models of texts and of recognizing the discourse markers or transitional phrases employed. Readers also need to understand the claim and the evidence. Understanding the claim and the evidence can be reached through practices of **paraphrasing**. Besides, readers also need to identify the attitude, the approach, the opinion and the purpose of the writer. This can be acquired by such practices of drawing **inference**.



C. READING FLUENCY

The definition of fluency refers to a behavior performed with high degrees of accuracy and speed (Binder, 1996; Johnson & Layng, 1992). Fluency can occur with any reading behavior. Take the example of “oral reading fluency,” which Fuchs, Fuchs, Hosp, and Jenkins (2001) define as orally translating a text with “speed and accuracy.”

Macalister (2010) states that in the classroom, the three principal approaches to increase reading speed—easy extensive reading, repeated reading, and speed reading—all meet these conditions for fluency development to a considerable extent. First, extensive reading can be undertaken for either language development or fluency development goals (Hu & Nation, 2000, p. 423; Nation & Wang, 1999, p. 375). In easy extensive reading (Nation, 2009, p. 69) learners read materials that contain only known vocabulary; they are reading for their topic concerns, so receiving meaning is the focus; and they are reading a lot. The condition relating to faster performance is usually met by establishing targets or goals, such as reading for a set amount of time each day, or reading a book a week. A number of research studies have established a link between extensive reading and reading speed (e.g., Bell, 2001; Iwahori, 2008). Second, repeated reading requires the learners to read the same text repeatedly, either silently or aloud. Nation (2009, p. 66) explained how this activity meets all his conditions for fluency development. There are several possible ways in which repeated reading can be implemented, with one variation being the amount of support provided to the learners. For example, in assisted repeated reading learners read and simultaneously listen to the text during some of the re-reading stages. In foreign language teaching, assisted repeated reading has been



found to be effective in developing fluency as measured in words per minute (wpm), but with no significant difference between the impact of repeated reading and extensive reading (Taguchi, Takayasu-Maass, & Gorsuch, 2004). Third, speed reading courses usually consist of a set number of texts of a fixed length, written within a restricted lexicon, followed by several multi-choice questions. The presence of the questions encourages learners to read the texts for understanding, rather than focus on skimming the text as quickly as possible. Such courses meet all Nation's conditions for fluency development. Because the texts are written with a restricted, known vocabulary all that the learners are reading is expected to be familiar to them, and as comprehension questions follow each text the learners' focus is on receiving meaning. At the same time, as learners are recording both their speed and their comprehension scores for each text there is some encouragement to perform at a faster than usual speed. The condition requiring a large amount of input is met by the number of texts.

To achieve fluency in reading, a student generally engage in some type of practice. Practice methods used to promote fluent reading behavior have a diverse nature and can include flashcards, worksheets, and "round robin." Because reading encompasses a variety of behaviors (Carnine, Silbert, & Kameenuk, 1997), teachers may find a general procedure for practice beneficial for classroom use. Precision Teaching (Lindsley, 1972, 1991, 1997), a method for measuring behavior and facilitating effective decision-making, can help plan for and monitor master activities leading to fluency. The following recommendations as stated by Kubina, 2005 come from applications of Precision Teaching (e.g., Binder, 1996; Haughton, 1972; Lindsley, 1997; Maloney, 1998) and suggest how a systematic practice procedure can



benefit students with and without disabilities during reading instruction in an inclusive classroom.

1. Allocate time during the reading period for practice activities.
2. Pinpoint the behavior selected for practice.
3. Select the range of behaviors in the practice set.
4. Itemize steps involved in the practice routine.
5. Select an optimal "counting time" for the practice routine.
6. Select a "fluency aim" for the pinpointed behavior.
7. Combine practice steps with the selected counting time and initiate practice.
8. Reinforce correct performance and provide feedback for incorrect performance after the practice session has ended.

D. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF ACADEMIC READING ASSESSMENT

The conceptual framework of academic reading fluency assessment presented here was inspired by the general framework of reading fluency advocated by Snow (2002), which takes into consideration the reader, texts, and reading activities, all of which are bounded by a socio-cultural context. Similarly, we propose that reading comprehension assessment tools (called assessment tools hereafter) should be evaluated in the light of: (1) the reading comprehension processes, products, and activities the assessment tool is designed to observe and measure; (2) the ability levels of the target readers; and (3) the types of texts the tool uses to structure and observe examinee reading performance. With respect to this later dimension, we stress the importance of using a discourse analysis, such as a causal network analysis



(Trabasso, van den Broek, & Suh, 1989) to explicate the underlying structure of the texts used in an assessment tool. These analyses can be invaluable for predicting comprehension processes and products that should reflect various levels of comprehension at specific points in a text (e.g., Magliano & Graesser, 1991, Trabasso & Suh, 1993) The importance of these dimensions is determined by one's assessment goals. By this, we refer to the reason why the assessment is being conducted as well as the aspect of comprehension targeted by the assessment. This may seem an obvious consideration, but we contend that assessment goals will be met to the extent that they are explicit and evaluated as to whether the tool meets those goals.

1. Processes, Products, and Activities of Comprehension

Fluency arises from a series of cognitive processes and activities including word decoding, lexical access, syntactic processing, inference generation, reading strategies (e.g., self-explanation), and post-reading activities (e.g., summarization, question asking and answering, argumentation). These contribute to a reader's ability to connect the meaning of multiple sentences into a coherently connected mental representation of the overall meaning of text. These processes give rise to multiple levels of mental representations (Balota, Flores d'Arcais, & Rayner, 1990; Kintsch, 1988; Kintsch & van Dijk, 1978; van Dijk & Kintsch, 1983). Although many of these processes can be conceptualized as occurring sequentially on a temporal continuum (Ferreira & Clifton, 1986; Fodor, 1983), many are likely to occur in parallel (e.g., McClelland & Rumelhart, 1981; Wiley & Rayner, 2001), at least for proficient readers.



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APPLYING SOCIAL ASPECTS THEORY OF PRAGMATICS IN COMICS

Woro Retnaningsih

Cultural-historical activity theory (CHAT) is a school of thought concerning itself with the relation and interaction between humans and their material and social environment. Originally a psychological tradition, it has been expanded into a more general, multidisciplinary approach, which is used in semiotics, anthropology, sociology, cognitive science, linguistics, and design research. Thus, it would be more suitable to call it a framework, an approach, or a research program. From another perspective, CHAT is one of the few research traditions in human sciences originating in the former Soviet Union that have been able to gain acceptance in the Western research.

A. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

Cultural-historical activity theory, CHAT, originated in attempts by psychologists, as early as the 1920s, to establish a new, Marxist-based approach to psychology. The foundation of Activity Theory was laid by L.S. Vygotsky during the 1920s and early 1930s. (see Vygotskij, Lev Semenovich.) His work was continued

by A.N. Leont'ev and A.R. Lurija, who both developed his ideas further and began to use the term "activity." (A good historical review of that development can be found in Leont'ev, 1989.) For a Marxist psychologist, who favors a monistic explanation of human mental processes, the Cartesian mind-body dualism is unacceptable. Thus, the starting point of CHAT is that human thinking has both phylogenetically and ontogenetically emerged and developed in practical action and social interaction in the world; there is no separate mind that could be studied in isolation from these actions; significantly, the individual person is thus not a real unit of the analysis of mind. In any such analysis, the purposefulness of actions must be taken into account, and therefore it is necessary to include a minimal context that makes the actions meaningful for the acting subject. This context, typically a purposeful, social system of actions, is called an activity. Certain general principles within this framework include object orientation; mediation by culturally and historically formed artifacts (tools and signs); hierarchical structure of activity; and zone of proximal development.

B. OBJECT ORIENTATION

The most central feature of CHAT is that activities are oriented towards a specific object and that different objects separate activities from each other. In this tradition, the concept of object is complex and loaded. Activities emerge when human needs find a way to be fulfilled in the world. The object here is the entity or state of the world, the transformation of which will hopefully produce the desired outcome. An object has, thus, a double existence: it exists in the world as the material to be transformed by



artifactual means and cooperative actions, but also as a projection on to the future—the outcome of the actions. The object is not exactly given beforehand, but it unfolds and concretizes in the interactions with the material and the conditions.

Being a constantly reproduced purpose of a collective activity that motivates and defines the horizon of possible goals and actions, the “sharedness” of the object is present only in social relations across time and space, as well as embodied in terms of history. Locally, the sharedness of an object is a process of social construction with divergent views and creative uses of cultural and interactional resources. Activities are thus often multivoiced, and none of the existing perspectives on the object can be defined as right—such a definition can only be given within an activity.

C. MEDIATION

The notion of tool mediation is one of the central features of CHAT. Actions are mediated by culturally and historically constituted artifacts, an artifact being defined as something that has been manufactured by a human. Thus, our relation with the world is shaped not only by our personal developmental history and experiences from various interactions, but also by the history of the broader culture we are part of. The world has been concretized in the shape of tools, symbols, and signs that we use in our activities. The world does not appear to us as such, uncontaminated, but as a culturally and historically determined object of previous activities. Humans project both these earlier meanings and those that have arisen from the fulfillment of current needs on to their objects; at the same time, they envision the potential results to be achieved. Language is an essential part of



this toolkit, a tool of tools. According to CHAT, all mediation has both a language side and a material character: symbols and signs, and tools and instruments are all integral parts in the same mediation process. Thus the foundation of our actions is a continuous synthesis of two versions of the world: one directly given, the other culturally and historically mediated.

D. THE SOCIO-PRAGMATIC NATURE OF THE SIGN

Activity theory has paid much attention to semiotic mediation. Vygotsky's final work *Thought and Language* (1934) has contributed greatly to the understanding of human mental activity in socio-cultural terms, by assigning a crucial function to language as a psychological tool capable of mediating the development of the mind. Language as a tool calls for the use of artificial stimuli, that is, the use of culturally and historically construed sign systems. Signs serve to control the psyche and behavior of others and the Self, bringing to bear traces of social activities and social relations sedimented in language.

Vygotsky's socio-genetic approach to thought and language was developed originally in the research tradition of developmental psychology, aiming at understanding the child's mental growth. Later works of CHAT have continued with semiotic mediation and identity formation by focusing more on language use and utilizing notions such as the internal and external dialogicality of discourse. The interest is here in analyzing language from the viewpoint of sense-making, as it takes place within the contexts of the complex relationship between pragmatic activity and social processes. Sense-making is viewed as an active, culturally mediated process within and with which the external world is



translated into a conceivable world and organized into objects of activities. Social change of language is explored with the help of developmental trends of sense-making through which new elements of meaning come into our social interests without leaving old meanings untouched.

E. OVERALL STRUCTURE OF ACTIVITIES

According to Leont'ev (1978), activities have a three level hierarchical structure. Besides the activity level, which is a particular system of actions, and the action level itself, there is a third level, the lowest one, of operations. Operations are former actions that have become automated during personal development, and which are triggered within actions by specific conditions in the situation. Whereas in actions, there are always planning, execution, and control phases, operations are much more condensed, rapid, and smooth.

To become skilled in something is to develop a collection of related operations. Operations are not, however, like conditioned reflexes: if the conditions do not fit, the operations return back to the action level. In the tradition of the founders of CHAT, new forms for depicting activity have been elaborated. The most influential attempt to model an activity is due to Engeström. In his *Learning by expanding*, he aimed at defining a historically and concretely constituted system that has a timespan and internal transformations of its own.

The model of individual action in Figure 1 has been complemented to depict the collective activity system. The model looks at the activity from the point of view of one actor, the subject, but the fact that subjects are constituted in communities is indicated



by the point in the model labeled "community." The relations between the subject and the community are mediated, on the one hand, by the groups' full collection of "tools" (mediating artifacts) and, on the other hand, by "rules" that specify acceptable interactions between members of the community, and "division of labor," the continuously negotiated distribution of tasks, powers, and responsibilities among the participants of the activity system (Cole, 1993: 7).

In an activity, the relation between individual actions and the outcome of the whole activity becomes mediated and indirect. Leont'ev (1978) explained the relation between individual actions and collective activity using an example of primitive hunters who, in order to catch a game, separate into two groups: the catchers and bush-beaters, where the latter scare the game in order to make them move towards the former. Against the background of the motive of the hunt—to catch the game to get food and clothing material—the individual actions of the bushbeaters appear to be irrational unless they are put into the larger system of the hunting activity.

F. ZONE OF PROXIMAL DEVELOPMENT

Activity systems are socially and institutionally composed entities exhibiting internal conflicts which develop through transformations. The characteristic feature of CHAT is the focus on such changes; it studies cognition, including language, as a dynamic, culture-specific, and historically changing phenomenon constituting activity systems. In this context, the zone of proximal development (ZPD) has become Vygotsky's most widely referenced notion. It concerns children's learning processes, and



it does cover linguistic applications in other areas, such as speech pathology, translation, and lexicography. Applied pragmatics embraces practices rooted in a pragmatic perspective on language users, language use, and contexts of use, where the users and their complex of personal, social, cultural, and ideational contexts are seen as paramount.

If pragmatics itself is a “user-oriented science of language”, AP is a problem-solving activity with an emphasis on using pragmatic knowledge critically, imaginatively, and constructively in the real-world context of the “social struggle”, rather than on rehearsing the tenets of canonical pragmatic theory (Mey, 2001: 308-319). The relevance of pragmatics for the wider social agenda at the micro- and macro-levels of operation can be attributed in part to a series of developmental and formative tendencies: a concerted reaction to the syntactic formalism of Chomskyan linguistics and the preoccupation with language as system, where the language user and contexts of language use are disenfranchised; a “social-critical” impetus, fueled by the desire to create a socially sensitive practice of language, typified for instance by the work of Basil Bernstein and the critical distinction he drew between restricted and elaborated code; a unique perspective on language as action and speech act theory, initiated by the work of J.L. Austin and the work of “ordinary language philosophers”; and a perspective on language as communication rather than on language as grammar, deriving from the ethnomethodological tradition (Mey, 1998: 716).



H. LEVELS OF APPLICATION: MICRO-AND MACRO-PROCESSES

Applying pragmatics operates at both the micro- and macro-levels of communication, although this distinction is approximate and more of a labeling convenience, since the two levels interpenetrate and synergize. “Micro-pragmatics” looks at the day-to-day context of communication between individuals and groups situated in their local contexts. At the same time, local practices need to be seen against the societal backgrounds and institutional settings in which they occur (i.e., “macro-pragmatics”). Micro- and macro-pragmatics are points in a continuum, each linking to the other and each serving as the focus according to the aim of the enquiry. Verschueren (1999: 220-224) cites Goodwin’s (1994) analysis of the Rodney King trials as a case in point. While being arrested for a traffic violation in Los Angeles, King, an African-American, was subjected to a violent beating by police officers—an event that was filmed by an amateur video photographer and later broadcast on public television to public outrage. The police officers were subsequently put on trial and later acquitted.

This led to street riots in Los Angeles and a subsequent retrial. As a communicative event, the courtroom proceedings can only be properly understood in relation to the macro-setting created by the institutional and social contexts in which they took place and through which they were mediated: the particular structure and participant roles and the associated verbal processes typical of the (U.S.) courtroom and a legal/trial setting; the actual and perceived social status of African-Americans within American society, as embodied by King at the time and subsequently; and the role of community and civil rights leaders and their adoption



of the King case as a heuristic to draw attention to racism and police brutality. Thus, transcriptions of the trial process can be initially approached as instances of face-to-face linguistic interaction in a courtroom setting, but as the tale unfolds, the total event and its wide-reaching implications can only be properly understood in terms of how (U.S.) legal institutions reflect, endorse, and perpetuate particular societal practices and values.

I. DOMAINS OF APPLICATION: MICRO- AND MACRO-PRAGMATICS

As a perspective rather than a component of a linguistic theory, pragmatics can purposefully be applied in the investigation of all instances of language use, whether at the level of the individual, the group, the institution, or society as a whole, and whether at the level of the sentence/utterance or in relation to extended discourse (Verschueren, 1999: 203; Mey, 1998: 728). With its focus on the sentence/utterance level of discourse, micro-pragmatics is concerned primarily with the local constraints of the immediate context, such as: deixis and the indexing of personal, temporal, and locative features; reference and the textually directive function of anaphora and cataphora; and word order and the sequencing/clustering of particles and their discourse function to modify illocutionary force, to facilitate the management of conversation, or to highlight salient parts in a stretch of discourse.

Yet, rooted as these linguistic features are in the immediate surroundings of an utterance, the link with the world becomes apparent as the focus shifts from the individual to the wider, institutionally and societally driven contexts in which humankind



must necessarily operate. To quote Mey (2001: 177) The world in which people live is a coherent one, in which everything hangs together: none of its phenomena can be explained in isolation.

This is now the domain of macro-pragmatics. Institutional and institutionalized language practices figure prominently on the agenda (and often), where power asymmetries may arise as the result of gender difference, perceived social standing and social privilege, and (lack of) access to power. Typical research areas and domains of application include: medical discourse and the study of language use in doctor-patient interviews, psychoanalysis, and schizophrenic discourse; educational and pedagogical language practices, such as teacher-student interaction, language acquisition and the development of pragmatic competence, the articulation of language policy in relation to minority language instruction, wording of the learning/teaching curriculum, and, more generally, the sets of attitudes and beliefs propagated through the 'hidden curriculum'; the language of the workplace and its impact on management-worker relations; the language of the media, especially advertising discourse; the language of politics, government, and ideology, viewed as a force for linguistic manipulation and the engineering of human minds; and intercultural and international communication and the (lack of) understanding of cultural and communicative diversity, where what is pragmatically appropriate in the given context is at issue. In short, macro-pragmatics considers language use in terms of the totality of contexts in which the unique, dynamic, human activity of verbal communication takes place. It takes its cues from a variety of other related disciplines, such as (linguistic) anthropology, sociology, ethnology, and linguistic science itself.



J. APPLYING PRAGMATICS AND THE LANGUAGE USER

Applying pragmatics aims to develop an awareness of the crucial role that language plays in the construction of individual, group, and societal identities and the consequences of these “constructed identities” for individual freedoms and the rights of individuals to participate fully in the communities of which they are a part. Exploration of the macro-context, in relation to which all language activity takes place, is the province of “societal pragmatics,” with its unique focus on the users of language and the prevailing conditions under which they use language. Applying pragmatics highlights problems of language use that arise in social contexts where the failure to communicate successfully may lead to social exclusion and disadvantage.

The domain of education is often singled out as the main sphere of human activity in which social privilege and access to power are unevenly distributed. Education is mediated and perpetuated through language. Any departure from institutionally identified standards of linguistic behavior is stigmatized and faces sanction. Hence, talk of linguistic oppression may take place, as evidenced, for instance, by the opposition between “low” and “high” prestige dialects. The latter can be associated with the linguistic standards whose observance is dictated for wider use by a minority but dominant class of language user. This language oppression is nothing less than social control through language. The insights provided by AP enable us to develop an awareness of the insidious effects of language repression while calling for greater transparency in how society deals with the individual’s linguistic behavior in the educational setting (Mey, 1998: 731-732).

Societal pragmatics is also concerned with other social con-



K. APPLYING PRAGMATICS AND THE SOCIAL STRUGGLE

Applying pragmatics is explicitly concerned with situating the concerns of societal pragmatics in terms of a broad social-political agenda; it is interventionist rather than descriptive in its primary aims. Applying pragmatics is all about doing pragmatics. As a case in point, Mey (2001: 313-315) cites the success of the linguistic war against sexism and the now mostly abandoned use of generic pronoun he as a modest yet significant victory for non-sexist practice. Uprooting the hegemonic he is not just linguistic tinkering; it brings about a restructuring of stated social relationships, thereby facilitating gender equality.

Applying pragmatics shares common concerns with critical linguistics, whose aim is to expose the hidden relationships between social power and language use, against the backdrop of sociopolitical and cultural factors. Case studies include: political discourse, specifically the clichés rhetoric of Britain's political parties; the language of labor disputes and their documentation in the media; the use of more critically aware pedagogies in (English) second-language teaching; and the characterization of social power as a given or natural phenomenon, legitimized through unquestioning acceptance by the public.

Applying pragmatics has a crucial, empowering, and emancipatory role to play. It helps us understand the power of language to discriminate indiscriminately across a range of social contexts; it suggests an agenda for pragmatically informed intervention on behalf of the disenfranchised, underprivileged language user; and, last, it seeks to put language in the hands of the language user, wresting linguistic control from those who would undermine and deny the right.



L. PRAGMATIC ASPECTS OF COMICS

A comic (plural: comics), also known as (a) comic strip(s), is a narrative form that combines written text and pictorial elements. A comic consists of a series of interrelated picture/text combinations. Each single picture stands in direct relation to the preceding units; this sequential order constitutes a chain of reference. Comparable to other serial productions of mass media such as soap operas or book and film series, comics have a continuous cast of main characters. The fact that the reader is familiar with the protagonists' background serves as another important point of reference. Comics either appear as regular strips in printed media (comic strips), in comic magazines with contributions by various authors, or as comic books featuring a main character and his or her story or episodes.

1. Origins of the Comics

Although the historic roots of comics can be traced back to the 18th and 19th centuries, to political cartoons and illustrated narratives such as *Max und Moritz* (1865) by Wilhelm Busch, comics in their modern form are a relatively recent phenomenon. At the end of the 19th century, American newspapers included comic strips in their Sunday supplement to attract more readers. These humorous picture-stories, also known as "the funnies" or comic strips, gave their name to a new genre (see *Genre and Genre Analysis*), the comics, which is not restricted to funny stories only.

2. Narrative Means: How Comics Tell a Story

Is there a language specific to comics? At first sight, expressions like "zoom", "grrowr!", and "splash!" are likely to be iden-



tified as typical expressions of comic language. While such expressions are certainly characteristic of the medium, they do not touch its essence. Among the great variety of narrative means of the comic, the most important feature is the interdependence of the illustrations and written text. Both elements are bearers of meaning, but it is their combination that makes up the narrative. While the narrative may have any imaginable content—there are adventure stories, political satire, family series, the classical Greek mythologies and the Bible retold, comics for children, so-called adult comics with erotic or pornographic components, etc.—what all comics have in common is the use of this specific means of telling a story.

A comic consists of minimally two picture-text units, called panels. Panels are usually square boxes containing an image and sometimes text, bounded by a thin frame line. These panels are to be read in sequential order, comparable to a normal text, and this sequential relation distinguishes a comic from a mere accumulation of pictures. This sequence distinguishes a comic from a cartoon, which consists of a single picture-frame only.

If a comic is to be read like a text, the author has to create coherence within the story. He achieves this by forming a “chain of reference.” This chain of reference will enable the reader to recognize the different panels as narrative elements of the same story, comparable to the process of reading a text—the reader knows that the preceding words of a sentence are connected to the following words and will create a coherent narrative. To illustrate this, let’s imagine an episode with the world’s most famous duck, Walt Disney’s Donald Duck. A first panel might show Donald Duck sitting on a bench; the second one, Donald walking through a park; the last one, Donald in front of a house. Theo-



retically, the reader could interpret this pictures as three separate pictures: “Donald sits on a bench” / “Donald takes a stroll in the park” / “Donald stands in front of his/a house.” But the reader knows, by means of identical reference, that every Donald appearing in the panels following the first panel is the same protagonist in the same story. That way, the reader can fill in the narrative gaps and verbalize this sequence of panels as “Donald sat on a bench and walked home through a park.” As most readers will be familiar with the small suburban house that Donald lives in, the author can draw on this familiarity with Donald’s surroundings as a further point of reference.

This system of reference is based on two narrative strings. One string refers to the space or environment where the action occurs, the other refers to the action itself.

In this way, once introduced, the environment “park” remains valid until a new environment appears. The depiction of the park can be reduced to a single tree, a meadow, a flower—it may even disappear entirely, with no harm done to text comprehensibility, as the reader will still know the setting to be a park. The other string deals with the action. Here, too, an element, mostly a living being such as Donald Duck in the example above, refers to its first introduction and can be reduced in various ways, e.g., to a silhouette, a hand, a hat floating on the water (as will happen to such an unlucky person as Donald). The separation between these two narrative strings, environment and action, is not absolute, though; an element of the environment can become bearer of an action, for instance, when a rock gives up its function as environment and falls down to block the road instead.

Conversely, Donald’s car can change function: when he parks it in front of his house and walks away, the car becomes part of



the environment and is no longer an element of the action string. In comics, a story can do without a description of the environment, but not without action. However, even though the description of action thus has priority over that of the environment, the latter has another, equally important function: it determines the rhythm of the narrative. An environment drawn in every detail will slow down the narrative rhythm, since the reader is likely to spend more time contemplating the picture and to study all the details shown, whereas a picture stripped of all environmental details will speed up the pace of the narration.

3. Playful Conventions: How to Read the Narrative Codes

Most readers of comics have been familiar with the genre since childhood, hence know to decipher the conventions of the codes specific to comics. There is no prescriptive list of given codes, comparable to punctuation in a written text, such as periods or commas. While certain conventions have been established, each author still has the freedom to disregard them, to play with them, and to invent new means of structuring a story—the only constraint being that the reader still must be able to grasp the meaning.

a. Common Narrative Codes in Comics Arrangement of Panels

Panels are usually arranged in sequential order, to be read from left to right and top to bottom, according to the usual direction of reading of the Latin alphabet. Deviations are marked by numbers or by arrows indicating the new direction. Deviations of the ordinary sequential pattern are often used to express



the rupture of the normal (i.e., linear) flow of narrated time and space, for example, to illustrate simultaneous action or a particular protagonist's train of thought, as in daydreaming. Panels may have subpanels. A large panel may take up an entire page in a comic book, or be divided into subpanels forming a whole; so-called split-panels are arranged to show the details of an action happening, comparable to slow motion in a film.

b. Panel Frame

The panel frame usually consists of a straight line forming a square frame. It indicates the boundaries of the image-text component. The form of the frame is included in the playful way that comics handle narrative conventions. The frame will become more than a mere designating line and start being a bearer of meaning, for instance, when a story within a story is being told. A flashback is marked by wavy or punctuated frame lines, zig-zagging lines will express strong emotions or pain. Irrespective of its shape, the frame's function becomes clear within the entire context. Some authors will occasionally omit the frame altogether. By doing so, they strip the topic of its environmental context. Thus, they create a moment of concentration, the effect resembling a closeup in film. Because almost anything goes in this genre (as long as the readers can construct meaning from the context), there are even authors that do without frames altogether.

c. Balloons

Balloons are another vital constitutive element of the comic's narrative codes. They contain words or thoughts attributed to figures in the panel, and indicate who is speaking or thinking.



a. *Text Within a Balloon*

Written texts in comics not only transmit their message by the words themselves, but also through the typographical appearance of the lettering. The latter is especially the case for the first two kinds of text mentioned, (a) and (b). One important feature of the balloon text is its size. Small letters in a relatively oversized balloon indicate a low voice or a whisper; big letters, almost bursting out of their balloon, indicate a loud voice or scream.

The size of the lettering thus compensates for the absence of sound in the comic medium. Various kinds of typography can be used to characterize the speaker. Comic author Walt Kelly, for instance, does this with great artistic subtlety in his story “Pogo” (cf. Figure 1). This example shows three types of balloons as well as three types of lettering. The tortoise shown in the first panel is communicating in thought-balloons, according to the convention that animals do not speak. The letters are written in the widely used conventional capitals. The second panel contains the balloon with the monologue of the deacon, a stiff-upper-lip persona forced to do kitchen-chores (“me, an administrative advisor, put to work peeling knockwursts and other vegetables”). His speech is contained by an ornamental balloon-frame, resembling ancient parchments. The letters are written in an accordingly old-fashioned way, made to resemble Gothic type, using capital and small letters.

Note, in the third panel, how small the letters “– sigh –” appear in the balloon. The last panel introduces an even different type of balloon; it is drawn to resemble a small cloud emerging from the bag containing the sausages and it contains the word “chomp!” (an expression that combines the verb and the sound – see the next section). So, just like the form of the panel or the bal-



loon, the form of the letters, too, can bear meaning. Words cried in anguish will appear shaky or fragmented; old-fashioned typography and ornamental lettering is used to evoke an atmosphere of once-upon-a-time.

b. Text Outside Balloons

Since comics cannot represent sound, they make it visible. This is achieved with the aid of sound-imitating or -describing words, also called onomatopoeia—"the zoom", "growr!", and "splash!" mentioned above. Whenever the text is not confined to the balloon, there are even fewer limits on the imagination of the author as to their typography. As in the balloon texts, big-sized lettering indicates loudness.

The source of the sound can be inferred from its position in the panel. "Plitch," a sound describing a dripping faucet, will appear near the surface that the water drop falls on. Some authors draw onomatopoeia with such expressiveness that these become pictures in themselves, e.g., a "bouumm!" with exploding letters. These expressions are often based on the imitation of sound, such as the just mentioned "bouumm!" that evokes the sound of an explosion. Often, a verb is shortened into a descriptive form that describes the action, as in "drip," "sob," "cracklerattlebash!". Not to forget the innumerable possibilities of combinations of both sound, verb, and description, as the above mentioned "chomp!" or the sound of a starting racing car: "vroummmroarr!". Note that a loud cry can take on the quality of a sound word, drawn without a balloon ("yikes!!").

c. Caption Texts

Caption texts are explanatory texts located at the edge of the



panel (or between panels), often in a small, square frame of their own. They comment on the progress of the story in the panel and give information that has not been conveyed by the panels. The function of the caption text is to link the panels, sum up or comment on the action, or provide any information the author wants to communicate to the reader. They frequently deal with time factors, e.g., they could read “later,” “meanwhile,” or “ten years ago.”

5. Pictorial Signs

Apart from the narrative means of structuring a story listed above, comics dispose of a large variety of pictorial signs. These signs appear as illustrations of the action taking place in the panel; often they are used to show a protagonist’s emotional state or his or her general condition. Such illustrations are often graphical translations of a figure of speech, such as “having a broken heart” or “if looks could kill”—the lovelorn protagonist will have a splintered heart hovering above his or her head in the first case, whereas small daggers will be drawn on their way from the protagonist’s eyes towards his or her adversary in the latter.

Great effort, embarrassment, and alarm are universally shown by little drops of perspiration flying from the protagonist’s head (as in sweating, due to physical exertion, or breaking out in cold sweat). Pain is depicted by stars appearing above the hurting part of his or her body; feeling dizzy, being drunk or knocked-out, by spirals around the head (cf. Above about balloons; hearts, light bulbs, etc., within the balloon). Apart from these mostly figurative illustrations, comics have developed a specific graphic feature to show movement. They are called “speed lines” and refer to the slurring of vision to the eye when an object or person moves



in fast motion. Speed lines will trail along a speeding object, telling the onlooker "it was here just a second ago, but it moved over there within the blink of an eye." Speed lines will show the course of the moving object; often, they are accompanied by small dust clouds to enhance the effect.

6. Doing without Sound and Motion: Narrative Rhythm

Every narrative is told in segments. An author will select which segments of a progression he or she will show or tell and leave gaps in between for the reader to fill in and make up a continuous narrative flow (see *Narrative Means: How Comics Tell a Story*, above). The pace of a narration is directly related to the number of panels; an event illustrated by many panels will naturally slow down the narrative rhythm, whereas inserting a caption reading "two weeks later" above a panel speeds it up. The narrative rhythm is not related to the time narrated. Apart from the numbers of panels, the narrative rhythm can also be varied by other means: by drawing a detailed environment (usually in a panel that is comparatively larger than the others), or by zooming out into a wide angle, as is often used in films to mark a moment of introduction or contemplation at the beginning or ending of a film. These wide angle shots are, for instance, used as recurring features in Goscinny & Uderzo's "Asterix the Gaul." The story usually starts with a large introductory panel, a wide angle shot of the "small village in Gaul," depicting a pastoral idyll, and it ends invariably with a panoramic view of the villagers enjoying themselves at a big banquet under the starry sky.

Equally, comics will make use of the other possibilities of film language, as it is expressed in the way a camera shot is taken. One of the factors involved is distance. A panel can show a small



human silhouette in the distance, in the vast landscape of a desert plain. Or it can show only a detail of that person's face e.g., a pair of frightened eyes, seen from very short distance. The close-up shot will let the reader be part of the protagonist's emotional state of mind, whereas the first example keeps the reader more at a distance. Apart from distance, the virtual camera can choose a particular angle to convey the narrative's message. A character shown from below will appear as someone superior and in control, someone looked down upon will appear as just that.

Clever authors even make use of the subjective camera, known from experimental films. Thus, in "Asterix and the Normans" a teenage boy from the capital Lutetia is sent to a remote small village "to become a man." He gets caught by the fearinspiring Normans, knocked over the head and falls unconscious. The Normans splash water on him and in the following panel we see what the frightened boy sees: A close-up of a row of awe-inspiring beards as seen from lying on the ground, all nasty smiles and helmets, looking very grim indeed.

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LIVING IN THE FUTURE: AUTONOMOUS LEARNING USING ARTIFICIAL INTELLIGENCE (AI)

Nuning Wahyu Astuti

Since Corona virus or the Covid-19 encircled Indonesia, there has been policies in the world of education taken by the Indonesian Government to overcome the crisis. To break the chain of virus transmission, everyone is forced to remain at home, and start working from home (WFH) and learning from home (LFH). In response to the WFH and LFH policies, all universities nationwide start online classes to prevent the virus outbreak. This strategic step has, of course, reaped a lot of pros and cons, especially for students who live in remote areas. Besides, in most of Indonesian higher education settings, online learning is not a common practice since both lecturers and students prefer having face-to-face instead of distance/online lectures. Due to the lack of trained human resources and limited internet service, it becomes challenging to ensure all students are getting access to the lectures.

To overcome the challenge, lecturers are forced to provide accessible learning platform and make sure that all students receive their required learning materials. Free software like Google Meet,

Zoom, and Facebook Live can be effective for online discussion. This discussion session is required to clarify the students' concepts and additional queries related to the lecture. Using WhatsApp Group as an additional tool can be an effective way to share recorded lectures suppose revision and further understanding is needed. Implementing both social networking applications and social media help students with poor communication skills interact effectively with their lecturer in comparison with face-to-face lectures (Khan, 2020). In other words, by being user friendly and convenient for both teachers and students, these tools serve as useful means of communication for online setting. If the situation continues, using advance Learning Management System (LMS) such as Moodle, Schoology, Google Classroom, or Canva will likely be a better option. It will allow students to receive an in-depth exposure of the online learning methods and instructors can also do comprehensive assessments on the other end.

To support learners' autonomy, some recent theoretical studies include the use of media and technology to promote autonomous learning in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) field (Fidyati, 2016). One of the most popular tools in today's online learning is the use of Artificial Intelligence (AI) in English teaching. It provides human-like interaction which enables students learn in a worry-free environment. Since students can have this application at their disposals, they have a freedom in determining what, when, and how they would like to study and that, in turn, increases their learning motivation. Despite various benefits of AI, this intelligent machine learning makes language instructor wonder if this machine will eventually replace humans in teaching language in the future. This chapter will elaborate the correlation of technology-based learning in promoting learn-



ers' autonomous learning, specifically in English teaching and learning context.

A. LEARNING AND TECHNOLOGY

Defined by the 2014 Horizon Report, learning technologies include both resources and tools developed specifically for the educational sector as well as development of tools adapted from other purposes that are suitable for learning (Johnson *et al.*, 2014). Therefore, technologies for learning may include badges for learning assessment, communicative feedback on the students' performance, and personal learning space. However, some technologies are not specifically designed for learning purposes, such as mobile apps, tablet computing, cloud computing, social media, and many other technologies that are now being adopted for online learning. Ng'ambi and Mozalek (in Rushby & Surry, 2016) argue that pedagogical considerations are the utmost priorities when it comes to learning technologies. There should be tasks that cover learners' prior knowledge and competencies to create meaningful learning.

In general, learning technologies should take cognizance of learners' prior knowledge that learners bring with them to their learning environments such as schools or universities. Students with less exposure to technologies may find it difficult to adjust with their new learning environment, thus the role of teachers and lecturers here is paramount. According to Vygotsky, if learners encounter ideas that do not fit into their existing schema, then there is an imbalance and they need assistance from their instructors to return to a state of balance. To describe this situation, Vygotsky uses the term Zone of Proximal Development



(ZPD) to explain that there is a boundary area where on one side learners can handle specific tasks independently using their prior knowledge and skills but beyond that boundary, they still need teachers' or lecturers' assistance (McInerney, 2015). Further, McInerney (2015) refers to this assistance as "scaffolded instruction" (p. 43). Panofsky and Vadeboncoeur (2012) suggest the relational context of Vygotsky's ZPD is attained when parents share information about learners' digital capabilities with the schools or universities so the teachers or lecturers can better understand the level of tasks given to the students.

Incorporating technologies in teaching and learning process may be daunting and challenging for some teachers and instructors, yet at the same time it can be a rewarding experience when used creatively and thoughtfully. McInerney (2015) contends that technologies generate unique, powerful, and transformative learning experience that may not happen in the same way when nonelectronic materials are used. The terms unique, powerful, and transformative convey how digital technologies can affect the behaviours and attitudes of both students and teachers in ways that provide new learning.

1. Unique indicates that technologies can accomplish what nonelectronic materials cannot—not in the same way and the same impacts.
2. Powerful declares that the impact of technology in institutions and society will be practical in nature and long lasting in duration.
3. Transformative affirms that technology alters the way teachers or lecturers teach and students learn in a way that make schools or universities an increasingly relevant, more engaging place for learning to happen.



Teachers and lecturers can use technologies to help students achieve five major areas in education: critical thinking, digital literacies, electronic communications and collaborations, creativity, and digital citizenship.

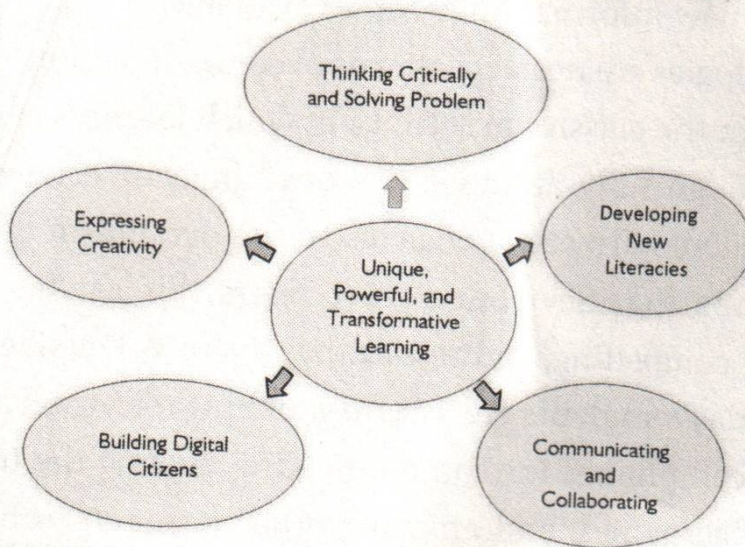


FIGURE 2.
TYPES OF UNIQUE, POWERFUL, AND TRANSFORMATIVE LEARNING

Source: Understanding Learning (McInerney, 2015).

Skills required in the 21st century include how to think critically and to solve problems. Learning technologies accommodate this skill by introducing students to alternative ways of thinking and acting. Reading, for example, has always been considered as a reflective process when it is done using print newspapers, and magazines (Kelly, 2010). A person reads and contemplated its meaning. Today, however, we are forced to read using digital screens where we intersect in advanced collection of information. These technologies encourage individuals to read and collaborate in ways that are possible on the screen. In response to this

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tion creation and presentation forms, learners must build habits of mind of continual learners (Kallick and Costa, 2009). Learners need to be able to think differently and solve problems in new ways. They also need to learn the skills of asking thoughtful questions, making reasoned decisions, and revising as well as arguing ideas when new information becomes available.

Technologies create new patterns of communication and collaboration in the classroom settings in which learners can work together thoughtfully, attentively, and willingly on academic activities. Students are easily engaged to the dynamism of digital environments that Seymour Papert refers this as “fast-paced, immensely compelling, and rewarding” (1980: 3). Outside school settings, today’s students are used to watching television and videos, using cell phones for communicating, surfing the Internet, playing video games, and enjoying other forms of technology-based communication and collaboration. With this technology-centred behaviour, teachers and lecturers are easier to promote online learning in their classroom setting. McInerney (2015) suggests that there are many ready-made technologies to promote collaboration and communication including social media, collaborative digital storytelling, student-conducted online polls and surveys, digital games for learning, translation software, and online posters and website publishing. Communication and collaboration activities can focus, engage, and motivate students.

Another powerful impact of technologies used in the classroom setting is the freedom of both learners and instructors expressing their creativity using words, pictures, symbols, and numbers. Creativity can be defined as thinking and acting in ways that produce alternative approaches to people, presentations, and problems (McInerney, 2015). In fact, a 2007 report



learning technologies is *digital literacies*. The use of technology has altered the way people find and use information. Computer search engines, social media, electronic encyclopedias and on-line databases, smartphone and other information storage make it possible to explore any topic electronically. Therefore, with lecturers and students having unprecedented access to information and technology, they face new requirements about how to assess the quality of information they find online. They need to acquire skills of assessing and accessing information. McInerney (2015) explains, assessing information refers to processes of determining the reliability and usefulness of the information, whereas accessing information refers to the activities of locating and acquiring information. The abilities of accessing and assessing information are among a group of new digital literacies that learners need to develop to function successfully in a digital era. The literacies include information and internet literacy, digital and media literacy, and the use of interactive visualizations for teaching and learning.

Immediate access to vast resources of online information requires students to gain the skill of information literacy. The skill is useful in recognizing differences among information sources—that is, what is intended to be persuasive (slogans or commercials), what is intended to be satirical (news in a humor magazine), and what is intended to be objective (scientific studies or news broadcasts). Students who do not know how to evaluate information may be confused or overwhelmed by the data they receive from multiple media (McInerney, 2015). As a result, students' critical thinking and clear understanding may diminish due to the information overload. As a part of information literacy, internet literacy includes the skills of understanding in-



formation presented online. Steeves argues that students tend to assume that whatever they find online are relevant and accurate. To overcome the situation, researchers with Teaching Internet Comprehension to Adolescent (TICA) proposed the so-called reciprocal teaching to promote internet literacy among students (McInerney, 2015). Reciprocal teaching requires teachers to read web material aloud to students and talk about word meanings. The students then asked to reread the material aloud and focus on critically evaluating what is being said and what the text may omit.

According to educators Aharon Aviram and Yoram Esthet-Alkalai (2010), digital literacy is a multidimensional concept involving a combination of technical, cognitive, and social skills. The skill requires students to learn photo-visual literacy (reading visual image), reproduction literacy (creating new interpretations using existing materials), information literacy (asking questions about the reliability of the information), and socio-emotional literacy (using analytical and critical thinking skills when receiving information). Related to digital literacy, media literacy refers to the ability of students to think critically about their experiences when using digital entertainment and social media (Hobbs, 2011). The last new literacy students need to develop is visual literacy. Myatt (2008) states that visual learning with technologies provide opportunities for teachers to develop students' critical thinking and this process is called visual literacy. Similar to text literacy, visual literacy develops from personal experience as well as from specific teaching about how color, form, and images can be used to communicate ideas and information.



B. AUTONOMY, MOTIVATION, SELF-ASSESSMENT, FEEDBACK

A commonly used definition of learners' autonomy is Holec's concept that learners are responsible for their own learning (Fidyati, 2016). Similar view is proposed by the director of CRAPEL (Centre de Reserches et D'Applications Pedagogiques en Langues) that explains learners' autonomy is the ability of people to take charge of their learning for both practical and theoretical reasons (Fidyati, 2016). Holec suggests that autonomous learning can be successfully implemented when using modes of learning such as Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL), self-access, and distance learning (Fidyati, 2016). Reflecting on today's situation, allowing students to have freedom of choice for their own learning is paramount since teachers and lecturers cannot fully supervise their students. The central idea of learners' autonomy is freedom of choice where students learn to initiate their own learning goals without fully relying on teachers or lecturers (Andrade and Bunker, 2009). Further, the essential characteristic of programmes providing learners' autonomy is the way in which lecturers' or teachers' scaffold instruction can function as learners' guidance, not as a decision-making process (Cotterall, 2000). Therefore, the concept of autonomous learning is not about being independent, but interdependent (Sanprasert, 2009).

Researchers adopt the concept of Deci's and Ryan's Self-Determination Theory (SDT) which includes the concept of relatedness to support autonomous learning (Fidyati, 2016). Sanprasert (2009) further connects autonomy to relatedness needs including the needs for contact, support, and community with others and those needs lead to autonomous interdependence. In order to be completely and successfully engaged in certain activities,



learners need a stimulant to focus on their learning. The stimulant can be created in the teaching and learning process, in the working space, or in any circumstance that requires social engagement and knowledge transfer. The forms of stimulant can be both intrinsic and extrinsic motivations. As stated by McInerney (2015), "Motivation is an internal state that instigates, directs, and maintains behaviour" (p. 98). In general, intrinsic motivation is about doing something for its own sake, while extrinsic motivation tends to focus on instrumental goals (Reiss, 2012). Self-determination theory proposed by Deci and Ryan states that extrinsic incentives undermine intrinsic interest (cited in Reiss, 2012). Lepper, Corups, and Iyengar (cited in Crow, 2007) notes that learners' intrinsic motivation starts decreasing around the third grade and continues diminishing through eighth grade. This shifting on motivation is explained further by Sherry (2007) by using Deci and Ryan's Self-Determination Theory (SDT). Deci and Ryan elucidate the psychological needs required by individuals to be intrinsically motivated, including autonomy, perceived competence, and relatedness (cited in Crow, 2007).

Teachers and lecturers need to find ways to evoke students' motivation, specifically the intrinsic one, to create an effective learning process. Selecting appropriate learning platform that accommodates students to actively engage in a classroom discussion is essential to build the students' sense of satisfaction and learning autonomy. When their teachers or lecturers acknowledge their capabilities, students will be more ready to move on to the next level. Once this learning autonomy is achieved, students are ready to do harder task and believe they can accomplish it (perceived competence). When they are well-engaged with the tasks and learning environment, they will be motivated



in building connections to the teachers and comfortably share their thoughts (relatedness). Further, Lepper, Corrups, and Iyengar (2005) states that independent problem solving and teacher's assistance affect learners' motivation. This can be said that student-teacher relationship determines students' success in attaining the study objective.

In today's digital era, technology is closely related to students' learning motivation. As noted by Prensky, when it comes to digital game-based learning, "fun is the most powerful source of motivation for learning because when learning is done under pleasant conditions, the learner understands easier concepts, activates him/her self and tries more" (cited in Clark et al., 2019, p. 129). Electronic games are entertaining and enjoyable, so they increase students' motivation for learning. According to Malone (Clark et al., 2019) learning motivation depends on the importance that the learner attributes to the ultimate purpose of an activity, the individual objectives, and the clarity of the purpose. Motivation is a fundamental source of learners' involvement in any type of learning tasks. These views support the idea that "in order to provide motivation for learning, a learning environment or tool must offer a challenge, stimulate learner's imagination and curiosity, provide a sense of satisfaction and control, maintain user's attention and show consistency between educational objectives and content" (Krystalli in Clark et al., 2019, p. 129).

From the learners' point of view, however, the goal of learning a foreign language is to achieve the highest degree of linguistic autonomy so one can cope with all communicative situations that require knowledge of the target language (Krystalli in Clark et al., 2019). Germain and Netten point out that the linguistic autonomy is the learners' ability to "take language initiatives and



spontaneously use new phrases in an authentic state of communication in the foreign language” (in Clark et al., 2019, p. 130). Thus, learners’ autonomy occurs when learners are given freedom to make decisions in an application or game and the ability to critically evaluate their strategies based on positive or negative feedback provided. So, learners’ autonomy is an important aspect to the use and for the development of any language-learning application. Sanchez (2013) contends that learning application must provide a self-assessment system which enables learners evaluating their success and failures. Learners should also be given an opportunity to understand and identify their strengths and weaknesses to intensify their efforts in developing skills based on their personal linguistic needs. Assessment and feedback on learners’ performance provide a constant challenge and help maintain learners’ motivation when given in a clear, regular, encouraging, and constructive manner (Malone and Lepper in Clark et al., 2019).

C. ARTIFICIAL INTELLIGENCE (AI)

As defined by Petterson, Artificial Intelligence (AI) refers to “computer systems that perform tasks that normally require human intelligence, such as visual perception, speech recognition, decision making or translation” (Petterson, 2019, p. 2). First established as an academic discipline in 1950’s, AI remained an area of limited interest for over a half century. However, since the rise of Big Data and improvements in computing power, AI has entered business environment and public conversation (Haenlein & Kaplan, 2019). Experts have predicted that it will only take a few years until we reach Artificial General Intelligence—systems



that show behavior indistinguishable from humans in all aspects and that have cognitive, emotional, and social intelligence (Haenlein & Kaplan, 2019).

Referring back to our current situation, experts' prediction for AI has now become true. Today's education requires education personnel to start building a partnership with intelligent machine as an effort to transform the educational system (Jati, 2018). The term machine learning is more popular than AI in describing the purpose of learning computer to teach the same way as humans do. One thing that distinguishes AI from other machine learning apps is that AI provides one-on-one tutoring. Education researchers have always highlighted the importance and effectiveness of one-on-one tutoring ever since the famous study of Bloom's two-sigma problem. Researchers have struggled to replicate the two-sigma effect using AI, suggesting that AI may be as effective as human tutors (Chaudhri *et al.*, 2013). This suggests that the implementation of AI in education may be more profound than previously believed and that makes us wonder why AI has not yet been applied in every institution, every classroom, every library, every home, and every mobile device.

Despite the various advantages AI has to offer, debate arose in regards to the impact of AI in our educational system. Will it be successful in replacing human brain and skill in doing the tasks? In answering this question, Jati suggests the concept of five schools of thoughts proposed by Knickrehm. According to Knickrehm, five schools of thought consists of dystopians, utopians, technology optimists, productivity sceptics, and optimistic realists (cited in Jati, 2018, p. 2).

The dystopians believe that man and machine are competing, and machines are going to win. The systems of AI will take



on the mid and high-skill jobs, and robots will do low-skill work. The utopians argue that intelligent machines are going to take on more jobs but the impacts will be on the unparalleled prosperity among people, not the economic decline. For the technology optimists, they believe in productivity explosion but it is not captured in official data since companies are still studying how far can smart technology change their work. When smart technology is being optimally used by companies, a productivity leap will result in a digital surplus, generating both economic growth and high standard of living. The productivity sceptics consider smart technology will not do much impact on national productivity. There is not much to do in advanced economics except the brace for stagnant growth. The optimistic realists argue that smart technology and digitization will drive productivity gains that are equal to the previous waves of technology. The demand for middle-skilled workers may drop as a result of a high demand for high and low-skilled workers.

D. AI FOR ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING (ELT)

Learning a new language these days has been easier compared to ten or fifteen years ago. People have a plethora of language learning applications at their disposal and the rise of Artificial Intelligence has made the learning process more enjoyable, and of course more affordable, than it used to be. AI's presence is regarded as a worrying prospect for some educators in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) field as it perhaps takes over the role of humans as language instructors.

Jati (2018) refuses this view as AI is not a replacement for human instructors and since it provides learners more time for in-



teraction and instant feedback. Autonomous learning is achieved when students have more individual learning time to identify their weaknesses and strengths. AI has started to produce new teaching and learning approaches that are being tested in various contexts (Russel in Jati, 2018). In the aspect of assessment, for example, AI is capable of assessing open-ended responses which used to be done only by humans. In the area of speaking, AI has great potential in providing speaking practice for teenagers and adult learners. Timms explains that AI and machine learning have long been the core of speech recognition and tailored pronunciation training (Timms in Jati, 2018). This provides hopes of tireless and individualized teaching, enabling learners to achieve a large amount of input and practices in a worry-free environment. AI allows learners to make mistakes and take risks, making it possible for them to evaluate their own learning. ELSA and ORAI are two applications in speaking that apply such principles.

Another advantage offered by AI technologies is that they provide learners with personalized one-on-one tutoring which has long been believed as the most effective teaching method (Chaudhri et al., 2013). With the combination of advanced machine learning and natural language understanding, AI is considered more effective, more affordable than traditional language learning technique. This technology can be used as a personal assistant for both teachers and students. Take the lesson writer apps as the example. By using the application, teachers can quickly create a lesson plan and teaching materials from any digital text. Besides lesson plan, the application can also generate student materials, question groups, lesson sharing, students' collaboration, and online lessons.

The ability of AI in generating self-assessment and instant



feedback is the next benefit to highlight from AI. When learners are able to gain freedom for their learning, their motivation will improve and they are ready to take on a much harder challenge. As explained by Jati (2018), AI is able to address the individual needs of students at a level that is difficult to achieve in a classroom setting. This ability includes identifying learners' weaknesses so they receive extra practice and presentation which allow them to gain their autonomous learning, provide immediate feedback on learners' comprehension on specific concepts, and provide personal options which allow learners to have control over their learning preferences.

Some AIs are also available to help students with their essay writing, such as essay-bot, writewellapp, and writing reviser. However, these AIs are still far from being perfect as they can only do basic writing tasks (Knickrehm in Jati, 2018). Humans are still needed in skilled writing jobs as robots can never deliver thoughts and feelings into the texts.

E. CONCLUSION

The promotion of autonomy-based approaches has been increasingly applied in many countries, including in Indonesia. Not only does it provide learners with the sense of learning freedom, but it also evokes their motivation to instigate a successful learning process. Recent theoretical studies suggest that the use of media and technology in ELT can help learners' autonomous learning (Fidyati, 2016). Since language learning software Rosetta Stone first came to the market, more similar applications, later known as Artificial Intelligence (AI), such as Duolingo and Babbel, also received popularities. With this phenomenon, language



instructors started to wonder if they would ever be needed in the future. However, some key criteria still need to be met for AI to be able to replace humans. Those criteria include spontaneity, creativity, and shared knowledge. Further, (Pettersen, 2019) argues that complex knowledge work enhanced and assisted, but not replaced, by computers. This suggests that there are key elements in the workplace that will still continue to require humans and that can never be outperformed by AI programs. Nonetheless, since technology is already available and the development of AI-based learning is just around the corner, then it is an undeniable fact that we are now living in the future.

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SEMANTICS: A MEANING UTILIZATION

Irwan Rohardiyanto

Unquestionably, to Allah Belongs whatever is
in the heavens and the earth
(QS. Yunus: 55)

Life is only once, make it a meaningful one. Getting the meaningful life needs the meaning utilization. In daily life, language phenomenon cannot be separated with the meaning of those utterances and the other lingual facts. Having an adequate sense of understanding the meaning can make the communication runs well. As the function of language itself, namely for communicate each other, it makes that the role of meaning understanding is necessary for both speaker and listener or writer and readers. The number of crimes cases increases after the misunderstanding of meaning. The simple case, in the edge of village there is a notice: "*Dilarang kencing di sini kecuali anjing!*" (Don't urinate/pee here except a dog!). Indonesian people have the same perception that a dog symbolizes the bad, ugly animal. In Swearing words, dog symbolizes the bad people, bad attitude, etc. If common people have good intuition of meaning, they will understand and avoiding to pee in that place. On the other

hand, the sensitive people will have certain meaning from the notice, they will be angry and try to pee in that place frequently and even they will take the notice off and many other bad responses. Meanwhile, the meaning of dog from the Western people symbolizes the cute animal, faithful animal and many good meanings.

A. MEANING PERSPECTIVES

Meaning is the heart of language, to have a language without meaning would be like having lungs without air (Riemer, 2010: 03). This statement shows how important of meaning in daily interaction. Understanding correctly about the meaning, the sender will be accepted appropriately by the receiver when having the coding-encoding process.

Discussing about Semantics, it cannot be separated with the meaning of lingual facts or lingual phenomenon. As known that Semantics is the study of *Sema* “meaning” while the verb is “*se-maino*” which has the meaning giving sign. This Greek word can be aimed to signify things. The position of meaning takes the big role in social interaction or daily activity as Avram Noam Chomsky expressed that meaning takes the important matter in Linguistics. There are many kinds of meaning that were proposed by some experts especially Linguists. Before utilizing the meaning, there are kinds of meaning from many perspectives.

Perspectives	Kinds of Meaning
Semantical Types	Lexical and Grammatical Meaning
Referent	Referential and Nonreferential Meaning
Sense Value	Connotative and Denotative Meaning
Accuracy of Meaning	Word and Term Meaning, Specific and General Meaning

(Adopted from Muliastuti, 2018: 4.11)



Basically, based on the Hockett's design features of human language, there is a specific feature namely Semanticity. Every single human can communicate each other by utilizing and knowing the meaning that is called as Semanticity feature. Semanticity is human language uses symbols to mean or to refer to objects and actions (Fauziati, 2011: 26).

Meaning is the primary object in Semantics. It is generally in the form of word. After there are many words in Semantics, the first kind of meaning is distinguished by Semantical Types namely Lexical Meaning and Grammatical meaning. Lexical meaning can be defined as kind of adjective which comes from Lexicon such as vocabulary. It can be called as wordy meaning (consisting of a word). Kushartanti et al. (2009: 115) explained that lexical meaning can be equalized with descriptive meaning and denotative meaning. Lexical meaning can be seen in the form homonymy, polysemy, lexical ambiguity, grammatical ambiguity and also synonymy. Meanwhile, the definition of grammatical meaning is the existence of meaning as a result from grammatical process such as affixation and reduplication. Lexical meaning is also known as denotative and literal meaning or some Linguists called it as primary meaning.

Another point of view, from referent, there are two kinds of meaning, namely referential and nonreferential meaning. Referential meaning can be defined as when a word has referent. On the contrary of fact, Nonreferential meaning is when a word does not have any referent. Reference is the ideas or images that come up in the speaker's mind which intended to be accepted in the listener's mind. Meanwhile, Kreidler (1998) proposed that the potential of a word like door or dog to enter into such language expressions. The potential word is the language that produced by



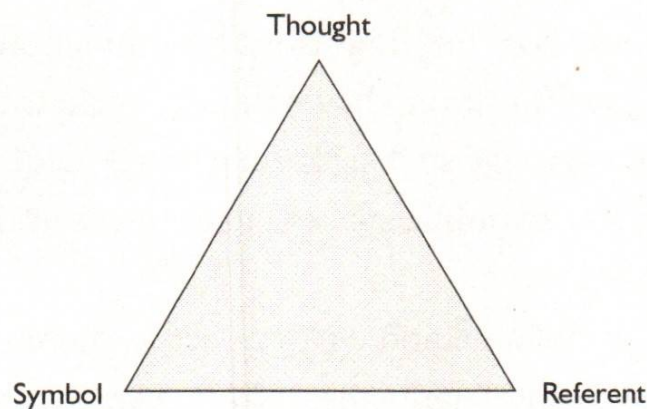
the user in order to be delivered in a communication. Based on this argument, Kreidler (1998) concludes that reference is the way speakers and hearers use an expression successfully and denotation is the knowledge they have that makes their use successful.

Semantics is closely related with sense and sense value. Based on the sense value, there are two kinds of meanings, namely denotative and connotative meaning. Sense value can be divided into positive and negative value. Denotative meaning belongs to positive or good meaning. Wijana (2011: 15) mentions that denotative meaning has its original as *denotata* which means all of meaning component are owned by a word. People are intended to think that a language consists of a large number of words and each of these words has a direct correlation with something outside of language, which is its meaning (Kreidler, 1998: 42). Conceptual meaning sometimes called as denotation or cognitive meaning which becomes the central factor in linguistic communication (Leech, 1981: 09). Denotation must be that people have the same "idea" or "concept" associated with each word (Kreidler, 1998: 42). Connotative meaning belongs to negative or bad meaning. People not only talk and write to describe things and events and characteristics; they also express their opinions, favourable and unfavourable (Kreidler, 1998: 44). Language furnishes the means for expressing a wide range of attitudes; this aspect of meaning is called connotation (Kreidler, 1998: 44). Connotation is the affective or emotional associations it elicits, which clearly need not be the same for all people who know and use the word (Kreidler, 1998: 45). Connotation is "real word" experiences one associate with an expression when one uses or hear it (Leech, 1981: 13). Some linguists also state that connotation has similarity with secondary meaning.



Viewed from the accuracy of meaning, there are two kinds of meaning. They are word meaning and term meaning. Word meaning is the uttered word and it has the general meaning. Meanwhile, term meaning is the meaning of the word in the dictionary and it has specific meaning.

Originally, semantics focuses on meaning of certain language. Crystal (1987: 100-101) categorizes the meaning of language into three conceptions of meaning. The first meaning conception is words refer to things, the second conception is words refer to concepts and they refer to things. The last conception is stimuli refer to words and they get some responses. This Crystal concept is closely related with semiotic triangle which is proposed by Ogden and Richards (1923: 99) quoted by Crystal (1987: 101). The formulation is as follows:



Some experts explain semantical theory of meaning. Parera (2004: 45-49) distinguishes the meaning theory into four theories namely referential theory, contextual theory, conceptual theory and formalism theory. Referential theory is relation between reference and referent as stated by symbol (it can be seen from semiotic triangle). Contextual theory in brief can be defined as a word or symbol of utterance will not have a meaning without



considering the context or situation. Conceptual theory deals with the set of possible meanings in any given word is the set of possible feelings, images, ideas, concepts, thoughts and inferences that a person might produce when that word is heard and processed (Glucksberg and Danks, 1975: 50 quoted by Parera). In Formalism theory, a word cannot be used and meaningless for every context. It is caused that context is not static but context is so dynamic.

B. UTILIZING MEANING IN WRITTEN LANGUAGE

Meaning and written language is a collaboration of two important matters. Nowadays, in this disruption era and literacy era, it is very easy to find of written language. Written language can be found in many public places. Language learners must have a good intuition for linguistics phenomenon in written form. Having good intuition, they will have various meaning for certain written language such as from printed media in newspaper, advertisement in public spaces, magazine, serial of encyclopaedias and many others.

From various printed and written media, there are many utterances in the form of sentence, phrase, clause, word that are written for title or part of text-body. These lingual forms, they can be interpreted by the readers or language learners related to suitable meanings. There are many examples of written language found in printed media as the implementation of meaning utilization.

The general examples can be seen in the daily activity. There is an advertisement slogan of cigarette such as: "How low can you go?" This question will be interpreted whether denotative or con-



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notative. The word “low” denotatively means the opposite of high position while connotatively “low” means which is the lowness one, is it the tart level of cigarette or kinds of person’s humbleness. This example is in a line with the Contextual Theory by which the meaning of a word is influenced by the context around the writer and reader as in Psychology of Language it is called as the new information and given information.

The current Indonesian examples can be seen from the written language such as the written in the back of truck (truck cargo) i.e. “gas Luur”, “bucin”, “gabut”, “ambyar”, etc. The word “gas” (a handle or pedal for accelerating the speed of car or motorcycle) is facing the meaning changing. Previously, the Indonesian word ‘gas’ means part of car or motorcycle to add the speed. As found in Indonesian dictionary (*KBBI*) the word “gas” means unseen object but it can be felt. Connotatively, the word “gas” means someone who becomes so emotional or suddenly having high temperamental. This real example creates the vagueness, inexplicitness and ambiguity of meaning among the language users.

C. UTILIZING MEANING IN SPOKEN LANGUAGE

Getting an ideal delivery, many communications or interactions need to be mutually intelligible between speaker and listener. Utilizing the meaning of spoken language can be seen when the listener takes the sound from the speaker in the form of sound wave, such as summoning, screaming, noticing, and many others examples. As Social beings, communication can reflect the process of meaning utilization. Utilizing the meaning from spoken language will be influenced by the suprasegmental factors such as intonation, pitch, tone, juncture, stressing, etc. Java-



nese people say “he” (almost similar with English ‘hi’) by delivering many meanings, the first one is summoning without calling individual’s name, the second meaning is to get the other attention and the next meaning is to forbid someone’s activity. Javanese People say “Hoe” to send the calling for the other in longer distance, it is also for tightly forbidding the others. “Hoe” with high intonation will be different meaning with ‘hoe’ in low/ long intonation. “Hoe” with high intonation means giving the other about notice, forbidding, blaming, etc. “Hoe” with low intonation means intimacy.

Javanese people’s joke is such as the word “*bumper*”. A teenager says his friend, “*Awat bumpermu!*” (Watch out your bumper). Denotatively the word bumper means a thing (commonly a wood or plastics) in base front and back of a car to safe the car body. Connotatively, the word “*bumper*” means “buttock”. The word “eyes” will have different meaning when it is spoken by Javanese people and non-Javanese people. Javanese people will be careful in saying “your eyes” because it contains connotative meaning namely a swear word in humiliating or blaming the others. The geographical area will influence also about the sense of meaning for certain words, such as the word “*jangkrik*” (crickets) for people who live in Central Java and East Java. Central Javanese assume that the “*jangkrik*” is a common small cute animal without any explicit meaning, while East Javanese assume that the word “*jangkrik*” is a bad language or taboo language because it has meaning as a swear word.

The other example of utilizing meaning for spoken language is there is an utterance of congratulating. One day, someone gives statements “*seungguhnya Malang nasibmu*” (what a pity you are!) for his friend. Having contextual theory of semantics, context will



give a big role in this utterance. Indonesian people who hear this will feel unhappy. On the contrary of facts, after knowing the context of conversation, actually the word “*malang*” has two meanings, first is sad condition and the second is a name of a big city in East Java, Indonesia. This utterance is aimed to congratulate that the speaker friend is accepted to continue his study in Malang, East Java. There is no sadness in this expression. This is an evidence that a meaning utilization is needed by everyone who interacts each other.

D. UTILIZING MEANING IN GESTURAL LANGUAGE

Catching the meaning from gestural language cannot be separated with the study of cross-cultural understanding. Utilizing the meaning from gestural language is generally conducted by the people who have disability in listening and speaking, but in this case, the normal people also use kinds of gestural language in their daily interaction.

Gestural language tends to become a part of semiotics study since this study explores about the language sign. Although Semiotics approach is dominant when discussing the gestural language, but it is also a part of semantic domain. It shows about the concept of *langue* and *parole* (cognitive and performance) which was proposed by Saussure.

Having the good cognition to understanding the performance is needed by people in interaction. Using part of human body will indicate the meaning and intention of the sender. Simple example is related to 75th Indonesian Independence Day when someone shows a fist. Fist can be interpreted as someone is indicated to hit the other but there are also several implicit mean-



ing, such as symbol of unity, spirit, victorious, and also symbolizing a great movement.

E. UTILIZING MEANING IN RECENT ISSUES OF WORLD VIRUS (COVID-19)

Meaning utilization for current issue is interesting and challenging to be discussed. It can be interpreted by using kinds of meanings. The first example is the word "corona". Basically, "corona" means the shine layer of the sun. The next meaning will be the name of car product from Japanese factory, Toyota, namely "Toyota Corona". The second example is the word "Wuhan". The previous meaning, the word 'Wuhan' is not well known by many people. It is one of the city name in Tiongkok. Nowadays, when people hear the word "Wuhan", they will imagine the place of pandemic source.

The phrase "work from home" which is abbreviated into WFH becomes familiar for Indonesian. It is very obvious that people do not go to the office or another work place. On the contrary of fact, Indonesian people also have different meaning for the phrase "work from home". They interpret that WFH means people start to work from home until they arrive to the office or work-place. It makes they must work longer from their work time. They must do their job starting from home or boarding house, they still do it when they are on the way to the work place and they absolutely work again arriving their work place. Culturally, some Indonesian people work in non formal field such as outdoor activity, brick layer, and many other. This physical activity cannot be done when they are at home, and they mean WFH as unemployment. They interpret unemployment because they



cannot do the work at home and they must come to the work place automatically.

Covid-19 is a new abbreviation in the early 2020. Covid stands from co-, vi-, and -d. 19 indicates the year when the virus spreads around the world. Co- stands for corona, vi- consists of virus, and -d is disease. Covid-19 consists of reference and sense. The reference of Covid-19 itself means the virus namely Corona. On the contrary of fact, when people hear the word Covid-19, they will have senses such as unhappy, sadness, plague, discomfort, dangerous, deadly matter, victim, sorrow, darkness.

Semantics enrichment occurs for farewell in this Covid-19 pandemic time. Previously, most of people say farewell by saying "bye-bye", "good bye", "see you later", "daag", etc. After there is pandemic, people say "stay at home" and "stay safe". This additional farewell greeting enriches the meaning and deepens the intention to be healthy, be sure and be optimistic for the wonderful future.

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LANGUAGE STYLE IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

Fitri Ana Ika Dewi

The most fundamental principle of sociolinguistics study is how language is used based on the social context which focuses on the discussion of the relationship between language and society. People will speak differently in different social context. Language varies based on its uses as well as the users, according to whom the language is used and where it is used. The context and the addressees have an impact on the choice of language variety. It leads to the term of language style. Indeed, people will use different language style in different social context. According to Labov (1972: 19), there are no single-style speakers. Bell (1997: 240) stated that the basic principle of language style is that an individual speaker does not always talk in the same way on all occasion. Further he explained that style means that speakers have alternatives or choices—a “that way” which could have been chosen instead of a “this way”. In accordance with it, Hymes (1984: 44) said that no normal human being talks the same way all the time.

People differ in their ways of talking from one and others. Even when they want to deliver the same message, they will ex-

press themselves with their own style. Certain social factors have been relevant in choosing for a particular variety of language style. Some relate to the participants, who is taking to whom e.g. mother → her son, boss → workers, wife → husband, students → teacher, etc., the setting e.g. school, home, court, playground, market, etc., and the purpose of the interaction, such as: informative. Holmes (1992: 12) stated that the following components influence to the linguistic choice of language use:

1. The participants: who is speaking and who are they speaking to?
2. The setting or social context of the interaction: where are they speaking?
3. The topic: what is being talk about?
4. The function: why are they speaking?

Here, context is an essential factor in deciding a language style and dramatically exchange in contrast with other language speech style. The choice of vernacular or standard language style reflects to the social context in which a person belongs to a membership of a social group. Knowledge of the complexities of stylistic variation reflects a person's educational level and social status. People with better educational background of a person will be greater control in using language style varieties. In other words, people with various knowledge of language style will adapt their language style as the same to their addressee.

Giles (1973) named how people adjust their language and communication system to others. Giles (1973) concluded that people adjust their speech style and dialect according to the context when they are together with others. The community will make an agreement in the use of language which closely relate



to their culture and social background. These aspects are part of social interactions that may lead to social gaps and differences in communication. However, they have ability to implement the appropriate language rules in a variety of situations. Atalay (2015) said that in order to avoid the communication breakdown, both speaker and partner accommodate their language including its variations to that of their communication partner. People who have good verbal repertoire will be able to communicate in several different languages. Therefore, the speaker and the addressee undertake to cooperate at aiming to maintain the continuity of communication between them.

A. STRATEGIES TO ACCOMMODATE COMMUNICATION PATTERN

People try to converge towards the speech of others they are talking to. The process occurs when the speaker interest in pleasing to others. So, the teacher wanted to get students' attention, seller wanted to gain his customer's purchase, or the interviewee wanted to gain his interviewee's cooperation. The process is called by speech accommodation.

Giles (1973) named how people adjust their language and communication system to others. Giles (1973) concluded that people adjust their speech style and dialect according to the context when they are together with others. The accommodation through speech can be recognized as the speaker's attempt to modify his style to make him more acceptable for his addressee. Holmes (1992) and Atalay (2015) explain that there are three strategies to accommodate communication pattern, they are: speech convergence, speech divergence, and over-convergence.



1. Speech Convergence

Speakers converge so as to belong and integrate to a certain individual or group. They may converge or adapt their speed of speech, the length of their utterance, the frequency of their pause, the grammatical patterns used, their vocabulary, the verbal fillers or pragmatic particles that they use, their intonation, and their voice pitch. Holmes (1992: 256) classified two kinds of speech convergence.

a. Downward Convergence

Downward convergence refers to convergence towards the speech of someone with less status or power. Example:

Dear Michael,

Thanks you very much for the letter you sent me. It was beautifully written and I enjoyed reading it. I like the postcard you sent me from your holidays too. What a lovely time you had swimming and surfing. I wish I was there too.

Robby liked the T-shirt you chose for him very much. He has been wearing it a lot. He has promised to write to you soon to say thank you but he is very busy playing with his computer at the moment. So you may have to wait a little while for his letter. I hope mine will do instead for now (Holmes, 1992: 250).

Example illustrates downward convergence. The letter is from an adult to a child. It consists of simple sentences and explicit. Avoiding complex sentences and ambiguous meaning which lead to multi interpretation. Besides that, the writer used easy vocabulary, simple and common words, such as: like, say, play, and etc.



b. Upward Convergence

Upward convergence purposes to refer toward the speech of someone with more power or status, someone deserving respect in the context. Example:

Defendant: Your honors, if I might be permitted to address this allegation, I should like to report that I was neither inebriated nor under the influence of an alcoholic beverage of any kind.

The example shows the upward convergence. The defendant utterance used complex sentence and very formal vocabularies, such as: *allegation*, *inebriated*, and *alcoholic beverage* to speak to the judge who have higher power in that context.

The process of speech convergence may become a communication language device to make the addressee easier to understand the speaker's message. In speech convergence, the speaker attempt to produce speech similar to his addressee than his own speech style in normal. Giles & Powesland (1997: 234) one effect the speech convergence process is that it allows the sender to be perceived as more similar to the receiver than would have been the case had he not accommodated his style of speaking. Sometimes, communication breakdown occurs when the addressee who comes from different community that has different language style and he don't understand the speaker's cultural linguistic norm. In addition, misunderstanding communication may also happen when the addressee fail to figure out the speaker's feeling using the contextual situation of that time. To avoid communication breakdown, people accommodate their language style.

2. Speech Divergence

Speakers want to differentiate themselves from the partner



or group. Giles and St. Claire in Atalay (2015) explained that in order to remain distinct and dissimilar to the out-group, especially when the individual's identity affiliation to a group is being endangered, the speaker diverges in speech style and/or language. For instance, a member of the royal family would like to say "how do you do?" instead of say "how are you?" in the context when the royal family meet the society due to remain dissimilarity.

Deliberately choosing a different language style by one's addressee is the clearest example of speech divergence. When the Arab nations issued an oil communiqué to the world using Arabic rather than in English, they were making a clear political statement. The nation no longer wished to be seen as accommodating to the Western-speaking powers. By giving speech in a minority language to an audience made up largely of majority group is a form of linguistically divergent behavior. Speech divergence does not always reflect a speaker's negative attitude toward the addressee. Sometimes, speech divergence signals the speaker's wishing to distinguish themselves from their addressee as well.

3. Accommodation Problems

Sometimes, it is the possible to overdo such a convergence and offend the addressee. The process of overdoing the accommodation adjustment of speech style, rate, or the exaggeration of the perceived preferences of the communication partner is called as *over-accommodation*. Holmes (1992: 258) stated that over convergent may be perceived as patronizing and ingratiating as sycophantic, or even as evidence that the speaker is making fun of others. For examples: using baby language to speak to a boy of ten years old, using too much slang can also be considered as



over-accommodation. Usually, the addressee felt being belittled, made fun of, or underestimated.

In general, the reaction to these accommodation problems depend on the motivation or reasons why people think the over-convergence is going on. When the situation demand that the over-divergence is perceived as a thing being unavoidable, the reaction will be more tolerant than when the problem considered deliberate. The deliberate over-accommodation will be thought as an uncooperative behavior. A Sudanese man who uses Indonesian in Central Java because his Javanese is clearly inadequate will be perceived more sympathetically than a Javanese man deliberately chooses to use Indonesian to speak to his neighbors.

B. TYPES OF LANGUAGE STYLE

Joss (1998) classified language style into five types which are categorized based on the degree of formality. These are frozen, formal, consultative, casual, and intimate style.

1. Frozen Style

Frozen or oratorical style is usually used in a very formal situation and has symbolic value. The characteristics of this style are lacks intonation, formal, and polite language. For example: Lord's Prayer, formal ceremonies, in court or state documents.

On this occasion, I desire to preach on the title of

2. Formal Style

Formal style is used in formal situation in general. This style is also used by people who still have a distance between them (speaker and addressee). The characteristics of formal language



are careful and standard speech, low tempo, technical vocabulary, avoiding of main repetition and using synonym.

Example:

A: first of all, I would like to introduce myself.

Context: A is a moderator of language conference. Before inviting the speaker, she wants to introduce herself to the audiences.

3. Consultative Style

This style is used in semi-formal communication situation which is required for everyday speaker. This style is commonly used in business or discussing something. Haryanto (2001: 106) stated that a speaker who uses a consultative style usually does not plan what he or she wants to say. Therefore, there is possibility for making mistake such as: words repetition or diction which cannot be avoided. Consultative style is used in some group of discussion, usual conversation at school, trade speech conversation, companies, etc.

4. Casual Style

Casual Style is a language style which is used in casual situation. It can be recognized by the vocabulary choice of the informal words such as: colloquial, slang or taboo words. The speaker and addressee have close relation. Thus, they will prefer to choose a very comfortable or informal words choice to speak in the informal or casual situation. The informal setting is one of the strategies which have been found to shift people's speech toward the vernacular speech style.

The speaker's casual style has a number of linguistic features which distinguish colloquial from more formal styles of English.



Here are the examples which can be found in the English of widely different regions of the world:

- a. The use of “me” for the formal style of “my”, e.g. *me book's here*.
- b. The use of “them” instead of “those”, as a determiner, e.g. *there's a cross-piece in **them** old-fashioned windows*.

5. Intimate Style

Intimate style is characterized by the use of private codes, some words which are signaling an intimate relation, the use of nonverbal communication or the use of nonstandard forms. This kind of style is commonly found in oral communication rather than in written text. Intimate style can be used to express speaker's emotional or feeling. Besides that, the speaker may use nonverbal communication to express an intimate language style. Some characteristics of intimate style are the special greeting among the speakers, incomplete grammatical item and short form of language which can be understood by the addressee.

Speakers talk in different ways in different situations, and these different ways of speaking can carry different social meanings. Style is influenced by some factors, such as: social roles, age, educational background, sex, and so on. People will change their style based on the context. When a style changes into another variety of style, the speaker may bind to specific context. For instance, in the change from informal to formal situation, people may shift some of their lexical and syntactic choice. Holmes (1992: 245) gave two different requests for information:



development and, organization of ideas; (3) evaluate the accuracy and appropriateness of information and conclusions; (4) see how the printed data can apply to a problem the reader may be trying to solve; and (5) select the fact that is important to his purposes, and so on. Unless the reader understands the writer's message and thinks along with him, there is actually little or no reading. Mere word calling is not reading.

Thus, reading can be seen as the processing of information. The reader brings to the text his own store of general information derived from his native culture, education, personal experience, and normally some specific knowledge of the topic of the written text. At the same time, the reader also possesses a linguistic competence including knowledge of words (lexis), of how these words are developed according to the linguistic system in order to form sentences (syntax), and of rhetorical patterns and linguistic convention which characterizes different types of text (Haarman et al., 1988: vii).

b. The Kinds of Reading

Broughton et al. (1980: 92) suggest that the word "reading" has a number of interpretations. It may mean reading aloud a very complex skill, which involves understanding the black marks first, and then the production of the right noises. It must be recognized that reading aloud is primarily an oral matter, and for those who teach a foreign language, it is closer to pronunciation than it is to comprehension.

Reading may also be silent reading and this is the interpretation, which is most likely for the term and is perhaps the nearest approach to the essence of reading. It is obvious that by far the greatest amount of reading that is done in the world is silent. It



1. **From a friend**

Where were you last night? I rang to see if you wanted to come to the pictures?

2. **In court from a lawyer:**

Could you tell the court where you were on the night of Friday the seventeenth of March?

The two utterances have the different context that dramatically affects the form of the question. Each query for information is expressed differently but the speaker tries to elicit the same information from the addressee. In example (1) the utterance was addressed to a friend for asking the information to find out where he was the night when the speaker wanted to invite him to come to the pictures. The speaker has an intimate relationship with the addressee that he uses informal style. Meanwhile, example (2) was addressed to a witness or a defendant in the court to get information where the addressee was on the night of Friday the seventeenth of March. The speaker uses formal style. The different style of those two utterances depends on the context. Our choice of language style is governed by the circumstances. We may speak very formal in the formal occasions such as: in a court, baptism; we can use less formal style for public lectures, or we can use casual conversation by using informal style to talk to an intimate friend. The better we know someone, the more casual and relaxed the speech style that we use to them.

C. FACTORS OF LANGUAGE STYLE

1. **Addressee**

The relationship between the speaker and the addressee is important in determining the appropriate language style. People





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will use more standard form to speak to someone they do not know well, but they will use more vernacular form to someone they have an intimate relationship. Here are the examples:

- a) Excuse me, could I have a look at your painting in this room, Mrs. Marsha?
- b) C'mon, lemme see that.

The two utterances have the same meaning, but different addressee. The first utterance was addressed to his friend's mother when the speaker came to her home and looked at some paintings of her. The speaker asked permission to look at the paintings. The speaker used the formal style by the complete grammatical aspect. The second utterance was addressed to his friend. He used some slang to speak to his friend, e.g. "c'mon" instead of saying "come on", and chose to say "lemme" instead of "let me".

The second utterance uses casual style because the speaker has close relation to the addressee. The better we know someone, the more casual of language speech style that we will use to speak to them. People considerably will use more standard form of language style to those they do not know well or stranger people. On the contrary, they will use more vernacular or casual language style to the ones they close to.

2. Age

Age effects to the use of language style. Either the age of the speaker or the addressee influences to the choice of language style. Indeed, people use different language style when they talk to children and adults. There are some characteristics of linguistic features in speaking to children, such as:

- a. Using short and grammatically using simple structure.



For example: *I like banana.*

- b. Using simple vocabulary

For example: *like, know, play, eat, etc.*

- c. Using word “we” rather than “you” to refer to the addressee.

It implies that the speaker is involved in the speech.

For example: **We** go to the playground, rather than → **you** go to the playground.

3. Social Background

Social background of the addressee influences on speaker's language style. Bell (1997) proposed the theory of *Audience Design* which first outlined in 1984 that style shift occurs primarily in the response to the speaker's audience rather than to amount of attention or other factors. *Audience Design* is another sociolinguistic theory which concern in adapting language used to be similar to the addressee. Bell (1984) stated that a person chooses different words and style based on the social and economic status of the audience. He examined how a radio broadcaster's language style. He found that the news speaker used different styles when reading the news adapting to the listeners.

The theory implies that shifting style may be done on the purpose to adapt to the addressee. Language style is a social feature which is oriented to people. It brings particular social meanings.

Example:

June works in a travel agent's in Cardiff. She sees a wide range of people in the course of her job. Last Tuesday she saw an accountant, an old friend from school, a woman who works for the council as a cleaner, and a local school teacher. As she spoke to each person she pronounced words like better and matter differently, depending



on the way her customer pronounced those words. (Source: from Holmes 1992: 253).

June as the speaker speak differently to each of the addressees based on their social background. When she speaks to people in the same background with her, she pronounces [d] in the middle of the word “better” for about a quarter of the time. She does not change her language style. However, when the background of the addressee is from a lower social class, she change her style due to the speech convergent, she adapt her pronunciation to her addressee’s language speech style. By doing speech accommodation, she signals her desire to get with her addressees and make them feel comfortable.

In accordance, Trudgill, in Holmes (1992: 254), interviewed people in Norwich, he observed and found that his own speech shifted towards them. In different interviews, the number of glottal stops that he used instead of [t], e.g. “better” was found quiet accurate as the same to people they were interviewing. Another one, when he interviewed a lower class person who used 100 per cent glottal stops in these contexts, he used for 98 percent of glottal stops. However, when he interviewed from a higher social group with the glottal stop level was only 25 percent, his own level dropped to 30 percent. It shows us as the evidence that the interviewer tried to accommodate his speech to be at least nearly the same to his addressee who came from different social backgrounds. When we want to shift our language style, the way to vary our speech is by imitating the speech of others.

People at the different positions in the socioeconomic use language style differently related to the norms of the same group. Romaine (1980: 228) stated that if a [linguistic] feature is found to



be more in the lower classes than the upper classes, it will also be more common in the less formal than the less formal style, with each social group occupying a similar position in each continuum. Then, we are dealing with the education and instruction; therefore it correlates closely to the limited access in a certain social classes. Thus, it would be more common for middle upper and upper classes to control standard varieties of language style.

4. Context

The choice to use an appropriate form of language style is also influenced by situational context, the formality of the context, the statuses and the relative roles within the setting of that speech event. For example: in the classroom when a child's mother is a teacher. The child should call his mother "Mrs." rather than call his mother as "mum or mama, mommy". People's roles and the formal setting determine the choice of the appropriate language style. Besides that, the formal setting influences to the vocabulary choice among the participants.

D. ACCOMMODATION AND ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

The implication of accommodation and audience design theory are essential for English language teaching, for instance in the field writing. In writing, learners should examine between the written purpose and audience's need. It is important for the learners to understand that writing discourse is taught to develop their comprehension about some different kinds of written text, such as: personal, academic, professional, and public text that they will engage with. Thus, the main goal of the process is



communication. Grammatical competence is an importance aspect of language learning. People may master the rules of sentence formation of a language, but they are not quite able to use the language for meaningful communication successfully.

Indeed, learners need to understand the term of communicative competence. It is a broader concept than a grammatical competence which includes the understanding about the context of what to say and how to say something appropriately based on the situation, the participants, their social roles and their intentions. According to Richard (2006: 3), communicative competence should include the following aspects of knowledge:

1. Knowing how to use language for a range of different purposes and functions.
2. Knowing how to vary our use of language according to the setting and the participants (e.g., knowing when to use formal and informal speech or when to use language appropriately for written as opposed to spoken communication).
3. Knowing how to produce and understand different types of texts (e.g., narratives, reports, interviews, conversations).
4. Knowing how to maintain communication despite having limitations in one's language knowledge (e.g., through using different kinds of communication strategies).

Instead determining the grammar and vocabulary mastery, learners need to understand those communicative language aspects in order to able to develop the learners' communicative competence. Those aspects will empower learners to decide either to converge or to diverge their language style when they talk to their addressees. Some examples for functions are apologies, refusals, requests, invitations, thanks, complaints, and so on. If



the learners don't understand the function, they might fail to understand the exchange or might just respond their addressee in limited ways. Here are some examples:

1. Invitation

They make great coffee there, let's try the special ones.

2. Possible ways to make a warning

- Could you please make less noise?/
- Be quite please./
- Shut up!

3. Possible responses to a compliment

A: nice blouse, it really fits on you

B: - thanks you./

- You're the fourth person saying so. I have done something right.

The implementation of accommodation and audience design theory in speaking class can be practiced by using role play strategy in the classroom. Below is the example:

Purposes:

To raise and empower students' awareness for the appropriate speech style when they should speak to different audiences.

- 1) Students are divided into several pairs e.g. (A+B, C+D, E+F, etc.)

Students A + B

- A: A passes the test and wants to invite B to a dinner. He calls B.

- B: B could join the dinner. He declines and makes an excuse.

Students C + D

- C: C is a lecturer. He meets his old friend who is a farmer and talk about their family.

- D: D is a farmer who lives in a rural area.

Students E + F



- E: E is comedian and he is 40 years old.
 - F: F is a journalist and wants to interview E.
- 2) Assign each student for a role.
 - 3) Walk around the students and check their language style production.
 - 4) Invite some of them to perform in front of the class.
 - 5) Correct if any common mistakes to the whole class.

This is the example of some activities to check students' understanding about different language style based on the situational context and participants. After discussing the matter, they practice it in front of the class.

Accommodation and audience design theory can be implemented in writing class by considering the theme, age, educational, social or economic background of the readers. Teachers may assign students by giving a current theme for children. Thus, students have to consider the vocabulary, simple grammatical aspect, interesting pictures, or they may give a simple worksheet in the end of the book. Students understanding may be recognized by practice on creating correct examples of language style use.

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CORPUS LINGUISTICS: A BRIEF EXPLANATION

Ika Sulistyarini

Language learning cannot be separated from learning of vocabulary. Searfoss (1985) noted that vocabulary plays a very important role in learning a language. Moreover, he added that it is the means to success in learning a foreign language because one will not be able to read, write, or even speak the language without having enough knowledge of the vocabulary. Learning vocabulary is an important part in acquiring a language. As Greene (1963) mentioned that since the knowledge of words and their meaning is necessary for early language instructions, vocabulary building is very important. There are two ways of learning vocabulary. They are traditional way and modern way.

The traditional way of learning vocabulary refers to the type of learning through Total Physical Response (TPR) method, pictures, songs, games, etc. According to Susanti (2002), visual aids as visual stimulus are not only as a means of making foreign language teaching more attractive, but also preventing the students from confusion because the context provided. Visual aids provide the concrete concept in the learner's mind. Susanti (2002)

also added that games can promote mastery of specific language skills through repetition and practice. Learning vocabulary can also be done through translation, matching pictures, matching the sentence, and meaning in context. All those vocabulary learning types are based on textbooks.

The application of technology is necessary in modern language teaching. The technology includes the multimedia lab and the internet. It means provide audiovisual stimulus for the students to learn the language. The application of technology also enables students to discover new techniques in learning a foreign language. According to Nurbaita (2005), discovery techniques (where the students have to exercise rules and meanings for themselves rather than being given everything by the teacher) are suitable options to a standard presentation technique. She added that this is certainly true of vocabulary learning where students are often assigned to discover for themselves what a word means and how and why it is being used.

In language learning, both traditional and modern ways use printed media, in this case textbooks and software programs. In Indonesian schools, there are many English books used. They play an important role in teaching, both inside and outside the classroom. Ningsih (2005), cited Cayne (1984), said that a textbook is a book used by students as a standard reference for a particular branch of study or a manual of instruction. All textbooks try to provide the most for the language learning in schools, but the question is whether the textbooks also provide authentic materials for the students.

Learning a language involves learning its form (syntactically) and meaning (semantically). According to Teubert (2005), meaning can be learnt from corpus linguistics. The theory of corpus is



now widely accepted and applied in some universities and other educational institutions throughout the world. Since English is compulsory in schools in Indonesia, it is necessary to have good textbooks and source materials that can help learners to understand a language in its actual meanings and forms. The study of corpus linguistics provides ways to learn vocabulary based on actual use.

Meaning is one of the important things in understanding a language. However, understanding the meaning cannot be separated from understanding the vocabulary of the language. As mentioned by Harmer (1991), vocabulary provides the vital organs and the flesh if the language structures compose the skeleton of the language. The vocabulary learning in schools in Indonesia is mostly based on the textbooks. There are so many types of vocabulary exercises such as translation, matching the word with its definition, matching pictures with their names, guessing the meaning of a word based on the context in the reading passage; mentioning the vocabulary related to the topic, etc. In language teaching in Indonesia, most textbooks provide very limited types of vocabulary. Since vocabulary is an essential part in understanding a language, a textbook has to have comprehensive use of words because vocabulary learning would be unnatural if the language taught in the textbook doesn't meet the actual use of the native speaker. This type of learning could be a problem.

A. CORPUS LINGUISTICS

Corpus or corpora, originally proposed by Gabriëlatos (2005), first came to the attention of most English teachers in 1987 with the publication of *Collins COBUILD English Dictionary*, the first



corpus-based dictionary for learners. Few years after that, there were publications of an influential paper on the use of corpus-derived and corpus-based materials in the language classroom (Johns, 1988 cited by Gabrielatos, 2005), although these had been proposed earlier (Gabrielatos, 2005).

1. Corpus or Corpora

Corpus or corpora have been defined differently. According to Crystal (1991), corpus or corpora is a collection of linguistics literature, either written text or a transcription of recorded speech, which can be used as a starting-point of linguistics description or as a means of verifying hypotheses about a language. According to Biber, Conrad, and Reppen (1998) corpus is a principled collection of text available for qualitative and quantitative analysis (O'Keeffe; McCarthy; Carter, 2007). They briefly mention in their book that a corpus is a principled collection of text. Any old collection of wording does not make a corpus. It must represent something and its merits will be often judged on how representative it is. However, a corpus does not contain new information about language, but the software has a new familiar perspective (Hunston, 2002). Corpus represents how the language is actually used. Although corpus is one of the very new language teaching catchword, both teachers and learners are increasingly becoming consumers of corpus-based educational products such as dictionaries and grammars (Gabrielatos, 2005).

2. The Use of Corpus Linguistics

Analyzing words or phrases with corpus might be unfamiliar for some people especially in Indonesia. To gain more understanding of what corpus-based analysis is, here is some infor-



mation of corpus-based analysis. According to Husada (2007), a corpus-based analysis involves analyzing the frequency and distribution, concordance, and collocation of the node. Since corpus is a type of computer software, a computer-assisted technique is needed in order to handle a large amount of data (Conrad, 2002). One big corpus is British National Corpus (BNC) that can be accessed using an internet connection. Those who want to process data with corpus must be able to run a computer.

As mentioned by Biber, Conrad and Reppen (1998), there are four essential characteristics of corpus-based analysis: (1) it is experimental, analyzing the actual patterns of use in natural texts; (2) it utilizes a large and principled collection of natural texts, known as a “corpus” as the foundation of the analysis; (3) it makes wide-ranging use of computers for analysis, using both automatic and interactive techniques; and (4) it depends on both qualitative and quantitative analytical techniques. The corpus software has three ways to process data (Hunston, 2002); it can show the frequency, phraseology, and collocations.

a. Frequency

According to Richards et al. (1992), frequency is the quantity of linguistics item occurrences in a text or corpus. Frequency shows how many times linguistics item appears in a corpus or passages. Hunston (2002) briefly explains that the words in the corpus can be arranged in order of their frequency in that corpus itself. Then, Teubert (2005) briefly mentioned that frequency is a vital parameter for detecting recurrent pattern defined by the co-occurrence of words. Concordancing the word was done as the first step. Then, to find that actually some words are more popular than another in the actual use even though it has the same



meaning is the interesting thing of doing the frequency. It could be seen from the frequency of the word appears in the corpus program. Most of English language learners usually did not expect it before.

b. Phraseology

Phraseology is choice and pattern of word (YourDictionary, 2008). It shows how the pattern of a word appears in corpus program. People who use a corpus for specific purpose must be familiar the concordancing program. Concordance line which connects many instances of use of words or phrases allows the user to observe word regularities in its use that is likely to remain unobserved when the same words or phrases are met in their normal context (Hunston, 2002). Then, through the concordances the phraseology of a word could be observed. The phraseology observation shows what kind of preposition or any other words follow or precede the word that we observe.

c. Collocation

The third step is doing collocation. Collocation, originally proposed by Hunston (2002), can indicate pairs of lexical items or the association between a lexical word and its frequent grammatical environment. Hunston (2002) gave an example, that the word *head* is followed by lexical collocates such as *head shake* (head indicates part of the body) and *head office* (head indicates person in charge). The collocation of a word that appears in corpus program shows what word follow after a certain word. It could help the language learners to be familiar with the actual use of a certain word.



3. Corpora and Language Teaching

English language is used not only as the medium of instruction but also as the medium of communication. Therefore, language studied in classroom should give many contributions to enable the learners to communicate by the language. Students need to know the real use of English in the real context but not every school can provide the native speakers of English to help them. Then here is the role of corpora; since corpora represent more on the how language is used. According to O’Keeffe, McCarthy, and Carter (2007), basically, corpora have provided evidence for our intuitions about language and very often they have shown that these can be faulty when it comes to issues such as semantics and grammar. Therefore, O’Keeffe, McCarthy, and Carter (2007) also noted that corpus linguistics definitely gives a great contribution in language teaching.

O’Keeffe, McCarthy, and Carter (2007) mentioned that there are many studies which show that the language offered in the textbook is still based on intuitions about how we use language, rather than actual evidence of use. They discovered that the dialogues used in textbook differ significantly from their natural-occurring equivalents across range of discourse features including turn length and patterns, lexical density, number of false starts and repetitions, pausing, frequency of terminal overlap or latching, and the use of hesitation devices and feedback tokens (Gilmore, 2004 cited by O’Keeffe, McCarthy, and Carter 2007). Gilmore (2004) looked at dialogues from more current course books and found out that there is evidence that the textbook writers are beginning to include more natural discourse features. The textbooks might be just providing less knowledge of the language than its actual use. This is also the case in English



tions. According to the observation done by Adolphs et al. (2004) cited by O’Keeffe, McCarthy, and Carter (2007), it was concluded that by looking at the communicative events within the profession empirically, a better understanding of the interaction can be reached and this can lead to a better practice. They consider that within this model, context beyond the classroom would be included so as to examine, for example, how the language learners interact with colleagues, trainees and administrator in non-classroom contexts such as meetings, or staffrooms, which are part of the wider situational medium of teaching.

The third application is that corpus linguistics could also be applied in English for Academic purpose. A degree of overlap may be found when a frequency list for an English written academic corpus is created and contrasted with frequency lists for other types of written English (O’Keeffe, McCarthy, and Carter, 2007). However, the certain words stand out as having obviously different frequency in academic texts. They compared academic text with other text (ex: newspaper texts) and see whether there is any difference in the choice of words (ex: modal verb). They found that the preposition *upon* and *within* take place with much greater frequency in academic text than in the newspaper or fiction texts. It could be reflecting a preference for more formal choices (O’Keeffe, McCarthy, and Carter, 2007).

The fourth application is that corpora give a great impact in translation field that could help to increase the learners’ understanding of the language in various contexts. As noted by O’Keeffe, McCarthy, and Carter (2007) that language corpora have substantial application in the area of translation. Moreover, Aston (1999) also mentioned that corpora is regarded as aids in the process of human and machine translation, and for its pur-



pose he distinguishes between three main types of corpora. The first one is the Monolingual corpora that consists text in single language. The second is comparable corpora which are monolingual corpora of similar design that are presented for two or more languages. They may be treated as components of a single comparable corpus (O'Keeffe, McCarthy, and Carter, 2007). They cited Baker (1995) who noted that comparable corpora have the potential to expose most about features specific to translated text. Then, the third is the parallel corpora which involved two or more language. It consists of original texts and their translations, for example the bible and its translation in another language. O'Keeffe, McCarthy, and Carter (2007) mentioned that typical application of parallel corpora include translator training, bilingual lexicography and machine translation. If the corpora are applied in the classroom, students will learn to translate the words not only per words but they can also identify the idioms and other features in the language.

The fifth application is that corpora also could be applied in the sociolinguistics. O'Keeffe, McCarthy, and Carter (2007) noted that its application in particular can be built around sociolinguistic variables such as age, gender, level of education, socio-economic background, etc. Moreover, they tell us that age-related research is common especially in the context of teenager language. The corpora can help the students in understanding the context not only in its application in general but also in its use in the society.

B. MATERIAL DESIGN

English language learning in Indonesia is mostly based on



textbooks. According to Harmer (1991) the material used in teaching is one of the keys that determine the success of second language teaching and learning. Grant (1987) mentioned that there are three conditions for a good textbook. First, it should suit the need, interest, and abilities of the students. Second, it should suit both the teacher and the students. Third, the textbook must meet the needs of the standard curriculum.

Learners require textbook that are helpful for them to master the language in the written form and in a wider use of communication. Das (1988) noted that the core interest of a textbook writer is not only drawn to the aims, objective, and basic content of the language curriculum as presented in the syllabus. The core interest is also to drawn to pedagogical principals. They are the integration of skills, content and values, level of proficiency of the students, control in the use of language; balance of treatment of the different skills, relevancy and suitability of situations and activities.

In teaching vocabulary, suitable exercises are needed to achieve the expectation of acquiring the language. There are many types of vocabulary exercises designed to learn the language as naturally as possible. One of them is teaching vocabulary through reading texts. Thornbury (2003) mentioned that words in contexts can increase the probability of learners understanding not only their meanings but their typical environments such as their associated collocations or grammatical structures. Reading texts can provide the contexts so that the learners could estimate the meaning of some difficult words.

In addition to reading texts, Thornbury (2003) explained that short texts are ideal for classroom use because students can focus on its grammatical and lexical study intensively. Moreover, it



will not expand learners' attention or memory as longer texts do. Teaching vocabulary with short texts might be more helpful for the learners than the longer ones.

Another way to teach vocabulary in context is vocabulary instruction through hypertext. Hypertext is information stored in a computer and specially organized to link together related items, as in separate documents, so that it can be readily accessed (Your Dictionary, 2008). This technique is proposed by Koren (1999) with some advantages. First, hypertext enables multiple scanning, that is quick reading of different texts that are linked together. Second, users are given many choices between reading some or all of the linked texts and in the order of the reading the texts autonomously. Three, users are offered a richly interactive environment in which they can respond to tasks and questions and get immediate feedback. Forth, hypertext also enables progress at the learner's pace as each reader works individually without the pressure of finishing classroom tasks together with everybody else. Technique of learning vocabulary through hypertext helps students to learn vocabulary through many contexts. This way could be very helpful to those who want to acquire language in its actual use.

C. CONCLUSION

Corpus Linguistics is a means to find out the frequency, phraseology and collocation of a word. It could give great contributions to the language teaching. Through corpus-based teaching, students would learn how to understand the form the language and how to understand its meaning and use in the appropriate social context. In corpus linguistics, there are three



ways in processing data of words that could help to explore more on English. They are frequency, Phraseology, and Collocation. In English language teaching, textbook plays an important role in the teaching learning process. A satisfying a textbook should fulfill three requirements; it should suit the need, interest, and abilities of the students. A textbook should suit to both the teacher and the students, and it must meet the requirements of standard curriculum.

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