

REALIZATION OF ACTIONAL AND FORMULAIC COMPETENCES IN TEACHERS' TALK IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE CLASSROOM

A THESIS

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PERNYATAAN KEASLIAN

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MOTTO AND DEDICATION

- Teachers' talk should contain actional competence in order to provide various language functions to guide the students to be appropriately and politely use the language in communication based on the situation in which that language is used.
- Teachers' talk should contain formulaic competence in terms of lexical bundles as the main building block to facilitate efficient communication with the students.
- It needs to maintain a balance; not only focus on grammar and pronunciation but also have adequate knowledge and competence of lexical bundles for performing language function. Focusing only on grammar and pronunciation will result in linguistically accurate but socially dysfunctional oral communication.

I dedicate this thesis to English Language Program, Universitas Negeri Semarang.

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In a nutshell, I realize that a lot of shortcomings may be found in this thesis. Therefore, suggestions are always needed. I highly hope, this thesis will be useful for all the readers.

Semarang, December 17th 2018

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ABSTRACT

Colle, Andi Tenry Lawangen Aspat. 2018. Realization of Actional and Formulaic Competences in Teachers' Talk in English Language Classroom. Thesis. English Department, Pascasarjana, Universitas Negeri Semarang. Advisor: Sri Wuli Fitriati, S.Pd., M.Pd., Ph.D and Puji Astuti, S.Pd., M.Pd., Ph.D.

Key Words: Actional Competence, Formulaic Competence, Teachers' Talk

This study was spoken discourse study which aimed to explain the realization of actional competence based on Celce-Murcia (2007) theory in teachers' talk. This study also tried to to explain the realization of formulaic competence which focused on Biber et al. (2004) theory. And the last aim is to explain the relationship between both competences. English teachers at SMAN 1 Semarang, SMA Nasional Karangturi Semarang, and SMA Mardisiswa Semarang were involved as the research participants in this study. The instruments of this research were audio recorder and interview guideline. The findings of this study revealed that there are some sub-categories of language functions which were mostly occurred in the teachers' talk namely asking for information, giving instruction, explaining, and complementing. Related to the realization of lexical bundles in teachers' talk, it concluded that lexical bundles mainly contained verb phrase along with dependent clauses. In contrast, lexical bundles that incorporate noun phrase and preposition fragments accounted for only a small proportion of lexical bundles.

This finding aligns with the findings of previous researchers where that academic speech primarily comprises more lexical bundles with verb and clause fragments. Dealing with relationship between actional and formulaic competences, this study reveal that the frequency of language functions used has resulted in highly fixed phrases or formulaic expression. In simple word, each social move or language functions, there is a stock potential expression (lexical bundles) on it. Such as language function of asking questions are associating with yes-no question fragments (do you want ...) and WH-question fragment (how do you ...). Seeing there is relationship between actional and formulaic competence in teachers' talk, where language functions which are occupied teachers' talk in teaching activity include many set phrases (lexical bundles),), thus this study suggested that the teachers must choose appropriate utterances in a given situation as the model for the students. The teachers need to maintain a balance, where the English teachers are not only focused in grammar and pronunciation but also but also have adequate knowledge and competence of lexical bundles for performing appropriate language functions.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This first chapter describes the background of the study, the reasons for choosing the topic, research questions, objectives of the study, significance of the study, and scope of the study.

1.1 Background of the Study

In Indonesia, most students are frequently exposed to English in the classroom. Classroom language is the chief source of foreign language learning and in some places are the only source. The kind of language used by the teacher for instruction in the classroom is known as Teacher's Talk. Teacher's talk is the language in the classroom employed to give directions, explain, and check students' understanding (Sinclair and Brazil, 1982). Seen from that definition, it can be said that when those three kinds of activities occurred, language functions are also derived. Language functions are the purposes of language used.

The functional use of language is not only based on certain grammatical rules but also it is how we understand the context and use the language in order to fulfill certain purposes. In brief, a language function is a language that is performed for social purposes. In this study, I focused on the realization of language functions in teachers' talk and highlight seven categories of language functions which proposed by Celce-Murica et al. (1995) in actional competence. Seven categories of language functions are an interpersonal exchange, information exchange, opinions, feelings, suasion, problems, and future scenarios Furthermore, as explained by Celce-Murcia et al., 1995 in her research, the frequency of language functions in real life communication has resulted in highly conventionalized forms, fixed phrases and formulaic expression in every language. In other word, language functions are typically associated with conventionalized formulaic routines. Consequently, teachers also need to build up a repertoire of such phrases in their talk to be able to perform language function effectively. Therefore, Celce-Murica (2007) added a new component of communicative competence was formulaic competence. It defines as the ability to use fixed or prefabricated chunks which commonly used by native speakers in everyday life.

Thus, the realization of actional and formulaic competences in teachers' talk in English language classroom is needed to be explored further. Formulaic competence under investigated in this study was lexical bundles because those are a recurring sequence of three or more words that appear frequently in natural discourse, either oral or written. Teachers' talk in the English language classroom is considered to be a problematic area because too much teachers' talk could be deprived students of opportunities to speak. It is supported by many studies have been increasing interest in teachers' talk and drawing more attention to the rate of speed, pause, and the amount of teacher talk (Liu & Zhu, 2012; Mulyati, 2013; Tsegaye & Davidson, 2014; Husna, Hartono, & Sofwan, 2015).

However, the quality of teachers' talk is more important than its quantity in providing an invaluable source of comprehensible input. Here, the transcription of teacher's talk in my preliminary research that can be seen as follows:

- T : What is skirt? #00:06:06-8#
- S : Rok. #00:06:08-5#

- T : Ya, rok. #00:06:9-9#
- T : Sudah semua yah ... Yang naik sepeda sudah? #00:06:19-1#
- S : Udah #00:06:20-6#
- T : Ulangi lagi? #00:06:22-5#
- S : Ulangi lagi bu. #00:06:24-4#
- T : Here is a ... cupboard. Then, the clothes ... is not place proper, wrong place yah. *Berantakan dia. Mari kita rapikan* #00:06:52-0#
- T For example, a shirt, what is a shirt? #00:06:57-4#
- S : Rok ... kaos #00:07:00-8# (some students said rok, and some students said kaos also)
- T : *Rok atau kaos? Kita lihat #*00:07:09-8# *Bukan, salah berarti. #*00:07:14-7#

Based on the transcription text above, at minutes 06:06 the teacher said *ya*, *rok* as the agreement toward the students' answer. However, the teacher could use complete sentence such as *Yes*, *a skirt is sebuah rok* because although the teacher's talk is short and limited, but it could improve English learning when they are comprehensive and complete (Horst, 2010). Then, at minutes 7:14, the teacher used words *bukan*, *salah berarti* to show her feedback that indicates an incorrect answer. In this case, the teacher could use a phrase such as *No*, *that is incorrect* because teacher can break thoughts into manageable phrases to teach the students who cannot understand the teacher's talk easily, but not into individual words as this will interrupt the rhythm of speech (Sadeghi, Ansari & Rahmani, 2015).

Therefore, through this study, it is expected to know the quality of teachers' talk in term of actional and formulaic competences as served by the teachers to the students as the input for language acquisition. Based on the elaboration above, this study focused on exploring (1) the realization of actional competence in teachers' talk, (2) the realization of formulaic competence in teachers' talk, and (3) the relationship between actional and formulaic competences in teachers' talk.

1.2 Reasons for Choosing the Topic

This study investigated the realization of actional and formulaic competences in teachers' talk in EFL classroom based on the following reasons. First, the purpose of teaching English as a foreign language in Indonesia under the 2013 curriculum is to develop students' communicative competency both oral and written language (Permendikbud, 2016). Therefore, the language instruction used by the teachers must be integrated with the component of communicative competences such as actional and formulaic competences. Thus, the appropriate model of language functions and lexical bundles in teachers' talk are important for students in English acquisition.

Second, studies drawing on actional and formulaic competences in teacher's talk is still limited. Whereas, teacher's talk is claimed as the primary source of linguistic input in a language classroom to illustrate how important it is. Krashen, (2013) as cited in Zaenul, Nyoman, and Wayan (2014, p. 2), teacher's talk is "recognized as a potentially valuable source of comprehensible input for the learner" Because of that, it is important to investigate the language functions and lexical bundles are served by the teachers as the input for language acquisition.

Third, by putting attention in actional and formulaic competences, the teachers will know their ability in performing language functions such as expressing and acknowledging gratitude, asking for and giving information, suggesting, requesting, apologizing, and expressing about opinions, feelings, wishes, hopes, and desires. The teacher also will know their competence related to lexical bundles.

1.3 Research Questions

The research questions of this study are as follows:

- 1.3.1 How is the realization of actional competence in teachers' talk in English language classroom?
- 1.3.2 How is the realization of formulaic competence in teachers' talk in English language classroom?
- 1.3.3 How is the relationship between actional and formulaic competences in teachers' talk?

1.4 Objectives of the Research

In line with the research questions formulated in the previous section, the objectives of this research are as follows:

- 1.4.1 To analyze the language functions in order to explain the realization of actional competence in teachers' talk in English classroom;
- 1.4.2 To analyze the lexical bundles in order to explain the realization of formulaic competence in teachers' talk in English language classroom;
- 1.4.3 To analyze the language functions and lexical bundles in order to explain the relationship between actional and formulaic competences in teachers' talk.

1.5 Significance of the Research

Regarding the objectives of the research above, there are three significance of the research, which are break down into three domains. The significance of the research are as follow:

By explaining the realization of actional in teachers' talk, theoretically, it could enrich actional competence theory in term of language functions on spoken discourse. Practically, it will demonstrate the teachers' ability in performing language functions such as greeting, leave-taking, asking for and giving information. And pedagogically, it may shed light on the issue of how to provide an invaluable source of comprehensible input for EFL students by raising the teachers' awareness in using appropriate language functions in the classroom.

By explaining the realization of formulaic competence, it might contribute to the improvement of formulaic competence theory deals with lexical bundles on spoken discourse as theoretical significance. Practically, it will give a point of view about how lexical bundles realized in their talk to provide effectively and properly language input to the students. The last, pedagogically, it will useful for curriculum developers to include formulaic language teaching in curriculum or adapt the existing curriculum by integrating teaching materials and practices that focus on formulaic language teaching. For the purpose of increasing exposure, material developers can also design supplementary materials for EFL learners which include examples of how certain formulaic expression are used in particular contexts.

By explaining the relationship between actional and formulaic competences, theoretically, it will be useful to shed light on existing theory whether there is a relationship between actional and formulaic competences in spoken discourse. Practically, it will demonstrate how lexical bundles realized in their language functions could help the students in language acquisition. It could provide an invaluable source of comprehensible input for EFL students by raising the teachers' awareness in using appropriate language functions and lexical bundles in the classroom as pedagogically significant.

1.6 Scope of the Research

The scope of this research was teachers' talk in the English classroom. In this study, one Indonesian male teacher of English in SMA Negeri 1 Semarang was involved during the research process. He was addressed as Teacher A. There were also two female English teachers in SMA Nasional Karangturi Semarang and SMA Mardisiswa Semarang. They were addressed as Teacher B and C respectively. Their talk was examined in order to know the realization of actional competence based on Celce-Murcia (2007) theory which consisted of seven key areas of language functions, namely interpersonal exchange, information exchange, opinions, feelings, suasion, problems and future scenarios (Celce-Murcia et al).

Further, their talk also investigated in order to explain the realization of formulaic competence in their language production. It focused on formulaic competence, particularly lexical bundles based on Biber et al. (2004) theory which is consisted of three structural types namely lexical bundles that incorporate verb phrase fragments, lexical bundles that incorporate dependent clause fragments, and lexical bundles tend to have casual components. By seeing the elaborations above, it was known that this study has three key terms that need to be understood namely actional competence, formulaic competence, and teachers' talk.

First key term was actional competence; it is competence to convey and understand communicative intent (Piechurska-Kuciel & <u>Szymańska-Czaplak</u>, 2013) Furthermore, Chodkiewicz and Trepczyńska (2014) explain that actional competence entails the speaker's capacity for performing and understanding language functions and speech acts sets. As mentioned earlier, I focused on language functions and highlight seven key areas of language functions which proposed by Celce Murica et al. (1995). As mentioned by Liu (2001), acquiring this competence enables a speaker to accomplish his or her goal when engaging in communication.

Second key term was formulaic competence; it is competence to perform fixed and prefabricated chunks of language where it heavily uses in daily interactions (Celce-Murcia, 2007). In other words, formulaic competence is the ability in using many expressions which are occurred commonly in daily conversation. Formulaic competence in this study refers to lexical bundles proposed by Biber et al. (2004). Biber et al. (1999, p.990) describe it as "recurrent expressions, regardless of their idiomaticity, and regardless of their structural status" and as "simply sequences of word forms that commonly go together in natural discourse".

Cortes (2004, p.400) also gives another consistent definition of lexical bundles as "extended collocations of three or more words that statistically co-occur in a register". Then, Biber and Barbieri (2007, p.267) define it as "simply the most frequently occurring sequences of words in a sub-corpus of texts from a single register, such as *do you want to* and *I don't know what* in conversation" Simply defines lexical bundles as the most frequent recurring sequences of words in a given register which have more literal meaning. For example, *I want to ..., I think I was* ..., etc. Third key term was teacher talk; Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics defines "it as a variety of language sometimes used by teachers when they are in the process of teaching" (Richards & Schmidt, 2002, p.43). For this reason, it could be said teacher's talk is speech used by the teachers when they are in the process of teaching in order to deliver the lesson. Then, Ellis (1985) pointed out that the type of interaction that occurs in the classroom and the kind of language used by the teacher greatly affects the success of teaching-learning outcomes. When a teacher talks to the students, they are not only giving the lesson about the subject but also may be giving the best language lesson. Thus, in terms of the acquisition, teacher's talk plays a crucially important role because what the teacher spoke becomes an important source of input in language acquisition. There is no learning without input, thus the language used by the teacher affects the language produced by the students.

Five chapters are included in the present study. In Chapter I, the overall introduction of the research is presented. A number of studies have investigated the phenomenon of teachers' talk to explain its role in the process of acquiring a target language in a classroom setting but the studies of teachers' talk in the field of communicative competence have not much done yet. Whereas, The purpose of teaching English as a foreign language in Indonesia under the 2013 curriculum is to develop students' communicative competency both oral and written language (Permendikbud, 2016).

Therefore, the language instruction as the primary source of language acquisition used by the teachers must be integrated with the components of communicative competence such as actional and formulaic competences. Thus, this study investigating the realization of actional and formulaic competences in teachers' talk. In addition, the relationship between those competencies in spoken discourse.

Chapter 2 consists of several sections and sub-sections. I begin the chapter with a review previous study related to my topic. There are ten themes that form the focal points for the previous study in my research are actional competence on spoken discourse, formulaic competence on spoken and written discourse, lexical bundles on spoken and written mode, comparative studies of lexical bundles, experimental researches of lexical bundles.

The next themes are teachers' talk time, teachers' talk in EFL learners' language acquisition, types of teachers' talk, types of questions in teachers' talk, and teachers' talk in Indonesian classroom setting related to other contexts. This section investigates the objective of the research, methodology, and findings in previous studies that have a direct bearing on my own study. I then review the theoretical base upon which this study was built. Thus, I offer a brief review of communicative competence, actional competence, formulaic competence, and teachers' talk. Chapter II ends with a theoretical framework.

Chapter III provides an overview of a detailed account of the methodology used in the present study. This study belonged to qualitative research in terms of spokendiscourse analysis research. The research participants were one Indonesian male teacher of English in SMA Negeri 1 Semarang. He was addressed as Teacher A. And two female English teachers in SMA Nasional Karangturi Semarang and SMA Mardisiswa Semarang. They were addressed as Teacher B and C respectively. Unit of analysis in this study were clauses and clause complexes from teachers' talk produced by the English teachers.

Relating to the three research questions formulated, the instruments of this research were audio recorder and interview guideline. I recorded the clarity of language functions and lexical bundles used by the teachers during teaching and learning for 9 meetings. In addition, I interviewed the English teachers about language functions and lexical bundles used in the classroom. Interviews were used as the secondary data which function is to confirm the findings of the primary data which in this case was collected through audio recording.

Based on the need of the study, Dr. Fernandes Arung, M.Pd., was also involved as investigator triangulation in order to crosscheck the interpreted data for minimizing the subjectivity of the researcher's own interpretation. Besides investigation triangulation, member checking also was used to validate the judgments towards the findings. Thus, the research participants were interviewed in order to confirm the language functions used in the classroom.

Chapter IV is the most substantial chapter of the thesis as it details the findings, followed by a discussion of the findings. The findings of this study revealed that English teachers performed four dominated sub-categories of language functions namely asking for information, giving instruction, explaining, and complementing. Then, related to the realization of lexical bundles in teachers' talk, it concluded that lexical bundles mainly contained verb phrase along with dependent clauses. In contrast, lexical bundles that incorporate noun phrase and preposition fragments accounted for only a small proportion of lexical bundles. This finding aligns with the findings of previous researchers where that academic speech primarily comprises more lexical bundles with verb and clause fragments.

Dealing with the relationship between actional and formulaic competence, this study reveals that the frequency of language functions used has resulted in highly fixed phrases or formulaic expression. In simple word, each social move or language functions, there is a stock potential expression (lexical bundles) on it. Such as language function of asking questions are associating with yes-no question fragments (do you want) and WH-question fragment (how do you). Language functions of giving an opinion, suggesting, requesting are comprised of 1st/2nd PP + VP fragments lexical bundles (you need to, you have to, you'd better).

Chapter V presents the overall conclusion in which the main findings are highlighted. The English teachers mostly performed actional competence in five sub-categories namely asking questions, giving instructions, explaining, and complementing. Related to the realization of lexical bundles, teachers' talk mainly contained verb phrase along with dependent clauses. Dealing with the relationship between both competences, it revealed that there is a stock of lexical bundles on each language function. Thus, the teachers must choose appropriate utterances in a given situation as the model for the students. It needs to maintain a balance, where English teachers are not only focused on grammar and pronunciation but also mastery stock of lexical bundles for performing appropriate language functions.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This section is devoted to describe a number of literature related to the topic of the study. It consists of three main parts namely Review of Previous Studies, Review of Theoretical Studies, and Theoretical Framework. The first section involves the exploration of previous research having similarities with the present study to reveal the gaps that are going to be filled by the present study. The second section focuses on exploring the theories relevant to the key concepts of the study namely Communicative Competence, Actional Competence, Formulaic Competence, and Teachers' Talk. The last section explains the theories used to analyze and make sense of data to generate findings.

2.1 Review of Previous Studies

There are numerous studies have been conducted related to the topic of the current study in various context. Here, I would like to review those studies in order to identify any gaps and help to show the novelty of the present study.

2.1.1 Actional Competence in Spoken Discourse

Regarding actional competence studies on the field of spoken discourse, there are some studies have been conducted such as actional competence in students' talk (Mahardhika, 2013; Sutopo, 2015) and actional competence in students' conversation (Hasanah, 2016).

Mahardhika (2013) conducted descriptive qualitative research aiming at describing and explaining the language functions acquired by children of kindergarten level of Mondial Education Semarang through their learning experiences. The findings of this study showed that the children were involved in a number of activities such as dramatic play, mathematics center, nature center and playing blocks could encourage the children to produce utterances of language functions which cover seven key areas namely interpersonal exchange, information, opinions, feelings, suasion, problems, and future scenarios.

In addition, Sutopo (2015) concerned on how language functions acquired by a student of pre-school at Mondial Education. The study concluded that with the parents help the child acquired a number of language functions namely interpersonal exchange, information exchange, opinions, feelings, suasion, problems, and future scenarios. Another scholar, Hasanah (2016) studied the realization of actional competence in UNNES students' conversation. The result showed that the students had the adequate actional competence to perform language function in their casual conversation.

2.1.2 Formulaic Competence in Spoken Discourse

Dealing with formulaic competence studies on spoken discourse, there are numerous studies have been conducted such as formulaic competence in students' conversation (Neno & Agustien, 2016; Khusnita & Rukmini, 2016), formulaic competence and speaking fluency (Khodadady & Shamsaee, 2012; Ustanbas & Ortactepe, 2014; Assassi & Benyelles, 2016). Neno and Agustien (2016) carried out a descriptive qualitative study about formulaic competence manifested in students' interaction of English Study Program in Timor State University. It was found that the students used collocations and lexical bundles mostly. Similarly, Khusnita and Rukmini (2016) investigated realization of formulaic competence in 13 students of English Department of UNNES Graduate Program. The finding indicated that inserts were produced mostly, followed by collocation. Form those studies, it known that the students were more familiar with literal meanings instead of idiomatic meanings. However, there were many unnatural expressions in their interactions therefore formulaic expressions have to get more attention in teaching instruction.

Assassi and Benyelles (2016) conducted quasi-experiment research investigating the effects of formulaic expression towards communicative competence of 15 Master One English language students from the Foreign Languages Department in University of Biskra (Algeria). Through the data collected and analyzed, it proved that formulaic expression was one of the main factors affecting EFL learners' communicative competence. In other word, formulaicity has positively affected EFL learners' communicative competence and made them reach naturalness of speech. Thus, the researcher recommended formulaic expression should be implemented in the EFL learners' syllabus.

Examining formulaic expression in spoken discourse, there were two studies which highlighted the relationship between formulaic expressions towards fluency. First, Khodadady and Shamsaee (2012) who interviewed 41 female university students majoring in TEFL and Translation at International Imam Reza University in Iran. Second, Ustanbas and Ortactepe (2014) who researched 190 EFL learners who studied at Foreign Languages School of Bulent Ecevit University in Turkey. The findings showed that formulaic language was significantly related to their scores of fluency and language proficiency.

2.1.3 Formulaic Competence on Written Discourse

The next previous studies have been conducted dealt with formulaic competence in written discourse such as English textbook (Mustapa & Agustien, 2017; Rukmini & Sugiati, 2017). Mustapa and Agustien (2017) researched the application of formulaic expressions in 14 conversational texts taken from the tenth grade's English textbooks. The finding revealed that the most frequent form of formulaic expressions was insert followed by lexical bundles which appeared appropriately and inappropriately in the conversational texts. Consequently, there were many conversational texts must be revised.

In addition, Rukmini and Sugiati (2017) analyzed the application of formulaic expressions in the conversation texts of senior high school English textbooks grade X, XI, and XII entitled "Bahasa Inggris". The result demonstrated there were only four of five formulaic expressions types identified, they were lexical bundles, idiomatic phrases, collocations, and inserts. Meanwhile, they did not frequently occur in the conversation texts of the textbooks. It was concluded that the expressions were not native-like, so the conversation texts of the textbooks need to be improved.

2.1.4 Lexical Bundles on Spoken and Written Mode

Research on lexical bundles has encompassed both on spoken and written mode. Lexical bundles researches on spoken mode are academic lectures (Kashiha & Heng, 2013), group discussion (Heng, Kashiha, & Tan, 2014), students' talk (Ghani, 2016), and political speeches (Darweesh & Ali, 2017).

Heng, Kashiha, and Tan (2014) studied the frequency of lexical bundles in a group discussion in English language proficiency courses of undergraduate students from University Putra Malaysia. Structurally, the analysis showed that most lexical bundles used in group discussions were phrasal, including verb-phrase, noun phrase, and prepositional phrase fragments. Then, experimental research conducted by Ghani (2016) revealed that lexical bundles classes showed high rates of correct answers in the use of noun phrase, verb phrase, preposition phrase, and the it-cleft clause at the level of production and recognition.

Other lexical bundles studies on spoken mode, Kashiha and Heng (2013) attempted to discover four-word lexical bundles in 24 academic lectures taken from the British Academic Spoken English (BASE) corpus. The findings revealed that lexical bundles were frequently used in academic lectures and accounted for a large proportion of lecturers' speech. The lectures applied lexical bundles in order to convey their message, so as to be as comprehensive as possible for the learners. Then, Darweesh and Ali (2017) carried out research aiming at exploring the functions of lexical bundles in political speeches. The main finding of this study indicated that the referential function of lexical bundles has taken a priority over

other types of functions in the political discourse to show the importance of what was being said.

Lexical bundles investigation towards written mode in different contexts are research articles (Jalali, Moini, & Arani, 2014; Jalali, 2015), dissertation (Nkemleke, 2012), thesis (Mohamadr, 2015; Jalali, 2015), learners' paragraph writing (Ranjbar, Pazhakh, & Gorjian, 2012), and reading passages (Beng & Keong, 2014). Jalali, Moini, and Arani (2014) investigated the use of four-word lexical bundles in 790 research articles from 33 medical disciplines. The categorization of lexical bundles revealed that the largest structural category of lexical bundles was prepositional phrases, making up about 44.5% (with and without "of") of the total number of lexical bundles. Noun phrases with the overall frequency of 1842 (about 20.42%) formed another group of bundles of the whole corpus. The least frequent group of bundles was verb phrase+that clause fragments which formed about 1.7% of the bundles.

Therefore, learning such multi-word expressions can contribute to gaining effective proficiency in language communication and competence. Furthermore, Nkemleke (2012) explored the types and functions of lexical bundles in 150 endof-course dissertations written of English Department students at Ecole Normale Superieure Yaounde (Cameroon). It found that research-oriented lexical bundles (e.g. the purpose of this study is to, this work will) are frequently used; in-textoriented bundles such as those expressing stance (e.g. it is possible, maybe due to) and engagement (e.g. as can be seen, it should be noted) are relatively less frequent. In line with two previous studies above, Mohamadr (2015) examined the frequencies of lexical bundles in theses of 72 EFL students with respect to their discourse function. The finding revealed that 4-word bundles in academic writing were common. With respect to discourse organizers, topic introduction bundles (the results of the, as a result of, on the other hand) and focus bundles (t is important to, these results suggest that, to that of the) were the frequent ones.

Some previous studies about lexical bundles on the written register from various disciplines had been carried out by some research such as by Beng and Keong (2014). They studied the structural type of lexical bundles in arts and science-based reading passages of Malaysian University English Test. The findings showed that science-based texts tend to employ more NP-based and VP-based LBs while arts-based texts was a dependent clause. Pedagogically, teachers should consider incorporating corpora-based material to exploit consciousness-raising tasks and not to emphasize too much on grammatical items so that LBs could be noticed.

Then, Jalali (2015) explored possible generic variations and identified possible differences of it-bundles between research articles, doctoral dissertations, and master theses in the discipline of applied linguistics. It found that it-bundles had three stance expressions of hedging, marking attitude, and stressing emphasis. The major difference was discovered between students' genres and research articles, with the former drawing less in their expression of interpersonal meanings. The differences were accounted for by referring to generic expectations, and students' growing disciplinary identity.

2.1.5 Comparative Studies of Lexical Bundles

Comparative studies of lexical bundles between L1 and L2 are academic writing (Adel & Erman, 2012), theses (Amirian, Ketabi, & Eshaghi, 2013), articles abstract (Ahmadi, Ghonsooly, & Fatemi, 2013; Atai & Tabandeh, 2014), articles (Safarzadeh, Monfared, & Sarfeju, 2015; Gungori & Uysal, 2016; Ucar, 2017) and newspapers (Rafiee & Keihaniyan, 2013). Ahmadi, Ghonsooly, and Fatemi (2013) analyzed 4-word lexical bundles in research article abstracts written by native English speakers and Iranian EFL writers in the field of applied linguistics. A linguistic analysis of the bundles showed that the lexical bundles found in the Iranian corpus included more clausal elements and subordination, while native speaker bundles were more phrasal in nature.

In addition, Atai and Tabandeh (2014) conducted a study in a similar setting of research to explore the frequency of lexical bundles occurrences. The findings demonstrated ENL (English as a native language) and EFL (English as a foreign language) writing affect the use of LBs in terms of the frequency, types and function, since English native writers tend to use more bundles with different patterns and functional types in their research articles compared with Iranian EFL writers.

Amirian, Ketabi, and Eshaghi (2013) compared two corpora of applied linguistics MA theses of Iranian students and native students. Iranian postgraduate students rely on lexical bundles more than native postgraduate students. Functional patterns in native students' post-graduate writing indicated more variety, as native students employed all categories with almost the same frequency. In addition, Iranian students showed more concern about mentioning the procedures for completing their research by using more research-oriented bundles. While native students try to organize their writing by using more text-oriented bundles. By considering the infrequency of participant-oriented bundles in Iranian students' writing, one can conclude that Iranian students try to be as objective as possible by talking more about real world's procedures and less about their ideas in their theses.

Safarzadeh, Monfared, and Sarfeju (2015) carried out a comparative study of corpora was made up of 30 articles from American Journal of Political Science and American Political Science Review and also 30 articles written by Iranian scholars mostly from International Studies Quarterly and Middle East Studies journals. It found that native speaking writers used a systematic pattern of use since they purposefully made use of lexical bundles to communicate meaning while Persian speaking writers had a typical style of use since they used bundles irregularly and in a predictable mode not adjusted to the functions they planned to develop the discourse upon.

Adel and Erman (2012) compared the lexical bundles in academic writing of advanced Swedish undergraduate university students with British native speakers. They found that native speakers used a wider range of lexical bundles than those of non-native students. Another research, Rafiee and Keihaniyan (2013) explored the use of lexical bundles in two broad corpora of journalistic writing were newspaper articles written in English and published in England and the other one comprised of newspaper articles written in Persian from Iranian publications. It was identified that most bundles performed a referential function in form of four-word bundles and three-word bundles in English and Persian corpora and appeared to be some similarities between the occurrences of lexical bundles. The findings may be particularly useful to translators and EFL practitioners in that there were some equivalent bundles between languages which can be beneficial for language learners.

Gungori and Uysal (2016) compared lexical bundles in English research articles written by native English scholars and Turkish scholars in the field of educational sciences. Turkish scholars were observed to overuse clausal or verbphrase based lexical bundles in their research articles. It caused by the inefficiency of Turkish scholars to use noun phrase and prepositional phrase structures. Another reason was lack of writing proficiency. Based on these results, writing instructors might focus on the reduction strategies in their writing classes for a shift from clausal or verb-phrase based structures to phrasal structures so that the students can improve their writing in a native-like manner and present their arguments succinctly.

Similarly, Ucar (2017) investigated the most frequently used lexical bundles in the academically published articles of Turkish non-native and native speakers of English and to investigate whether there was a significant difference between native and non-native scholars writer. It found out, Turkish non-native writers employed a higher number of three-word lexical bundles patterns in academic writing. They use less varied lexical bundles than English professional writers. The results of the present study were consistent with the previous study that showed non-native learners overused or underused some lexical bundles in their writing and they used more limited and less varied lexical bundles.

2.1.6 Experimental Research of Lexical Bundles

Other scholars conducted an experiment research investigating the effects of lexical bundles on teaching writing skill such as paragraph writing fluency (Ranjbar, Pazhakh, & Gorjian, 2012; Chun-guang, 2014; Kazemi, Katiraei, & Rasekh, 2014), pre-writing vocabulary activity (El-Dakhs, Prue, & Ijaz, 2017), and writing quality (Shamsabadi, Ketabi, & Rasekh, 2017). Ranjbar, Pazhakh, and Gorjian (2012) researched the effects of lexical bundles in learners' paragraph writing production fluency of 120 language learners studying TEFL at Islamic Azad University of Dehloran. The results of the post-test showed that lexical bundles teaching methodology proved effective and influential in developing language learners' paragraph writing fluency. Therefore, the study suggested that content developers should include lexical bundles teaching methodology and their uses in the teaching and learning processes.

Besides that, Chun-guang (2014) explored the effects of the corpus-driven lexical chunks instruction in students' lexical chunks acquisition, especially from the perspective of writing. Compared with the pretest, the students had made a great increase in both the writing score and the number of lexical chunks, which means that the corpus-driven lexical chunks instruction was conducive to improving writing performance and the use of lexical chunks in writing. In the same vein, Kazemi, Katiraei, and Rasekh (2014) researched the effect of explicit teaching of lexical bundles on writing and students' attitudes toward this teaching mode. The results showed the positive impact of the intervention on students' writing. In addition, the students' views on the intervention came highly in favor as they appreciated the significance of the target bundles to enhance their writing.

El-Dakhs, Prue, and Ijaz (2017) carried out a study investigating the effect of the explicit instruction of formulaic sequences in pre-writing vocabulary activities of 81 Saudi pre-intermediate learners of English as a foreign language. The results supported a positive influence for the explicit instruction of formulaic sequences on the learners' lexical choices and overall writing quality. It suggested to supports the incorporation of formulaic sequences in pre-writing vocabulary activities in the foreign language classroom. Explicit instruction of the sequences will be particularly helpful for foreign language learners who seem to face real challenges using appropriate vocabulary in their writing.

Shamsabadi, Ketabi, and Rasekh (2017) examined the effect of explicit instruction of lexical bundles (LBs) on the development of Iranian English for Academic Purposes (EAP) students writing quality. Based on the obtained findings showed that explicit instruction of LBs can enhance L2 learners' productive and improve the overall quality of their written productions. This finding was in agreement with the findings of other researchers all of whom suggested the positive effect of LBs instruction.

2.1.7 Teacher Talk Time

Regarding teachers' talk research, there were seven studies conducting about teachers' talk time (Rezaee & Farahian, 2012; Liu & Zhu, 2012; Mulyati, 2013; Tsegaye & Davidson, 2014; Behtash & Azarnia, 2015; Sukarni & Ulfah, 2015;

Husna, Hartono, & Sofwan, 2015). Rezaee and Farahian (2012) asked 12 intermediate learners to participate in their study to examine the amount of teacher talk in the classroom and investigated the role of teachers' questions on students' learning. The results of the study showed that in each class session, 62% to 73% of the class time was devoted to teacher talk and almost 20% to 25% was allocated to student talk with the rest of the class time devoted to other tasks such as the groups works to related questions or issues raised by the teacher to the whole class.

In addition, Liu and Zhu (2012) analyzed the phenomenon of teacher talk time in college English class in University of Jinan (UJN). The finding revealed that teacher talk time dominated most of the class time, which coincided with the questionnaires, 67% of respondents thought that their teacher spoke more than 20 minutes per class. Further, Mulyati (2013) investigated the realization of verbal classroom interaction especially teacher talk and students talk in private school in Bandung. The findings indicated that the teacher acted as the most dominant interlocutor during a speaking activity where teachers' talk was 62.13% and students' talk was 36.8%.

Furthermore, Tsegaye and Davidson (2014) researched the proportion of teacher and students talking time in the language classroom in the Ethiopian context. It was found that EFL teachers used an average of 83.4% and students were only an average of 16.6% of the classroom time to talk. This implies that teachers dominated the class and gave less opportunity for students' interaction and language use which was against the rule of communicative language teaching. Moreover,

Behtash and Azarnia (2015) addressed the teacher's talk time of 4 Iranian language school teachers.

The findings revealed that teachers talk had a large proportion of class time that was almost 75% of the class time while student talk time (STT) comprised less than 20% of the class time. Then, Sukarni and Ulfah (2015) explored the interaction between the teacher and students of SMP Negeri 18 Purworejo, particularly in VIII G class. Based on the finding, it concluded that the teacher was dominant in the classroom interaction. The percentage of the teacher talk was 78.15%, whereas the students' participation was 21.16%.

Lastly, Husna, Hartono, and Sofwan (2015) aimed at finding out the pattern of teacher's talks and students' talks occurred during the classroom interaction of the second semester of Cendekia Utama Nursing College. The result showed that the most dominant pattern occurred in the classroom interaction was the teacher spent (55.7%) while students spent (40.3%) in their time. The findings of those studies above were in line with the literature reviewed on TTT which came to the conclusion that teacher talk usually comprises more than two-thirds of the class time. Thus, one-way communication still dominants class teaching and learning.

2.1.8 Teacher talk in EFL Learners' Language Acquisition

Teacher talk and its roles towards EFL learners' language acquisition where done by some researcher such as Horst, Collins, White, & Cardoso (2010); Incecay, (2010); Rohmah, (2010); Kiasi & Hemmati, (2013); Suprobowati & Kurniasih, (2015); Wasi'ah, (2016); Wicaksono, (2016). Horst, Collins, White, and Cardoso (2010) explored the effect of teachers' talk on incidental vocabulary learning of 20 high-intermediate and advanced ESL students in Montreal institute. The results of the study showed that teachers rarely used new vocabulary items in the class and their talks were short and limited. Although the teachers' discourse exchanges were short, they were comprehensive and complete. The findings of this study supported the idea that teachers' talk improves incidental vocabulary learning of the students.

In addition, Rohmah (2010) demonstrated that scaffolding, direct error correction, teachers echo, prompting, extended use of turn-taking, extended waittime, turn competition, and repairing could elicit students' contribution and assist the students' descriptive monologue skill development in the speaking descriptive learning process. A similar result, Suprobowati and Kurniasih (2015) explained display question, referential question, direct error correction, teachers echo, prompting, extended use of turn-taking, turn competition, extended wait-time, and repairing could lead students' involvement during the classroom discussion as the response towards the teacher's talk.

In addition, Wasi'ah (2016) described scaffolding, display question, direct error correction, teachers echo, prompting, turn competition, extended use of turn-taking, extended wait-time, and repairing could help the teacher to achieve the pedagogic goal. In line with this research, Incecay (2010) found out that direct error correction, prompting, extended wait-time, and repairing could facilitate learners' language process. However, according to Incecay (2010) turn competition, teacher echo, and extended use of turn-taking obstructed learners' language acquisition. In contrast, Rohmah (2010); Suprobowati and Kurniasih (2015); Wasi'ah (2016) revealed those features gave chance to students to give their contributions in the classroom.

Kiasi and Hemmati (2013) explored the pedagogical functions of teacher talk in writing sessions. It found that there were two micro-episodes were detected writing tutors can teach either linguistic (grammar, vocabulary, and punctuation) and ideational (ideas, concepts, beliefs, and arguments) issues in their talk. Then, Wicaksono (2016) investigated teacher's talk in speaking class. It was clear that teacher's talk could encourage the students to speak actively in speaking class. The lecturer used communication game as the element of teacher's talk could encourage the students to speak actively and support the students to study comfortably in the class.

2.1.9 Types of Teachers' Talk

Other researchers investigated teachers' talk based on their types are Yanfen and Yuqin (2010), Pujiastuti (2013), Sofyan and Mahmud (2014), and Aisyah (2016). Pujiastuti (2013) conducted a case study research exploring types of teachers' talk in classroom interaction. The results indicated giving direction and lecturing were found as the most frequently used. Different from that study, Yanfen & Yuqin (2010) revealed that asking questions category dominate the teachers' talk of 29 China teachers in classroom interaction.

Supporting that finding, Aisyah's (2016) which observed teachers' talk category in 10th grade of an EFL classroom at BPI 1 Senior High School, then, Sofyan and Mahmud's (2014) analyzed teacher talk in classroom interaction based on Foreign Language Interaction Analysis (FLINT) system in speaking classroom of English department of Language and Literature Faculty of State University of Makassar provided that asking questions also dominated the teachers' talk category.

2.1.10 Types of Questions in Teachers' Talk

There are some studies have been conducted to investigate the frequent types of questions being raised in teachers' talk such as Faruji (2011), Roostini (2011), Ambrosia (2013), Qashoa (2013), Matra (2014), Tania, Sada, and Sumarni (2014), Vebriyanto (2015), Kurniawati and Fitriati (2017), and Fitriati, Isfara, and Trisanti (2017). Faruji (2011) who analyzed the type of questions were used of an Iranian EFL teacher during 9 sessions. Then, Ambrosia (2013) who tried to identify the types of questions of an elementary teacher in delivering reading instruction. Both of studies showed that factual questions were mostly used questions by the teachers. Factual questions were mostly related to asking the meaning of a word.

Still in teachers' questions topic, Qashoa (2013) investigated the types of teachers' questions in 3 public secondary schools. It was revealed that display questions were used more frequently than referential ones. Then, Vebriyanto (2015) described the teacher's questioning types in XI-TKJ class in SMK Palapa Semarang. The study also described display-closed questions were frequently used by the teacher to ask the meaning of certain word, phrase, even sentence to the students. Otherwise, a study conducted by Roostini (2011) showed a different result. The subjects of the study were 3 teachers who taught general English classes to level one, three and five. The class size ranged from 6 to 12 students in age from 19 to 50 and came from different language backgrounds (Indonesian, Korean, and Japanese). The results showed that referential questions were more frequently used than display questions at higher levels.

Regarding teachers' talk questioning skill based on Bloom's Taxonomy, there were two researches have been conducting. Firstly, Tania, Sada, and Sumarni (2014) investigated the questions classification of five students at SMPN 1 Pontianak. Secondly, Kurniawati and Fitriati (2017) observed 4 English teachers of SMPN 13 Semarang who asking questions during the teaching-learning activity. The finding of the two studies concluded that the level of question dominating the teaching and learning process was the low-level questions (understanding level). Actually, the teachers tried to give more high-level questions but the students had difficulties to answer.

Another researcher, Matra (2014) analyzed a questioning technique used by two English classes in SMPN 2 Pekalongan based on Brown's Interaction Analysis System (BIAS). The data showed that lower order cognitive questions mostly occurred. In details, recall questions for 52%, comprehension for 42%, and application occupied the remaining that was 6%. The questions were aimed to invite the learners to speak and deliver their ideas. Then, Fitriati, Isfara, and Trisanti (2017) based on Wu's (1993) taxonomy of questioning strategies. The findings demonstrated that repetition strategy was very often used because the teachers could elicit the students' answers, and the students had an opportunity to hear the teachers' English utterances again as to make them confident to response.

2.1.11. Teacher talk in Indonesian Classroom Setting Related to Other Context.

Moreover, there are other studies about teachers' talk in Indonesian classroom setting related to other contexts, such as mood structure (Zaenul, Nyoman, &

Wayan, 2014) and speech act (Basra & Thoyyibah, 2017). Zaenul, Nyoman, and Wayan (2014) carried out research concerning with mood structure of two English teachers in SMAN 3 Selong of East Lombok Regency. This research revealed that there were some differences between male and female teacher talk in selecting a mood system in expressing interpersonal meaning to the students. The cultural and social factors of the teachers were believed as the contributions to the differences.

Then, Basra and Thoyyibah (2017) analyzed the teacher's talk in speech acts context. It found that, 70% for directives, 21% for representative, 6% for expressive and 3% for commissive. Directive speech acts were used mostly by the teacher because the teacher adopts the principle of Communicative Language Teaching. The use of directive speech act apparently made implication towards the improvement of the students' productive skills.

2.1.12. Gaps Identification

The studies reviewed above show that there are many teachers' talk studies have been conducted in various contexts such as acquisition learners' language learning, teachers' talk time, types of questions on teachers' talk, speech act, mood structure, and teachers' talk in classroom interaction. However, studies of teachers' talk in the field of communicative competence have not much done yet. Whereas, knowing the teachers' competence in providing language input through their utterances is very important. Therefore, this research intends to fill the gap with the focus on the realization of actional and formulaic competences as sub-competence of communicative competence at teachers' talk. This study is needed to be done to give a contribution to the theory of communicative competence in terms of actional and formulaic competences, and its contribution to English language teaching and learning in the Indonesian context.

2.2. Review of Theoretical Studies

This section explores theoretical studies underpinning the research and theories related to it. It comprises a review of communicative competence, actional competence, formulaic competence, and teachers' talk.

2.2.1 Communicative Competence

The notion of communicative competence was first coined in 1967 by Dell H. Hymes (1927) in reaction to Chomsky's (1965) notion of linguistic competence. He defines communicative competence as what "enables a member of the community to know when to speak and when to remain silent, which code to use, when, where and to whom, etc. (Fauziati, 2015, p.78). Since then, the concept has developed over years by different scholars who attempted to define the specific components of communicative competence. In addition, the importance of this competence has been maintained as, for example, in the pedagogically motivated model of communicative competence proposed by Celce-Murcia (2007).

The schema of communicative competence is shown in figure 2.1.

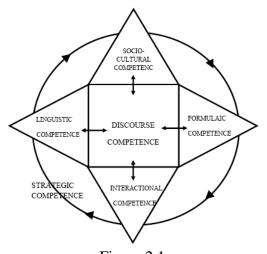


Figure 2.1 Communication Competence (Celce-Murica, 2007)

The figure above shows that there are six components of communicative competence. Firstly, discourse competence refers to the selection, sequencing, and arrangement of words, structures, and utterances to achieve a unified spoken message (Celce-Murcia, 2007). Secondly, linguistic competence entails the basic elements of communication, such as phonological, lexical, morphological and syntactic (2007). Thirdly, a sociocultural competence which refers to the speaker's knowledge of how to express appropriate messages within the social and cultural context of communication in which they are produced (2007). Fourthly, a strategic competence which concerns with the knowledge of communication strategies and how to use them (2007).

In this communicative competence schema, Celce-Murcia (2007) introduced a new competence was formulaic competence. It refers to 'those fixed and prefabricated chunks of language that speakers use heavily in everyday interaction' (2007, p.48). And then for interactional competence, it is not a new competence because it replaced actional competence which exists in 1995. According to CelceMurcia (2007), interactional competence is extremely important. The foreign language students have to understand how to manage social introductions, how to complain, how to apologize, and so forth' in the target language.

2.2.2 Actional competence

Actional competence is a sub-component of interactional competence can be described, "as the ability to perform and recognize language functions and speech acts set" (Celce-Murcia, 2007, p. 18). From that definition, it is known that actional competence consists of two main components are language functions and speech act sets. With regard to speech acts sets, Olshtain and Cohen's (1992) in Celce-Murcia et al. (1995) give an example of "apology speech act set," which is consisted of five language functions: two are obligatory (expressing an apology and expressing responsibility), and three are situation-specific and optional (offering an explanation, offering repair and promising non recurrence). Thus, the learners should mastery language functions first to be able to break them down into such set which is integrated into the higher level of the communication system.

In this study, I focused on language function where Celce-Murcia (1995) categorized it into seven key areas based partly on Finocchiaro and Brumfit's (1983) and van Ek and Trim's (1991) work.

1. Interpersonal Exchange

The interpersonal exchange was the first point of interaction in communication introduce by Celce-Murica (1995). The sub-components of interpersonal exchange are:

a. Greeting and leave-taking

Greeting occurs in the first and at the end of the meeting or conversation, the greeting can be in form of *hi*, *hello*, and followed by asking one's condition such as *how are you? What is life going?* Leave-taking occur when the meeting or conversation needs to be ended, leave-taking can be signaled by saying *goodbye*, *see you* or by telling the addressee that she/he needs to go, *I need something to do*. b. Making introductions and identifying oneself

Making introduction means introduce oneself to others by telling them the information need. Such as name, status, and so on, for example, *my name is Tenry Lawangen, I am a student of Semarang State University, I am on the fourth semester of English Department program.*

c. Extending, accepting and declining invitations and offers

The example of extending invitation and offer can be *would you like to come to my birthday party tonight?* Moreover, the examples of accepting the invitation or offer such as *why not? I would like to come*. Meanwhile, the example of declining the invitation or offer, such as *I would like to come to your birthday party, but my parent will come tomorrow*.

d. Making and breaking agreements

Engagement is planning to meet someone or to do something in a particular time. It can be an engagement to have dinner with someone, *"I'm afraid I cannot come, I have a previous engagement"* this sentence holds the meaning that speaker breaks the engagement which he cannot come and the other engagement has already made.

e. Expressing and acknowledging gratitude

Expressing gratitude, for example, *thank you* (so much/very much/indeed), (many), *thanks!*, *it/that was* (very/most) *kind/nice/going of you* (to + VPinf). Acknowledging gratitude, for example, *thank you, not at all, it's a pleasure*.

f. Complementing and congratulating

A compliment is kind of language function used to express praise. For example, *you look great! nice work! excellent!* Meanwhile, congratulation is an <u>expression</u> that we use to give the congratulation utterance when someone gets success in doing <u>something</u>. The example of congratulation expression is *Congratulations!* I am proud of you.

g. Reacting to interlocutor's speech.

Examples of reacting to interlocutor's speech are showing attention, interest, surprise, sympathy, happiness, disbelief, disappointment.

2. Information Exchanges

Sub-components of information exchange explained Celce Murica et al. (1995) such as these below:

a. Asking for and giving information

Asking for and giving information is a pattern that cannot be separated in good communication. If any question occurs there must be an answer to complete the pattern. This is one of many examples of asking and giving information.

Bella	:	How are you?
Ricky	:	I am fine, how about you?
Bella	:	Fine too thanks.
Ricky	:	Hey, what do you think about my new bag?
Bella	:	Wow, I think it is a good bag. <i>Where did you buy it, Ricky?</i>
Ricky	:	My auntie bought it for my birthday gift.

b. Reporting

Describing people, thing, and building can be expressed by telling the specific or special characteristic of the subject described. For example, *Lisa is tall, she has got a pointed nose, white skin,* etc.

c. Remembering

One might ask someone to remember something; it can be an event or meeting. The expression could *do not forget our meeting on Monday at 8 pm*.

d. Explaining

The discussion will turn well if it consists of many people who can make discussion turn continuously. It can be indicated by *let us discuss about, could you tell me about* ...

3. Expression of Opinions

Murcia et al. (1995) pointed out some sub-components of expression of opinion such as these below:

a. Expressing and finding out about opinions and attitudes

The example of expressing an opinion can be in the form *I think ...,* and finding out about opinion, on the other hand, can be *what is your opinion? do you agree with that?*.

b. Agreeing and disagreeing

The example of agreement can be expressed such *I agree, indeed, of course, certainly.* The disagreement on the other side can be: *I don't agree, certainly not.*

c. Approving and disapproving

Approve means to have a favorable opinion, especially of a course, action, or type of behavior; regard as good, right, sensible, etc. Example: *you made a good decision, and I heartily approve of it.* Then, an example of disapproving expression such as *I disapprove, I don't approve* (of people / them ...)

d. Showing satisfaction and dissatisfaction

Satisfaction can be expressed by saying *well done, great, good work, you did well.* In addition, dissatisfaction can be expressed by saying *I am not satisfied with your work,* or *you haven't done well enough.*

4. Expressing of Feelings

Murcia et al. (1995) pointed out an expression of feeling such as love, happiness, sadness, pleasure, anxiety, anger, pain, relief, annoyance, surprise, etc. These all feelings can be delivered by stating the utterance such as *I am terrified, I am scared, I am worried about, I am anxious, etc.*

5. Expression of Suasion

Suasion as the fifth language function introduced by Murcia, et al. (1995). Here are short explanations of each component.

a. Suggesting, requesting and instructing

Suggesting means an idea or plan that is suggested to other people. There are various phrases could be used are *you should; I suggest/recommend that you ...* Requesting indicates as asking something to someone else. For example, <u>Can</u> you give me the book?; **Instructing is expressing order or asking someone to do** **something, especially in a formal way.** For example, *listen to the audio before you answer the question.*

b. Giving orders, advising and warning

The example of giving orders such as *Give me that!; Be quiet!; Stop it.* Giving Advising means to give someone advice, for example, *you should* + *VPinf* (you should go to the police), *why don't you* + *VPinf, you ought to* + *VPinf.* Giving warning is the expression which is spoken when we want to warn another person because there is a danger or problem. For example, *watch out! be careful!*

c. Persuading, encouraging and discouraging

Persuading is an expression to persuade someone. It means to make someone decide to do something by giving them reasons why they should do it, asking them many times to do it or to make someone believe something or feel sure about something. For example: *let's join... You won't regret it; Won't you... Please?;* Encouraging is an expression to give someone support, motivation, and confidence to do something, so he/she can achieve the goals. Here are some expressions to encourage someone: *Don't worry. I'm sure you'll do better the next time; Come on. This is not the end of the world; Go on, you can do it! Don't give up! I'm sure you will pass.*

d. Asking for, granting and withholding permission

Permission means something that if we asking for it, so it will be allowed for us to do it. The example of asking for permission can be expressed such as *May I come in? Do you mind* (+if clause)?, *is it all right* (+if clause)?. Granting permission can be *yes, certainly, please do, that's all right, of course.* Moreover, withholding permission is *no, you can't, I'm sorry* (+but clause).

6. Expression of Problems

Murica et al. (1995) stated complaining and criticizing, blaming and accusing, admitting and denying, regretting and apologizing and forgiving are subcomponents of expression problem.

a. Complaining and criticizing

Complaining are expressions of "displeasure or annoyance" in response to an action that is seen by the speaker as unfavorable. Here are expressions can be used when complaining: *I have a complaint to make. ...; I want to complain about...* Criticizing is giving an opinion about something that purposed for improvement. Example: *this is good, but it will be better if you retouch this part.*

b. Blaming and accusing

Blaming is an expression that is used to somebody the responsibility for something done (badly or wrongly) or not done. The example of blaming is *it was your fault, you are the one to blame*. Accusing is an expression when someone said that person did something wrong although she/he does not know the truth. The example of accusing is *it must have been you, who did it*.

c. Regretting

The examples of regretting expression such as I regret it, I do regret.

d. Admitting and denying

Admitting can be expressed by saying yes, that's right; absolutely; that's it. Meanwhile, denying could be no, it isn't, actually; it's not true.

e. Apologizing and forgiving

It can be indicated by, *I am sorry, I know I was wrong*. Moreover, forgiving can be *it is okay, everyone ever did that*.

7. Expression of Future Scenarios

Murcia et al. (1995) pointed out some sub-components of expression of future scenarios such as these below:

a. Expressing and finding out about wishes, hopes, and desires

Expressing and finding out about wishes hopes and desires can be expressed by saying *I hope...; I wish...*

b. Expressing and eliciting plans, goals, and intentions

Asking plans, goal, intentions are *what are you going to do?; Do you have any intention of ...?* **Expressing plans, goal, Intentions** are *I'm going to ...; I'm planning to ...; I reckon I'll ...; I fully intend to ...; It is my intention to ...*

c. Promising

A promise is a commitment by someone to do or not do something or a declaration that something will or will not be done, given, etc. A promising expression such as *I promise that I; I swear (to do something);*

d. Predicting and speculating

Predicting can be expressed by saying *I suspect ...; I suppose ...; It seems as if ...;* Speculation is something that is expressed based on someone's belief. Thus, it is like an assumption that is believed to be possible to happen. For example *What a clear day! The sky looks so bright, but I foresee the rain will fall this afternoon.* (It is speculation. The situation is on the contrary to its possibility. When there is no evidence, people may not believe it). There are various ways to express speculation such as *it's worth speculation that; I guess....; I foresee that; I speculate that*

e. Discussing possibilities and capabilities of doing something.

The expressions of asking possibility are *do you think we are capable of* ...?; Would *it be possible for (somebody) to* ...?; Is it possible to ...?; Yes, there is a possibility

2.2.3 Formulaic Competence

Celce-Murcia (2007:47), "formulaic competence is the counterbalance to linguistic competence". Thus, formulaic competence is as important as linguistic competence. She shifts the traditional teaching to a communicative approach where the focus not only grammar but also formulaic knowledge of target language. It is also in line with Biber et al.'s (1999) concept, "producing natural English is not just a matter of constructing well-formed sentences but of using the well-tried lexical expression in appropriate places". It means that mastering the only vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation without appropriate formulaic knowledge of target language will be fluent but inaccurate.

Different researchers used a number of terms to describe this aspect of formulaicity, one of the terms used is lexical bundles (Biber et al., 1999). Later, Biber et al. (2004) set out the following criteria in terms of which they identify lexical bundles:

a. The frequency of occurrence; a minimum occurrence of 10 times per million words (with a statistical conversion to the equivalent ratio for smaller corpora)

- b. Distribution or 'dispersion threshold'; sequences to occur in at least five different texts in order to guard against idiosyncratic use by individual writers.
- c. Type of bundles; commonly restricted to sequences of four words as these include 3-word bundles in their structures, have a broader range of structures and functions than 3-word bundles and occur more frequently than 5-word bundles
- d. Grammatical structure; lexical bundles are generally not complete structural units, "most lexical bundles bridge two structural units: they begin at a clause or phrase boundary, but the last words of the bundle are the first elements of a second structural unit" (Biber et al., 2004:377), with the result that "shorter bundles are often incorporated within longer lexical bundles" (Nekrasova, 2009:650).
- e. Semantic transparency or "perceptual salience" (Biber & Barbieri, 2007:264)
 bundles are not idiomatic in meaning; it is possible to determine the meaning of a lexical bundle from the individual words that make up the multi-word sequence.

In determining the frequency of lexical bundles in a text, a cut-off point is used; figures between 5 and 40 occurrences per million words are often cited in studies of lexical bundles (Biber et al., 2004). It is important to note that these cut-off points are often determined somewhat arbitrarily (Biber, 2006a). Decisions regarding frequency cut-offs are often based on previous studies or on the researcher's own intuitions. As such, there is no "correct" frequency cut-off to use in a study of lexical

bundles. The first examination of lexical bundles (Biber et al., 1999) used a cut-off of 10 occurrences per million words.

Lexical bundles must also be of a particular length. In general, lexical bundles are either three or four words long; two-word sequences are too numerous and five and six-word sequences too uncommon to be of interest (Biber, Conrad & Leech, 2002). Another key aspect in defining lexical bundles is their range - that is, the number of texts within which they appear in a given corpus. This measure is necessary in order to "guard against idiosyncratic uses by individual speakers or authors" (Biber et al., 2004). A sequence might appear very frequently in a corpus, yet might only be used by one or two speakers or authors, suggesting that it is not in fact commonly used. The appearance of a sequence in a wider range of texts written or spoken by multiple speakers or authors ensures that it is, in fact, a true lexical bundle.

Lexical bundles have other distinguishing characteristics. In most cases, they are not idiomatic in meaning; bundles such as *when you talk about* and *at the same time* are transparent in meaning from their component parts (Biber, 2006b). This contrasts with the more semantically opaque nature of idiomatic expressions, most of which, in fact, are not common enough to be classified as lexical bundles; expressions such as *give me a break* and *drive me up the wall* are "rarely attested in natural speech or writing" (Biber & Barbieri, 2007:270). It is therefore unlikely that an examination of frequently-occurring lexical bundles, whether in spoken or in written language, is likely to reveal many idiomatic expressions.

Another characteristic of lexical bundles is that they rarely compose a complete structural unit; a study by Biber et al. (1999, in Biber, 2006a) revealed that just 15% of conversational lexical bundles represented complete phrases or clauses, while less than 5% of lexical bundles in academic prose could be described as complete structural units. In other words, the majority of lexical bundles are themselves incomplete and therefore usually bridge two structural units, beginning at a phrase or clause boundary, with the last words of the bundle representing the first element of a second structural unit (Biber, 2006b). This does not mean that any sequence of four words is valid, however. Only uninterrupted sequences of words are considered lexical bundles; any unit which crosses a turn boundary or a punctuation mark would be excluded (Biber et al., 2003).

A common thread that runs through much of the leading research into lexical bundles (Cortes, 2004; Biber et al., 2004; Allen, 2009; Byrd & Coxhead, 2010; Chen & Baker, 2010; Csomay, 2012; Hyland, 2008a and 2008b) is the analysis of lexical bundles in terms of structural types. Following from the principle that lexical bundles "have strong grammatical correlates, even though they are not usually complete structural units" (Biber et al., 2004, p.308). The structural type is based on the identification of the primary grammatical element within each bundle, as illustrated in the examples of 4-word bundles in Table 2.1 below:

Table 2.1Structural Type of Lexical Bundles (Biber et al, 1999)

Structural type	Example
Noun phrase with post-modifier fragment	the nature of the
Preposition + noun phrase fragment	as a result of
Anticipatory <i>it</i> + VP/adjective (+complement clause)	it is possible to
Passive verb + PP fragment	is based on the

(v	erb +) <i>that</i> -clause fragment	are likely to be

Biber et al. (1999) initially identified 14 categories of structural types in conversation, and 12 categories of structural types in academic prose, with some overlap between the two sets. Biber et al. (2004) then regrouped these categories into three main types according to core grammatical features, either clausal (Types 1 and 2) or phrasal (Type 3).

Type 1 comprises verb phrase fragments (e.g. it's going to be, you know this is), type 2 comprises dependent clause fragments (e.g. I want you to) in addition to simple verb phrase fragments beginning with a complementizer or a subordinator (e.g. if we look at, to be able to). Moreover, type 3 comprises noun phrase or prepositional phrase fragments (e.g. the end of the, of the things that), in addition to comparative expressions (e.g. as well as the).

Then, Biber et al.'s (2004) revised the structural categories initially developed in 1999 is based simply on three major grammatical classes namely 1) lexical bundles that incorporate verb phrase fragments such as *is based on the*; 2) lexical bundles that incorporate dependent clause fragments like *I want you to*. And, 3) lexical bundles that incorporate noun phrase and prepositional phrase fragments such as *at the end of*. It contains a number of sub-types, adding up to 17 structural categories in total. To illustrate, the structural type of this lexical bundles are listed in Table 2.2.

Structural Types	Sub-Types		Sample Bundles
	1.a	$1^{st}/2^{nd} PP + VP fragment$	I'm not going to
Lexical	1.b	3^{rd} person pronoun + VP fragment	and this is a
bundles that	1.c	Discourse marker + VP fragment	I mean I don't
incorporate	1.d	Verb phrase	have a lot of
verb phrase	1.e	Verb phrase with passive verb	is based on
fragments	1.f	Yes-no question fragments	are you going to
	1.g	WH-question fragments	what do you think
Lexical	2.a	$1^{st}/2^{nd}$ PP + dependent clause frag.	I don't know what
bundles that	2.b	WH-clause fragment	when we get to
incorporate	2.c	<i>If</i> -clause fragment	if we look at
dependent	2.d	(Verb/adjective+) to-clause frag.	to be able to
clause frag.	2.e	That-clause fragment	that this is a
T ' 1	3.a	NP with <i>of</i> -phrase frag.	the end of the
Lexical	3.b	NP with other post-modifier frag.	the way in which
bundles that	3.c	Other noun phrase expressions	a little bit more
incorporate NP/PP frag.	3.d	Prepositional phrase expressions	at the end of
191711 IIag.	3.e	Comparative expressions	as well as

Table 2.2Structural Types of Lexical Bundles (Biber et al.,'s, 2004)

According to the structural classification, there are three main structural types identified by Biber et al., (2004). Firstly, lexical bundles that incorporate verb phrase fragments are divided into seven sub-categories: 1.a and 1.b) beginning with a subject pronoun followed by a verb phrase (e.g., I am not going to). 1. c) beginning with a discourse marker followed by a verb phrase (e.g. and this is a). 1. d and 1.e) beginning with a verb phrase (e.g. is based on), as well as 1.f and 1.g) beginning with a WH-question fragment (e.g. what do you think).

The second structural types which incorporate dependent clause fragments are sub-classified as 2.a) beginning with a pronoun followed by dependent clause fragment (e.g. I want you to). 2. b) introducing with a WH-clause (e.g. when we get to). 2.c) if clause (e.g. if we look at), as well as 2.d and 2.e) beginning with a complementizer or subordinate (e.g. to be able to). Finally, the third type of structural bundles tends to have casual components: 3.a-3.c) consisting of noun phrases (e.g. one of the things, the way in which). 3.d) consisting of prepositional phrases (e.g. at the end of) and 3.e) incorporating with a comparative expression (e.g. as well as the). This is the last taxonomy will be employed for the analysis of structural types in my study.

2.2.4 Teachers' Talk

Language is the 'center of what happens in the classroom'. Indeed, it can be said that the classroom is a 'universe of language' (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1994 cited in Victoria, 2012, p.35) where what is taught and learnt is done through spoken or written discourse. As an indispensable part of second/foreign language teaching, the language employed by teachers in language classes is served as the source of language knowledge input. Nunan (1991, p.189) asserts:

Teacher talk is of crucial importance, not only for the organization of the classroom but also for the processes of acquisition. It is important for the organization and management of the classroom because it is through language that teachers either succeed or fail in implementing their teaching plans. In terms of acquisition, teacher talk is important because it is probably the major source of comprehensible target language input the learner is likely to receive.

According to SLA theory, plenty of and high-quality input is the necessary element for successful language learning. There is no learning without input. "If the second language is learnt as a foreign language in a language class in a non-supportive environment, the instruction is likely to be the major or even the only source of target language input" (Stern, 1983, p.400). Here instruction refers to teacher instruction - teacher talk. Apparently, Harmer (2007) implied that students learn from the teacher's talk. That is the reason why the teacher is expected to know how to talk to students and adjust the language which is used because teacher's talk gives a chance for students to hear the language which they more or less understand.

Having studies the SLA for many years, Ellis (1985, p.145) has formulated his own view about teacher talk:

"Teacher talk is the special language that teachers use when addressing L2 learners in the classroom. there is a systematic simplification of the formal properties of the teacher's language ... studies of teacher talk can be divided into those that investigate the type of language that teachers use in the language classroom and those that investigate in the type of language they use in subject lessons."

He also commented, the language that teachers address to the L2 learner is treated as a register, with its own specific formal linguistics properties.

This research focused on the oral form of teacher talk instead of writing form. It refers to the language that teachers use in language classrooms rather than in other settings. From Ellis' point of view above, firstly we can see that teachers; talk in English classroom is regarded as one special variety of the English language, so it has its own specific features which other varieties do not share. Because of the restriction of the physical setting, special participants, as well as the goal of teaching, teacher talk has its own special style. Secondly, we can see that teacher talk is a special communicative activity. Its goal is to communicate with students and develop students' FL proficiency.

In Indonesian context, the objective of teaching English under the 2013 curriculum is to develop students' communicative competency in English both oral and written language (Permendikbud, 2016). According to Richard and Rodgers (2007), communicative competence is the ability in using the language for any purposes, knowing the variety use of language based on the background of the interlocutor, knowing how to keep the conversation going on by using communication strategy though with limited knowledge of language understanding.

Thus, to realize those expectations in the classroom, teachers' talk as the source of language input should be integrated with communicative competence and its subcompetence namely discourse competence, linguistic competence sociocultural competence, strategic competence, formulaic competence, and interactional competence (Celce-Murcia, 2007). In addition, the importance of teacher's talk and its instructional components have been implied by Stern (1983) who claims that the language teacher's capability of teaching is determined by language background, previous language teaching experience and formulated theoretical presuppositions about language learning and teaching. All these mentioned characteristics can affect the quality and effectiveness of teacher's talk, which is regarded as language source input.

2.2.5 Summary

As an indispensable part of second/foreign language teaching, teachers' talk in English language classes is served as a potentially valuable source of comprehensible input for the learner. Thus, language instruction used by the English teachers should provide an appropriate model of language usage for the students. In Indonesian setting, the purpose of teaching English as a foreign language under the 2013 curriculum is to develop students' communicative competency both oral and written language (Permendikbud, 2016). Therefore, teachers' talk must be integrated with the communicative competence and its subcompetence such as actional and formulaic competences.

Actional competence entails the speaker's capacity for performing and understanding language functions. The frequency of language functions in real life communication has resulted in highly conventionalized forms, fixed phrases and formulaic expression in every language (Celce-Murcia et al., 1995). In other word, language functions are typically associated with conventionalized formulaic routines. Consequently, the teachers need to build up a repertoire of such phrases in their talk to be able to perform language function effectively.

Seeing the relationship between language functions and formulaic routines/expression, Celce-Murica (2007) added a new component of communicative competence was formulaic competence. Formulaic competence is the ability to use fixed or prefabricated chunks which commonly used by native speakers in everyday life (Celce-Murica, 2007). Formulaic competence underinvestigated in this study was lexical bundles because those are a recurring sequence of three or more words that appear frequently in natural discourse, either oral or written (Biber et al., 2004). Thus, the teachers must know enough about actional and formulaic competences to choose appropriate utterance in the given situation in order to provide an appropriate model of language functions and lexical bundles in teachers' talk for students in English acquisition.

2.3 Theoretical Framework

Based on the theoretical bases explained above, it can be known that teachers' talk as the source of language input in the classroom should be integrated with communicative competence and its sub-competencies. Thus, the theoretical framework of this study is displayed in figure 2.1.

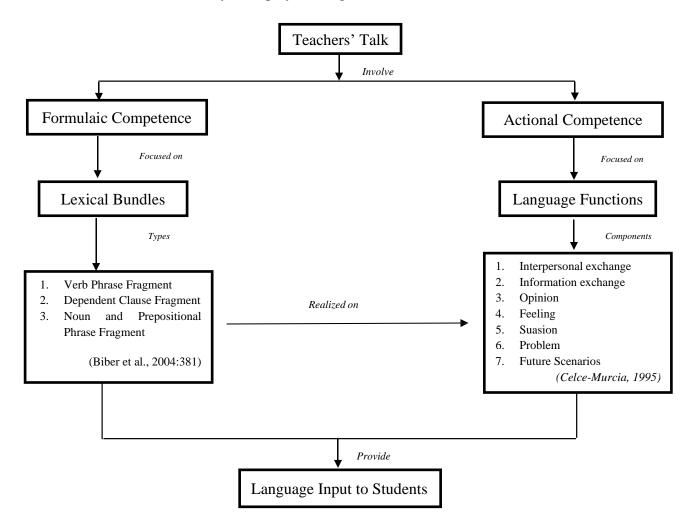


Figure 2.2 Theoretical Framework of the Present Study

This study focused on the realization of actional and formulaic competences as subcomponent of communicative competence in teachers' talk. Actional Competence theory from Celce-Murcia (2007) used in this study which focused on seven types of language functions are an interpersonal exchange, information exchange, opinions, feelings, suasion, problems and future scenarios (Celce-Murcia et al., 1995). Then, formulaic competence in term of lexical bundles which proposed by Biber et al. (2004) is also used. Those are guidance in seeing how language functions and lexical bundles realized in teachers' talk in the purpose of answering the research questions.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

This chapter provides the conclusions of the study then discusses pedagogical implications and associated recommendations for classroom implementation. Limitations of the study are then considered, and suggestions for possible further research presented.

5.1 Conclusions

Based on the research questions that have been stated in the previous chapter, there are three conclusions to be drawn. Firstly, after analyzing the realization of actional competence in terms of language function in teachers' talk, it was found that in interpersonal exchanges, the English teachers performed their competence by performing a greeting, leave-taking, introducing someone, expressing gratitude, giving compliment and reacting to interlocutor speech. For information exchanges competence, the sub-categories were produced by the teachers namely asking for and giving information, remembering, and giving explanation.

Meanwhile, throughout the analysis of the data, only one category of expressing opinion performed by the teachers was expressing and finding out about opinion. The next competence was expressing feeling, it was performed by the participants in form of expressing like, dislike, and disappointing. In case of expression of suasion, the sub-categories performed by the teacher were also varied. They include giving suggestion, requesting, instructing, advising, encouraging, and granting permission. Then, expression of problem was also performed by the teachers that spread out in the sub-categories of forgiving, apologizing and regretting. The last, in line with sub-categories of future scenarios expression, the teachers performed this competence in terms of expressing hope/wishes, expressing plans/intentions, and discussing the possibility and capability of doing something. From the realization of language functions above, there are five sub-categories of language functions which were mostly occurred in the teachers' talk namely asking for information, giving instruction, explaining, and complementing.

Secondly, related to the realization of lexical bundles in teachers' talk, it can be concluded that lexical bundles mainly contained verb phrase along with dependent clauses. In contrast, lexical bundles that incorporate noun phrase and preposition fragments accounted for only a small proportion of lexical bundles. This finding aligns with the findings of previous researchers where that academic speech primarily comprises more lexical bundles with verb and clause fragments, while academic writing reported using more bundles incorporating noun and prepositional phrase fragments

Dealing with the relationship between actional and formulaic competences, this study reveals that the frequency of language functions used has resulted in highly conventionalized forms, fixed phrases, and formulaic expression. In simple word, each social move or language functions, there is a stock potential expression (lexical bundles) on it. Such as language function of asking questions are associating with "Yes-no question fragments" such as *do you want* ...?, *are you going* ...? and "WH-question fragments" such as *how do you* ...?, *what are you* ...?. Language functions

of giving opinion, suggesting, requesting are comprised of $1^{st}/2^{nd}$ PP + VP fragments lexical bundles such as *you need to ..., you have to ..., you'd better* Thus, the teachers need to choose from such a stock those phrases (lexical bundles) most appropriate for a given situation.

5.2 Pedagogical implications

Based on the conclusions and building on previous studies of language functions and lexical bundles, it known that these formulaic expressions are so frequently used by the teachers in their talk, we might assume that students will naturally acquire them and, consequently, that there is no need for them to be overtly taught. However, it is necessary to expose the students to more samples of spoken language in all environments and not only to instructional approaches.

Furthermore, linguistics experts have proposed some major pedagogical frameworks in introducing lexical bundles effectively in L2 teaching curricula (Willis, 1990, Lewis, 1993; Nattinger & DeCarrico, 1992). Although it found that those frameworks inadequate to some extent. Thus, it is suggested that teachers should draw attention to bundles in class materials and propose that some explicit instruction should be provided. However, there is still raised the issue in the teaching and learning of lexical bundles is the selection of the lexical bundles to be taught. Further attention should be drawn on the criterion of selecting the bundles to be taught; however, their function in discourse could also be a good factor to be taken into account.

Another point to be considered in teaching lexical bundles is effective teaching methodologies. Some previous studies have suggested different methods for teaching formulaic expression such as two-step approach (pattern drills to improve the learners' fluency, followed by a slot-and-filler approach to variation) and an awareness-raising, a term which does not only refer to individual words, but also to multi-word strings such as collection, lexical bundles and so on. But, some pedagogical intervention studies on the success of teaching of formulaic expression, including lexical bundles, have returned mixed results.

Those mixed results such as the learners did not show major gains in the acquisition of these sequences but did seem more motivated and more likely to use these expressions. Another result, no increase in the use of lexical bundles in student writing after a series of micro-lessons introducing the use of bundles. However, it revealed that the students had an increased interest and awareness in lexical bundles following the intervention. The implication of these previous studies appears to be that there is a yet no consensus on the most effective method for teaching lexical bundles or others formulaic expression.

However, the existing studies may indicate that more research needs to be done in order to discover more effective methods of teaching this formulaic expression, particularly lexical bundles. Consequently, teachers also need to consider this issue. It is possible that a combination of teaching strategy may be the most effective method of ensuring that learners have the best chance of obtaining usable lexical bundles and also to carefully choose the appropriate expressions for particular situations and particular people.

And the last implication, seeing there is a relationship between actional and formulaic competence in teachers' talk, where language functions which are occupied teachers' talk in teaching activity include many set phrases (lexical bundles), thus it needs attention. The teachers must know enough about it to choose appropriate utterances in a given situation as the model for the students. Thus, it needs to maintain a balance: the teachers are not only focused on grammar and pronunciation but also mastery vocabulary and stock phrases/lexical bundles for performing appropriate language function. Because mastering only vocabulary and phrases for speech acts without appropriate knowledge of and focus on grammar and pronunciation will result in fluent but inaccurate and therefore limited oral competence. Mastering only grammar and phonology results in linguistically accurate but socially dysfunctional oral communication.

5.3 Recommendation

I have highlighted some recommendations that may be considered by the practitioners and authority concerned and administrative bodies. First, the teachers involved pair-chatting and group working strategy in teaching English in the classroom. However, as mentioned earlier, asking question became the most frequent of language function appeared in the teachers' talk. It indicates that the teacher still dominated in the classroom and the teachers' instruction in order to guide the students doing the given assignment was not optimal, thus the teachers still applied teacher-centered approach.

It suggested that the teachers should give clear instruction to their students as well as making sure they understand each instruction. The teacher also could use practical teaching materials/strategy optimally that can promote and encourage efficient language learning such as role-play, gallery walk, etc. By doing so, the teacher-centered classroom would shift into the student-centred classroom. The student-centered classroom can provide more opportunities for students to practice the target language, thus can better prompt English language learning and teaching.

The finding of this study also revealed that ungrammatical speech (*-it* deletion and embedded question usage) and incomplete sentences occurred in the teachers' talk in the English classroom. Whereas, good learner performance depends on the teacher. "errors in the input may be acquired by listeners." (Krashen, 1985, p. 9). Thus, the teachers are sources of input for their students, because "everything the teacher does provide the learner with opportunities for encountering the language" (Cook, 2000, p.129). This research recommends the English teachers should focus on the quality of their talk and find appropriate forms of their talk to provide optimal samples of language for the students.

The English teachers could participate regularly in English training program in order to gain more knowledge and English skills. Further, the school also can set up such as a program or even provide an opportunity for English teachers to attend an extra English training course outside of the school. It will promote the development of oral and written language skills, and in consequence, will result in overall language improvement in both the teachers and students.

This study is expected to give English teachers an insight into language teaching especially on the language phenomena related to actional competence in terms of language functions. It is advisable for English teachers to use English optimally and teach the students the importance of language functions so that the students are aware of how language should be used. It does not mean that teachers should teach language functions as a science. Instead, teachers are recommended to incorporate authentic language-use activities for suitable language learning situations that can promote the students' awareness as well as develop their actional competence as sub-components of communicative competence. Therefore, the students will acquire not only the forms of the language through their learning experience but also they can utter the sentence forms to perform various language functions contextually and appropriately.

Practical recommendation to administrators and educators in universities concern with ESP course curriculum design especially Speaking for Instructional Purposes course in English Education Program might equip the teaching material with actional and formulaic competences. Developing the teaching materials do not only focused on language as a system where the university students as future English teacher only emphasize on grammar and pronunciation of the target language. However, a communicative focus, relating to this study, the teaching materials should involve various language functions that contain many set phrases (lexical bundles) based on the situation in which that language is used. It can guide them to be appropriately and politely use the language in communication.

5.4 Limitations

There are several limitations were identified in this present study. One of the limitations is this study was carried out with three language teachers at Senior High School level through spoken discourse analysis of their talk in the classroom setting. Yet, since the result can change in the different level of school with a different setting, it may not be possible to generalize the findings of the study. Another

limitation of the study is that even though the participants performed language functions and lexical bundles through their talk, it is not obvious whether those are taught in the classroom. Therefore, the use of language functions and lexical bundles by the participants may not be based on the assumption that they are taught in the classroom.

The methodology used in conducting this study could also be considered as a limitation where the study did not investigate the effectiveness of actional and formulaic competences in the teachers' talk. It described these teachers' competencies which were realized in their speech production but not how effective they are in facilitating students' language acquisition. There may also be a limitation by only claiming the importance of focusing on the language functions and lexical bundles which was realized in teachers' talk in English language classrooms since, as Halliday (1978, p.2) points out, "language does not consist of sentences; it consists of text, or discourse – the exchange of meanings in interpersonal contexts of one kind or another".

It is significant to remember that the language is always used with people, who have their own feelings, opinions, culture, and backgrounds, in a particular situation for a particular purpose. The language needs to be carefully and thoughtfully used in order to establish a certain relationship with other people. One of the problems in Indonesian classrooms may be that teachers have forgotten this simple fact in a country where English is not really used, and this issue was not treated sufficiently in this thesis. But, the objective of this study did not cover the issues of where with whom and how learners can use the language functions and lexical bundles they have acquired during the teaching and learning process.

5.5 Suggestions for Further Research

Depending on the findings and the limitations of the study, suggestions can be made for future research. The findings of this study may only apply to the participants and situations involved in this research, and thus further research is required to assess the extent to which these findings are generalizable across the region. This research opens up further areas of research investigation which have not been as prominent in classroom research until now. This difference can lead to a more detailed study of teachers' talk and teacher's competence which is applicable to and effective in the context of English language classrooms at different levels.

In this study, formulaic competence which was realized in teachers' talk was focused only on lexical bundles. Future studies might well consider other categories of formulaic competence such as insert, idioms, and collocations to be used in order to collect comprehensive data. Another suggestion, the methodology of analysis used in this study can be used as the foundation to investigate not only actional and formulaic competences realization as the component of communicative competence but also six components of communicative competence in teaching English in EFL classroom and to investigate the realization among those components. Moreover, the investigation might yield different results if students in the classes are surveyed and interviewed as well. This inclusion would allow for a comparison of what teachers and students think about language functions and lexical bundles which was realized in teachers' talk. Then, the data on teachers' talk in this study were audio recordings of three Indonesian teachers which are essentially spoken English as a foreign language. Future recommendations would be to compare teachers in other parts of the world that use English as a first/second language in constructing their teaching and investigating various factors influencing the realization of language functions and lexical bundles in their talk.

Another area of further research is needed to use different discourse as the unit of analysis, especially the ones involving written discourse. For instance, investigating the realization of actional and formulaic competences in an English textbook, or research articles in any discipline. It will build larger corpora in order to lead a more accurate analysis and more generalizable findings. Additionally, another direction for future research involves experimental design. Such a study could address the crucial issues of effectiveness and comprehensibility of teachers' talk in relation to the students' output.

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