POWER RELATIONS OF NON-NATIVE ENGLISH TEACHERS AND THEIR STUDENTS IN THE CLASSROOM

Sudar

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ABSTRAK

Penelitian ini berkenaan dengan hubungan kekuasaan antara guru bahasa Inggris domestik dengan siswanya di dalam kelas. Tujuan penelitian ini adalah memaparkan hubungan kekuasaan guru bahasa Inggris domestik dengan siswanya di dalam kelas. Data penelitian ini berupa ujaran yang menunjukkan hubungan kekuasaan yang diambil dari Sembilan sekolah di menengah atas di Kabupaten Purworejo. Data dikumpulkan lewat observasi dan dokumentasi dan dianalisis menggunakan wacana kritis. Hasil penelitian menunjukan bahwa: (1) guru bahasa Inggris domestik lebih berkuasa dalam hal mengungkapkan unit pesan; (2) guru dan siswa di lima sekolah menengah atas memiliki kekuasaan yang seimbang dalam menggunakan giliran; (3) dalam berinisiasi guru bahasa Inggris domestik lebih berkuasa daripada siswanya; (4) berinisiasi tentang topik diskusi sepenuhnya dikuasai oleh guru bahasa Inggris domestik; (5) siswa dan guru bahasa Inggris domestik memiliki kekuasaan yang seimbang dalam merespon; dan (6) dalam menentukan penggunaan giliran, guru bahasa Inggris domestik lebih berkuasa. Simpulanya adalah guru bahasa Inggris domestik lebih berkuasa daripada siswanya di dalam kelas. Hal ini sangat dipengaruhi oleh budaya Indonesia.

Kata Kunci: *hubungan kekuasaan, guru bahasa Inggris domestik, siswa, ruang kelas.*

ABSTRACT

The current study deals with the Power Relations between non-native English teachers and their students in the classroom. The objectives of the study is to describe the Power Relations between non-native English teachers and their students in the classroom. The data are in the form of utterances showing Power Relations which are taken from nine senior high schools in Purworejo. The researcher used the critical discourse analysis to analyze the data. The research results are as the follows: (1) in term of message units performance, non-native English teachers were more powerful than their students; (2) in five senior high schools non-native English teachers and their students performed turn distribution equally; (3) in performing the initiation, non-native English teachers are more powerful than their students; (4) the initiation of discussion topic was fully done by non-native English teachers; (5) non-native English teachers and their students had equal right to response; (6) the determination of turn-taking activities was mostly

performed by non-native English teachers. In conclusion, non-native English teachers iunder the study were more powerful than their students in the classroom. It was much influenced by Indonesian culture.

Keywords: power relations, non-native English teachers, classroom.

INTRODUCTION

Fairclough associates language use with power and control. This section considers Fairclough's definitions of power. He points out that people make use of language to express their ideologies, self-images and status either explicitly or implicitly, Faircough (2010). It is owing to social interaction that we construct our own self-images and identities. The way we construct these self-images depends on who we are in relation to others. To Watts, "power is the potentiality the individual possesses in a social activity and social setting for relative freedom of thought and action (Watts, 1991: 54).

Power is the probability that someone will be able to carry out his or her will though there may be resistance. Power is an essential concept in discourse analysis. It is one those touchy terms that make people nervous. People often think power means the right to control or have access to goods and resources Rex and Schiller (2009: 35).

Two important aspects of social relatedness are expressed and created in discourse are power and solidarity. Power has to do with the respects in which relationships are asymmetrical, with some participants more able than other to shape what occur or how it is interpreted. Solidarity has to do with the relatively symmetrical aspects of human relationship, Tannen (1994) cited in Johnstone (2008: 5). Solidarity can be thought of as the counterpart of power in human relations: only in the text of mutual orientation to share knowledge, membership in common predefined social groupings, or joint activity, do negotiation about control arise. Human life is social; it takes place in the context of group of various size.

Let us begin the discussion of power in discourse with an example of the exercise of power in a type of 'face-to-face' discourse where participants are unequal- what we might call an unequal encounter. The following is an extract from a visit to a premature baby unit by a doctor (d) and a group of medical students (s), as part of the students' training program. A spaced dot indicates a short pause, a dash a longer pause, extended square brackets overlap, and parentheses talk which was not distinguishable enough to transcribe.

The idea of 'power behind discourse' is that the whole social order of discourse is put together as a hidden effect of power. In this section the researcher begins with just one dimension of this, standardization. Power behind discourse: a discourse type the researcher wants now to shift focus, still with reference to' power behind discourse' and look at particular discourse type as 'an effect of power'- as having conventions which embody particular power relations. Fairclough (2001) differentiates two types of power in terms of discourse. These are power in discourse and power behind discourse. The first type of power is enacted and exercised in face-to-face interaction (i.e. spoken discourse), while the second one is found in the discourse of mass media and is also a part of the discourse of institutions. Although the discussion of the media discourse is not directly relevant to the present research, it will be discussed here in order to make the distinction between the power in discourse and behind discourse clearer.

The main difference between face-to-face discourse and mass media discourse is as follows. In the former, participants are both producers and interpreters of texts. In the latter, on the other hand, there is a division between the role of the producer and interpreter. Fairclough (2001: 49) points out that the producers are writers, whereas the interpreters are readers. Discursive practices in mass media are said to be hidden. That is to say, power is exercised in implicit ways. To put it concretely, producers have to deliver only what they are told to do. There is a kind of control on the producers' freedom of publication.

According to Fairclough (2001: 50), power is exercised at three levels of social organizations: situational, institutional and societal. Any pieces of discourse should be interpreted as a part of a situational struggle, an institutional struggle or a societal struggle. Power relations are relations of struggle (Fairclough, 2001: 54). He means that individual and groups have different interests which make them engage with each other. He categorizes struggle at the situational level into 'power in discourse' and the other levels into 'power behind discourse'.

To support his categorization, Fairclough (2001: 56) refers to conversations between women and men, in which women use minimal responses such as *mmm, really, yeah* etc. He interpreted these features as indicating the supportive position of the participants in a natural conversation: but from the institutional and societal terms, they can be seen as markers which show "a tendency for women to be cast as supporting players in interaction" (Fairclough, 2001: 137). Fairclough's above distinction is relevant to our discussion of how the classroom practices, as an example of the institutional practice, shapes and is shaped by the social one. Take for instance, face-to-face interaction between a doctor and a patient. The relation of power lies at the moment of the medical examination. It is usually reflected in the type of discourse employed by both the doctor and the patient. This type of situational practice between doctors and patients is part of the social practice. Hence there is a dialectical relation between the institutional and social practice.

The Hidden Power: Hidden power happens not only in mass media: the nature of power relations is invisible in general. It is often hidden in discourse. Powerful participants often restrict and control the contributions of those who are non-powerful (Fairclough, 2001: 46-49). According to Fairclough, there are three types of such constraints: those on content, interpersonal relations and subject (2001: 46). At the level of content, powerful people have the upper hand in what is said or done. The second constraint is concerned with interpersonal relations. Participants exploit or make use of their social roles and status to dominate practices and to prevent powerless people from taking part in them. The third constraint concerns the participants' roles in discourse. Powerful people tend to be at the centre of discourse and play a main role in discourse, whereas powerless people tend to serve a marginal role. In classroom discourse, as will be discussed in detail in later chapters, the teachers have a choice of actions, from asking questions to interrupting their students. The latter, however, serve only a secondary role in the classroom. Their roles are restricted to responding to the teachers' demands.

Power as a Product: It is viewed as a commodity, an object: measurable thing that one person has over another or more of then another. Money, physical strength, and weapons, are prototypical examples as having larger quantities of these commodities may place a person or a group in apposition to coerce others. If power is viewed as a commodity, then it can be given, received, transferred, traded, and taken away. For the definition of power as product to be grounded- that is, to have validity within the context of people's lives- people must act, value, feel, believe,

think, and use language in ways defined as rational within the paradigm of a market economy. When power and literacy are viewed as quantifiable commodities, empowering others comes to mean that the "powerless" or "illiterate" can be "improved" by giving them skills or cultural capital to allow them to be more powerful. Power can be taken away: people can be left illiterate and powerless.

Literacy education can be denied to someone's or some group's children. From the perspective of power as product, questions about literacy can be asked regarding who has what literacy skills, which provides or denies access to literacy skills, and what one needs to do to gain access to literacy skills. Questions of equity and social justice revolve around questions of the distribution of literacy skills and who controls access to them (Bloom, 2005: 161).

Power as Process: Another model of power is the process model, which takes the view that power varies among and between contexts rather than being a static product. Power can be viewed as a set of relations among people and among social institution that may shift from one situation to another. In addition, power is not something accumulated (like money or weapons) as much as it is a structuration of interpersonal relations, events, institutions, and ideologies (Giddens, and Van Dijk (1996) cited in Bloom (2005: 162). The locus of power, therefore, is not an individual or group per se but the processes that structure relationships among people. From this perspective, power is always contested and dialogic. Each action is the process of bargaining and compromise, all parties contribute to the process of power, and ultimately we are all part of the human network (Bloom, (2005: 162).

According to this definition of power, power relations are an inherent part of any set of social and cultural practices and, as such, those power relations are integral parts of our daily lived experiences. Thus, power is a process that characterizes virtually all social relationships, both among individuals and among larger social units (Bloom, 2005: 163).

Consider, for example, classroom in which reading achievement is evaluated by students demonstrating achievement on a predetermined set of hierarchically ordered skills. power by defining who is who (good reader vs. bad reader), and how cultural capital (reading skills) can be transformed into symbolic status (e.g., designations that range from valedictorian to high school graduate) and economic status (Bloom, 2005: 163).

Power also lies of surveillance and of the policing of teachers, students, and the school (Bloom, 2005: 163), as well as through the discourse of access and the manufacturing of consent, (Van Dijk,1996) cited in Bloom (2005).

An important aspect of the power-as-process model is the naturalization of a discourse and a culture. A word, symbol, language, or way of doing things becomes an integral part of a culture, so much so that it is taken as common or shared, and people who are ignorant of its "common news" are seen as not having common sense. This hegemony of discourse privileges some words, languages, and cultural by making them appear natural or commonplace while at the same time marginalizing others words, languages, and cultures by making them appear unnatural and not having common sense. From the perspective of power as process, control comes in the form of information and knowledge, not as a quantity but as an interpretative framework- what is sometimes called a discourse or paradigm- for defining and acting in the world that pushes out other ways of interpreting and acting, thinking, feeling, believing, and knowing.

There are a series of discussion about power and social relationships that seem to us sufficiently distinguished from the preceding discussions of power to warrant a separate section, although one could reasonably argue that they fall within the power- as-process model (Bloom, 2005: 164).

Power of Norm: In addition to the power of social relations, Foucault refers to another genre of power which he calls the power of the norm. This means that practices involving power relations are viewed as a part of the norm. They are legitimized and generally accepted by the society involved. Therefore, exerting power over others is interpreted as part of norms and conventions. These norms are a reflection of the preference of the dominant groups and are adopted as universal norms by social institutions, such as schools, Fairclough reinforce the same point, stating that:

> *The power of the norm, once established, is that it is used to judge individuals who have been located along its linear scale. Deviations from the norm are regarded with alarm. Parents who are told that their child is two standard deviation from the norm on some behavioral scale are led to believe that he or she is abnormal and should be adjusted in some way to psychometrics Procrustean bed* (1995: 149).

This quotation asserts that power relations are regarded as a part of the social norm. These power relations are legitimized by the wider society. Resisting power means, to some people, deviating from the norms of the society.

Power of Social Relations: Before going on to discuss how human relations are invested with power, we would like to introduce some of the ideas from Foucault's work on discursive practices and power relations and consider their applicability to the classroom. Foucault (1995) states that power is exist in human practices. This kind of power can only be detected through the analysis of people's actions and discursive practices. What is notable about Foucault's above definition is that it brings together relations between individuals and between groups. These power relations are covert.

The power relations reside in individuals and groups' actions and practices. Power is seen here as a possession of both individuals and groups. People are aware of how they participate in power relationships. Individuals like inmates in prison, Foucault states, are aware that their behaviour is subject to control and surveillance. However, they are not sure when this control and surveillance will occur. Foucault (1995) regards discourse to be a mode of social action. It is through discursive practices and social actions that power relations are revealed and enacted. He describes discursive practice as an action determined in a specific period of time and in a specific setting. Discursive practices are constituted by the actions of members and their interactions with each other.

The above-mentioned ideas of Foucault motivate us to look at the classroom as a context of discursive practice, which shapes and is shaped by social practice. They also lead us to consider how both teachers and students' attitudes within the lesson are reflected in their practice.

A Metaphor of Power Relationships: The metaphors we can use in understanding our experiences can often have important effect in shaping that understanding, Lakoff and Johnson (1980) cited in Manke (1997: 5). Traditional metaphors for power in classrooms have named the teachers as autocratic ruler, drill sergeant, factory manager, and leader in battle: students have been called subjects, recruits, laborers, soldiers.

> *Power's being is becoming. Its steady existence is deriving from ceaseless shifts and tensions; its balance is maintained by thrust and response, hope and frustration, and by the practical actions that grow out of compromises and confrontations among its myriad human components.* (Manke, 1997: 6).

The process of developing and extending this metaphor has shaped and expressed his thinking about teachers and students interacting in classrooms. The mutuality of the power relations of teacher and students, the extent to which they may at times agree, disagree, or be out of touch as to their goals, and the constant process of change and effort that is characteristic of classroom life. The researcher highlights four key ideas about classroom power derived from the literature on power and interaction that have significantly influenced the understanding of power discussed in this text: (1) Power belongs to both teacher and students. Just as teachers have interactional resources that affect how students act, students use their own resources to shape teacher's behavior; (2) Human interaction creates a context in which further interaction occurs. The actions of participants are shaped by the actions of those around them-both teachers and students; (3) Teachers and students bring their own agendas to the classroom- agendas with potential for significant conflict. For their own reasons, they often conceal these agendas beneath a public shared agenda of cooperation or perhaps beneath some other shared agenda; and (4) Some of the resources teachers and students use as they build a structure of power relations can be found in the area of discourse: teachers and students choose from an array of interactional resources as they construct classroom power relationships (Manke, 1997: 7).

Power is often discussed in studies of classroom language and literacy events either directly of by reference to related topics such as equity, democracy, freedom, justice, racism, classism, homophobia, sexism, and so forth. What is meant by power is often vague, under theorized, or left as an unacknowledged empty sign. We begin by discussing three models for defining power, and then we argue for a reflective stance in the micro ethnographic analysis of power relations in classroom language and literacy events. Finally, we examine the complexities of power relations in classroom language and literacy. Further discussion of multiple definitions of power can be found in street (Bloom, 2005: 159).

A Model of Power as Carrying Relations: There also requires a reconceptualization of personhood and community. A foreground is the notions that inherent to a person are emotional, caring connections to others and that these emotion, caring connections are neither frivolous nor optional: neither are they vacuous in the sense of not having implications for action (e.g., teaching and learning). Indeed, they are realized through action. In a similar manner, a community not only consists of shared goals, a location, a network, or histories but also implies a set of caring relationships that members have with each other. A classroom community requires a set of caring relations between teacher and student and among students (Bloom, 2005: 165).

With regard to language and literacy, viewed from the perspective of power as caring relations, questions are asked about the role of language and literacy practices in helping to establish caring relations and communities and how caring relations and communities define and enact language and literacy practices. Consequently, questions are asked about how language and literacy practices. Conversely, questions are asked about how language and literacy practices might alienate people from each other and strip them of affective dimensions. How do people use language and literacy practices when they place caring relations at the center of their social relationships?

Part of what is key to approaching literacy from the perspective of power as caring relations is what is fore grounded and what is back- grounded. For example, consider two classrooms in which both teachers are concerned with fostering caring relations among the students and with the students' comprehension skills.
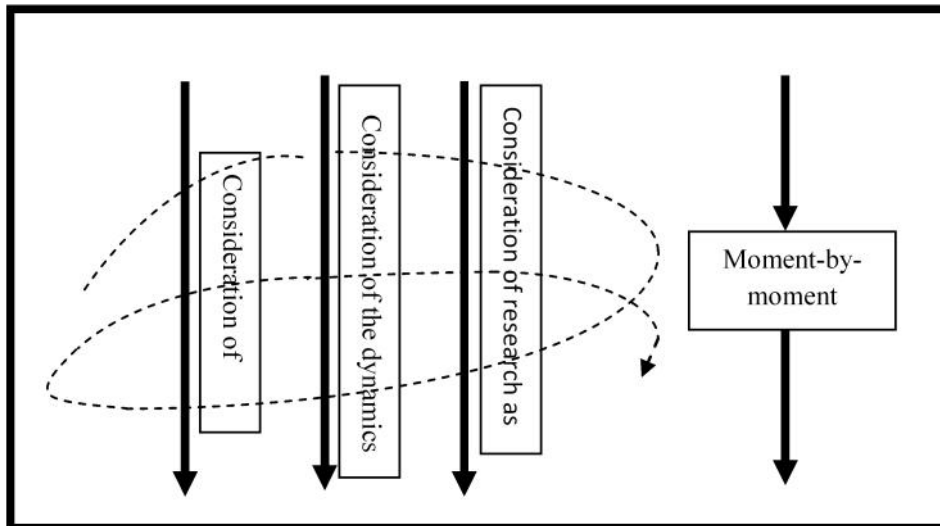
Fig.1.This is the design of recursive and reflexive analysis of power relations in an event (Bloom, 2005: 167)
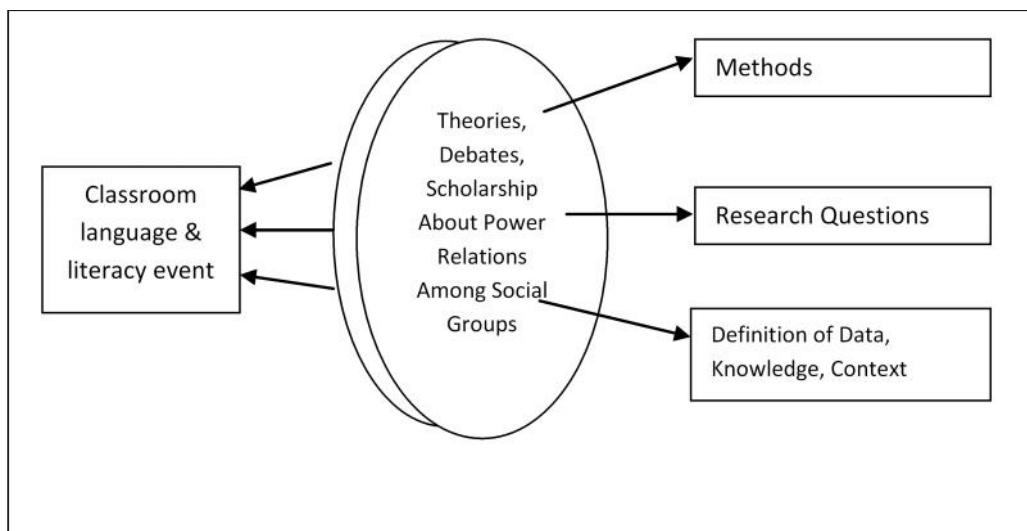

Fig.2. Framing methods, questions, and definitions through a power relations Lens, this is the design how to analyze the Power Relations in the classroom (Bloom, 2005: 188)

Power Relation in Classroom Discourse: We choose to take a different stance toward power. Rather than talking about classrooms and professional development settings as collecting of powerful individuals, let us think about power in a way that maintains relationships, sustains conversations, and built new knowledge. Imagine power circulating among members of a group who are interacting with one another.

In a classroom or a professional development setting, power is exchanged through social interaction. Power moves among speakers as they engage in learning. To clarify the circulation of power in group learning situations, we will analyze three related transcripts. Once again, we will provide the background that will help you read and we offer an interpretation of the transcripts (Rex

and Schiller,2009:36). Professional learning communities increasingly are advocated as the means for sustaining in-service teacher learning. Through analyzing interactive discourse, viewing the inter-personal social dynamics involved in creating and sustaining those communities becomes possible.

Circulating Power: learners' power in support of their learning may be thought of as independence, ownership, and self- efficacy. Power is not a possession. It circulates within the social conditions in which a person is acting. It's a movement of energy between teacher and learners who are working together. Interest, focus, persistence, awareness, engagement, and enthusiasm are essential energy generators that keep learning going. Interest and self- efficiency, and therefore learning of individual students and teachers, require continual refreshing (Rex and Schiller, 2009: 42).

Thornborrow (2002) points out that the theoretical aspect of power is a question that can take many forms, from being something that can be observed empirically to something that is mostly ideological. According to Thornborrow (2002), power can also be viewed in a quantitative manner, which is usually the case in more non-theoretical situations where there are different amounts of power that can be possessed and used. Thornborrow further argues that power can also be something qualitative when it is not so much the amount of power that is important and makes someone powerful, but it is the nature and the quality of the power that are more important in determining who is powerful.

The issue of power in a classroom setting can be seen as consisting of two different approaches to power. The institutional setting gives the teacher certain rights to ensure the learning of the students. At the same time, the power relations in a classroom are being constantly negotiated in the interaction between the individuals in the classroom (Thornborrow (2002) and Manke (1997). The theoretical view on power that is relevant to this study is to view power as a linguistic and interactional phenomenon and to see what power is and how it is constructed in discourse. To examine this interactional approach to power it is also necessary to explore the institutional power relations, since the institutional context cannot be overlooked when examining classroom discourse (Thornborrow, 2002). These two different approaches to classroom power relations will now be discussed in more detail to see how they contribute to the study of students' power in the classroom.

Our culture envisions, teachers have power and students do not. This understanding is part of the cultural knowledge that students and teachers bring to school. Because "everyone knows" that teachers have power, not only are many of our practical ideas about classrooms, students and teachers based on this "general knowledge" but its implications affect many areas of educational thought (Hustler and Payne, 1982) cited in Manke (1997: 2).

Institutional power: When issues of power in a classroom are at issue, a wider perspective of social hierarchies surrounding the 'mini-society' of the classroom has to be taken into consideration. According to Fairclough (1989), discourse should be viewed based on the institutional conventions in that situation, structured by wider social norms and beliefs about power relations. Fairclough (1989) further argues that there are power relations in the surrounding society, which have an impact on discourse and interaction that people are not always even aware of, and these hierarchies and relations have an effect on the institutional power relations that are sometimes clearly determined and stated, like in schools, or in situations which are not normally seen as institutional settings like a family meeting, but are still shaped by certain norms or intrinsic rules of 'proper' conduct. Classroom power relations can thus be seen as a multidimensional phenomenon of institutional and social relations of power that are then enacted in classroom discourse.

Power in classroom discourse has often been regarded as something that is rather restricted by the norms the classroom setting poses to the teacher and the students. The teacher has traditionally been seen as the one who has the power in the classroom and can therefore dominate classroom interaction. The effect that the institutional setting in the classroom has on classroom interaction is pointed out by van Lier (1996: 157). Within a setting such as the school, the power does not in the first instance come from the language itself, but rather it is an institutional power which is embodied in the language and given to the persons who carry out the institutional tasks.

The teacher is the one who is supposed to carry out the institutional task in the classroom, i.e. the teaching of students. The school as an institution provides the teacher a position where he/she has more power in the classroom than the students and can decide on the curricular topics that will be taught. The teacher's superior institutional position is established to ensure the learning by the students.

The classroom is indeed an institutional setting and therefore the interaction between a teacher and a student has certain characteristics that would not seem natural e.g. in a conversation between two friends. The distinction between institutional discourse and 'natural' social discourse is not, however, that easy to make as one might assume. Thornborrow (2002) points out, even though institutional discourse is often separated from non-institutional discourse based on the equality and inequality between the participants in the interaction, the individuals taking part in non-institutional discourse may still often have unequal stances to power. According to Levinson (1995), there are, however, certain features that separate institutional discourse from non-institutional discourse. Levinson (1995) states that institutional discourse has a specific goal, it poses certain constraints to what can be seen as contributing to that specific goal and it provides the unique circumstances based on which the speakers will interpret and handle talk in that institutional setting. Examining classroom interaction through these distinguishing features, the goal of classroom interaction is the learning by the students and the teacher's and students' talk should be organized so that it facilitates learning. In addition, both the teacher and the students are expected to respect the norms that guide classroom interaction even if it means that the rights to talk are more limited with some participants :students than with others the teacher.

Further, Thornborrow (2002:4) states that "… institutional discourse can be described as talk which sets up positions for people to talk from and restricts some speakers' access to certain kinds of discursive actions." This shows how indeed, the aspect of power as a "contextually relative phenomenon".

Interactional power: In addition to the institutional power relations in a classroom, power can be seen as being constructed in talk in the classroom. Thornborrow (2002: 7) points out, discourse can be seen as "an important site for both constructing and maintaining power relations". The division that van Lier (1996) makes between 'equality' and 'symmetry' in an institutional setting with its restrictions and rules clarifies the duality of classroom power relations. Van Lier (1996:175) resolves the dilemma of true teacher-student conversation as being impossible to achieve due to the institutional setting by making a distinction between 'equality' and 'symmetry'.

According to Van Lier (1996: 175), 'equality' refers to factors like status, role and age that are external to actual discourse. These factors often shape the social situation so that a person can be regarded as being more powerful or more important than another person in that setting. In the classroom these 'equality' factors would be determined by the institutional norms and constraints that

place the teacher in a more powerful position compared to the students. 'Symmetry', on the other hand, refers to the actual interaction and talk, Van Lier (1996:175) that is produced by the teacher and the students. Van Lier (1996: 175) concludes that 'symmetry' in classroom interaction can be achieved despite the institutional norms in the classroom. Thus, the teacher and the students can bring themselves to a more 'symmetrical' position through their interaction in terms of classroom power relations, even though the institutional setting would not place the participants in an 'equal' position.

Similar ideas have also been brought up in recent studies on classroom power relations. Thornborrow (2002) and Manke (1997) have both challenged the rather one-sided view of power relations in the classroom where only the institutional position is taken into consideration. Drawing on Focault's theory and idea of power, both Thornborrow and Manke see power relations in a classroom as being constantly changing and negotiated between all the participants in a classroom. They both argue that the teacher does not automatically control classroom interaction all the time and that power is rather being constantly negotiated in the interaction.

Understanding power as a matter of relationships implies that power in the classroom cannot be constructed by the teacher alone. How can one individual build relationships? They must be the work of all who participate – both teachers and students (Manke, 1997:2)

Both Thornborrow (2002) and Manke (1997: 3) acknowledge that the teacher has certain interactional rights and privileges in the classroom compared to the students because of his/her institutional position and role. In fact, they see those rules to be present in the classroom to give students the best possible opportunities for learning. However, neither Thornborrow nor Manke assumes that those rights would allow the teacher to hold the power in classroom interaction.

According to Manke (1997: 4), every individual brings his/her own needs, experiences and information to the classroom and together they build the interactional space in a classroom. She further stresses that even though interaction in a classroom is affected by the surrounding culture and society, curricula and institutional rules that shape the beliefs and thoughts of the individuals who act in the classroom, it is, however, the teacher and the students who only can make these rules reality through their actions in the classroom. Therefore, the power relations in a classroom define in their own part how these outside norms will be executed in any specific classroom.

Manke (1997: 6) points out that the teacher has the power to decide what kind of activities will be done, what material will be used and so forth, but that students have the power to shape these actions planned by the teacher with their own actions. All the participants in the classroom have their own 'agendas' that all affect the interaction and the power relations in the classroom. Thornborrow (2002:131) found that even though there are cases when the teacher can be seen as controlling the talk in the classroom, "in many instances it (power) can also be observed in the hands of the pupils." Candela (1999) has also pointed out different strategies that students can use to interfere with the teacher's plans. According to Manke (1997: 7), the teacher should accept the fact that students will and do make their own contributions to the power relations in the classroom even if the teacher tried to prevent it by exercising very tight control over classroom practices and classroom interaction. In fact, she emphasises that the teacher should not try to have a very tight control over the classroom at any cost, since it probably will not be possible for anyone to alone have the power in the classroom.

The teacher should preferably concentrate on building an atmosphere that will facilitate learning. Manke (1997: 135) points out, "… schooling – is about learning, not about behaviour control."

The purpose of this study is to examine students' power in classroom interaction, to view power as a linguistic and interactional phenomenon and to see what power is and how it is constructed in discourse. The definition of power in discourse and in interaction that the researcher will use in this study is the definition presented by Thornborrow (2002).

> ….*power is accomplished in discourse both on a structural level, through the turn and type of space speakers are given or can get access to, and, on an interactional level, through what they can effectively accomplish on that space (Thornborrow, 2002:8).*

Thornborrow (2002: 8) further points out that by linguistic means participants can try to "accomplish actions in talk", but it is the interactional context, including the actual talk and the changing relations that the participants have in the interaction along with the institutional settings that all determine the function and effects of the talk. Thus, all of these factors have to be taken into consideration when examining the power relations in classroom interaction. Thornborrow (2002: 7) draws on Focault's theory of power as "a complex and continuously evolving web of social and discursive relations". These relationships are never static and therefore power cannot be possessed by any individual, but it is rather a constantly on-going negotiation of power relationships where the participants exercise, experience and resist power. According to Thornborrow (2002), it is indeed these three elements that emerge from the discourse in interactional situations that allow us to depict and analyze power and "being powerful" in interaction.

Based on the description above the current study tries to investigate the Power Relations between non-native English teachers and their students in the classroom. The objectives of the study is to describe the Power Relations between non-native English teachers and their students in the classroom.

RESEARCH METHOD

It is a qualitative research, a discourse analysis. This research was conducted in the nine state senior high schools in Purworejo.The nine senior high schools were SMA N 1, SMA N 2, SMA N 3, SMA N 4, SMA N 5, SMA N 6, SMA N 7, SMA N 8, and SMA N 9 Purworejo. The main data are the utterances produced by the English teachers and their students in the classroom interaction. The utterances as the source of data will be about the display of power relation. To get the data, the researcher used video shooting. It was for recording the classroom interaction between English teachers and their students in nine different senior high schools. The following is the instrument that the researcher used to analyze English teachers and their students' utterances in the display of power relation in the English classroom interaction. The design of analyzing the utterances moment by moment in the event of utterances is as follows:

The analysis of Turn at Talk by Bloom (2005: 170), is as follows:

Analysis of Turns at Talk

Turns at Talk --- interrupts--- - initiates topics------ Revoicing----- Determined turn taking
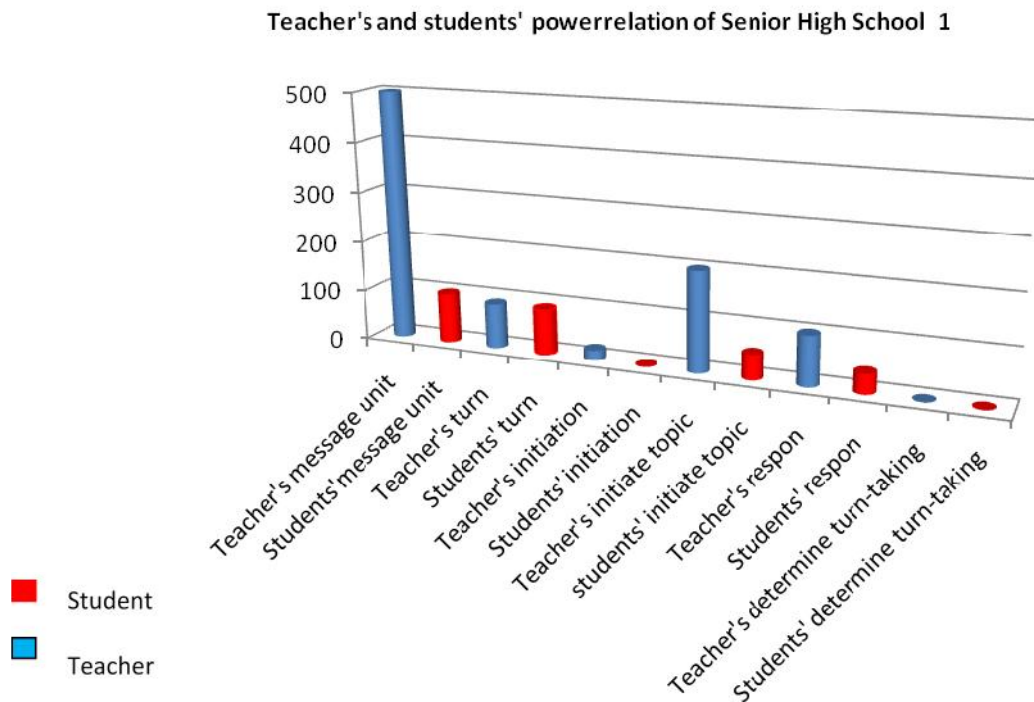

Teachers
Students

Using this diagram the researcher analyzed the English teachers and their students' utterances from the following points of view: *how many turns at talks*, *who determined turn-taking, who initiated the topic of discussion, who interrupted whom, who revoiced , whose comments.* The researcher wanted to know *the distribution of turns, topic initiation, and interruption* in line with the utterances made by English teachers and their students in the English classroom.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Using Bloom's (2005) concept, the result analysis of the Power Relations of English teachers and their students is shown in the chart below:

Teacher's and students' powerrelation of Senior High School 1

There were six variables to measure the power relations between English teachers of and their students in the classroom interaction. Bloom (2005: 167-170) said that there were six variables to measure the power relation, namely: message of units, turns, initiation, initiate topic, response, and determine turn taking. What follows are the descriprion of each.

Message Unit: the first chart was the display of power relation by English teacher and his students of senior high school 1 Purworejo. The results were as the follows: the teacher's message

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units were at the level of five hundred. Then student's message unit was of student was at the level of a hundred. In message units' performance, English teacher was more powerful than his students in the classroom interaction.

Turns: in distributing the turns to change the right to perform their speech, English teacher of senior high school 1 Purworejo and his students developed the turn at the equal level, it was at the level of ninety. It means that the English teacher and his students have equal power to distribute the turn in the classroom interaction.

Initiation: the third variable to measure teacher's and student's power relation was the initiation development in the classroom interaction. The English teacher of senior high school 1 Purworejo was more powerful to initiate the interaction in the classroom. It was proved by the development to initiate the interaction by English teacher was higher level. It was at the level of twenty, while student's initiation was at the level of zero. It means that the students never initiate the interaction in the classroom.
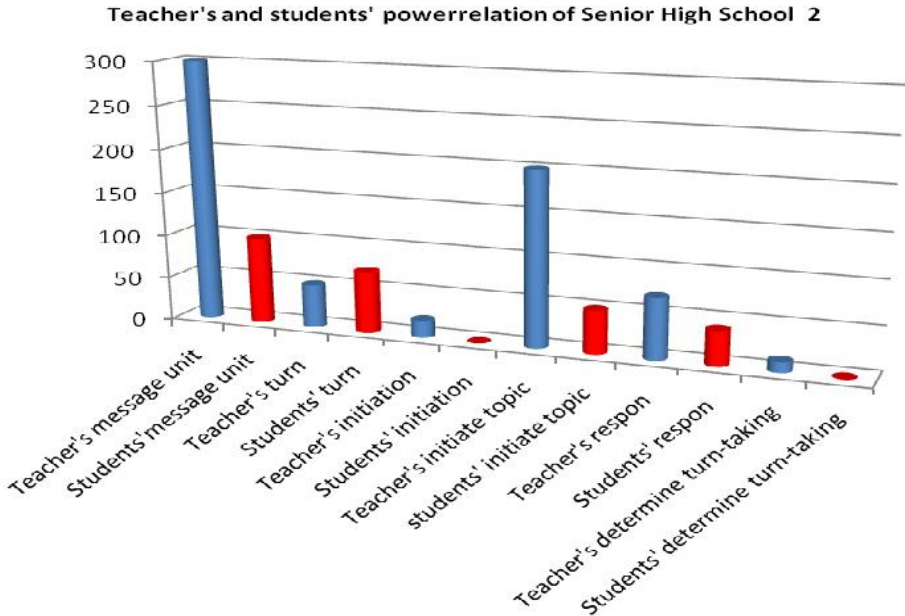
Topic initiation: the teacher's initiate the topic was more powerful developed by English teacher of senior high school 1 Purworejo, it was at the level of two hundreds utterances related to the initiate the topic of discussion developed by English teacher. On the contrary, students initiate the topic of discussion only at the level of fifty from the total number of utterances. Further, the English teacher of senior high school 1 Purworejo was more powerful concerning with to initiate the topic of discussion.

Response: the teacher's response the students 'speech was also more powerful. It was developed by English teacher to response the students' speech at the level of a hundred, while the students performed the utterances related to response was at the level of thirty. The last to measure the power relation between English teacher of senior high school 1 Purworejo and his students was turn to determine turn-taking. Both teacher and students were at the level of zero to developed turn determine-turn taking.

Teacher's unit message was at the level three hundreds developed by English teacher of senior high 7 Purworejo, on the contrary the student of senior high school 7 Purworejo developed the message unit at the level of ninety. It means that the English teacher was more powerful to perform her message unit in the classroom interaction compare to the students 'message unit. English teacher of senior high school 7 and her students in the classroom interaction developed the turn-distribution was equal level. It was at the level of ninety both teacher and students, it reflected that teacher and student have equal power concerning with the distribution of turn in the classroom interaction.
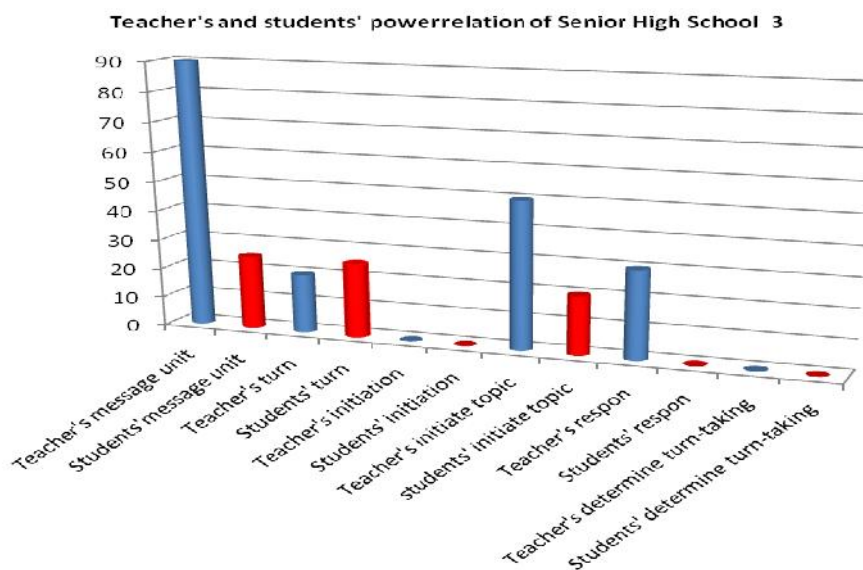
Further, the English teacher was more powerful to initiate the classroom interaction was proved that the English teacher developed the initiation of interaction at the level of teen, while her students never initiate the interaction in the classroom. Further, English teacher of senior high school 7 Purworejo was also more powerful to initiate the topic of discussion, it was proved based on the chart that the English teacher initiate the topic of discussion at the level of two hundreds, while the students never initiate the topic of discussion completely. Student's response the teacher's ideas were more powerful compare to the teacher's response to the student's speech. It means that the act to response the teacher ideas was higher developed by student's of senior high school 7 Purworejo than the teacher's response.

Turn Taking: Further, teacher's turn determine turn –taking was more powerful that student's turn determine turn taking. It means that students never determine-turn taking, while teacher sometime did it in the classroom interaction. It was stated at the chart that teacher determine-turn taking at the level of five while students were at the level of zero.

Teacher's and students' powerrelation of Senior High School 2

The teacher's message unit was developed by English teacher of senior high school 2 Purworejo more powerful than students' message units in the classroom interaction. Teacher's message unit was at the level of three hundreds while the students were at the level of a hundred. Student's turn was more powerful than the teacher's turn It means that the students have more chance to develop the turns to develop the speech. Teacher was at the level of fifty while student's distribution of turn at the level of seventy. It was caused the students have to share their ideas with their classmate in the classroom interaction. Furthermore, teacher initiation the interaction in the classroom was more powerful than the student's participation to initiate the interaction. The teacher's initiate the interaction was at the level of teen, while the students never initiate the interaction completely.

The teacher's initiate the topic was more powerful than student's initiate the topic of discussion. Teacher's initiate the topic was at the level of a hundred and fifty while student's initiate of the topic was only at the level of forty nine. Teacher's response was more powerful than student's response the ideas. Teacher's response was at the level of seventy while student's response was at the level of thirty. Furthermore, teacher's determine turn- taking was more powerful than student's determine turn-taking. Teacher's determine turn-taking at the level of five, student's turn-taking was at the level of zero.

Teacher's and students' powerrelation of Senior High School 3

Teacher's unit message of senior high school 3 Purworejo was more powerful than student's message unit. Teacher's message unit was at the level of ninety while student's message unit was at the level of twenty five. Student's turn was more powerful than teacher's turn distribution in the classroom interaction. Teacher's turn was at the level of twenty while the student's turn was at the level of twenty five. Teacher's initiation and student's initiation were at the level of zero. Furthermore, teacher's initiates the topic was at the level of fifty while the student's initiate the topic was at the level of twenty. It means that the English teacher of senior high school 3 was more powerful than his student to initiate topic of discussion.

Further, teacher's response was more powerful than student's response. The teacher and students were completely never developed the turn determiner turn-taking in the classroom interaction.
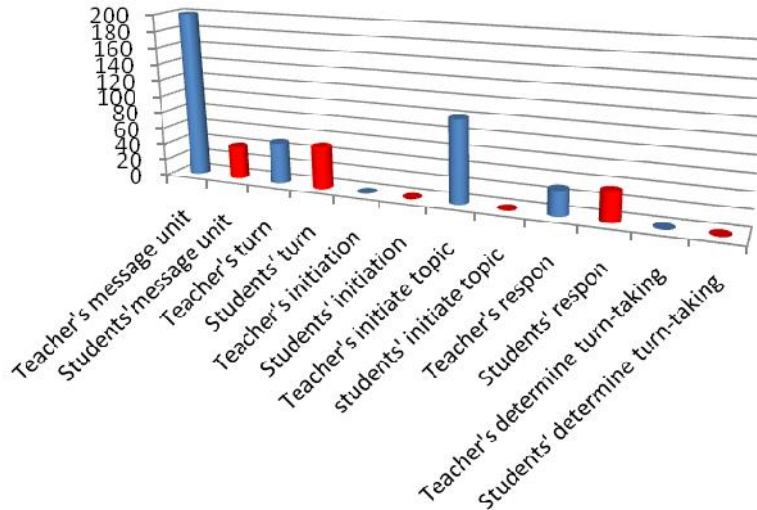
Teacher's unit message of senior high school 4 Purworejo was more powerful than student's message unit. Teacher's message unit was at the level of three hundred while student's message unit was at the level of eighty. Student's turn and teacher's turn were at the equal level. Both teacher's turn and student's turn were at the level of eighty five. Teacher's initiate was at the level of five while the student's initiate was at the level of zero. It means that the teacher was more powerful to initiate the interaction than students. Teacher initiate the topic was at the level of a hundred, while student's initiate the topic was at the level of five, It means that the teacher was more powerful to initiate the topic than the students.

Teacher's response was more powerful than student's response. Teacher's response was at the level of seventy while student's response was at the level of sixty. Teacher's determine turn-taking and student's turn- taking were at the level of zero.

Teacher's message unit of senior high school was more powerful than student's unit message. Teacher's message unit was at the level of sixty while student's unit message was at the level of thirty five. Student's turn was more powerful than teacher's turn in the classroom interaction. Student's turn was at the level of thirty five while teacher's turn was at the level of twenty. Student's initiation of the interaction and student's interaction were at the level of zero. Teacher's initiate the topic was at the level of forty while students' initiate the topic was at the level of nine. It means that the teacher initiate the topic was more powerful than student's initiate the topic in the classroom interaction.

Furthermore, student's response was more powerful than teacher' response. Student's response was at the level of fifteen while teacher' response was at the level of nine. Students determine turn-taking and teacher's turn taking were at the level of zero.
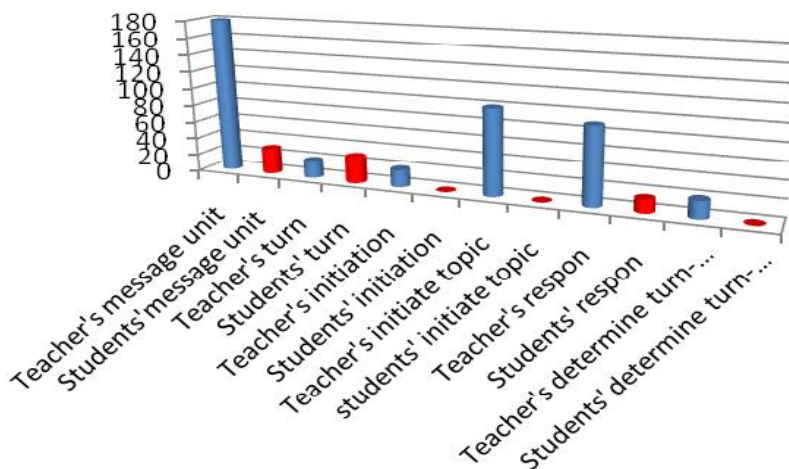
Teacher's and students' powerrelation of Senior High School 6

Teacher' message unit of senior high school 6 was more powerful than student's message unit. Teacher's message unit was at the level of two hundreds while student's message unit was at the level of thirty nine. Teacher's turn and student's turn were at the equal level. Both teachers' turn and student turn's were at the level of forty five. Teacher's initiation and student's initiation were at the level of zero.

Furthermore, teacher's initiate the topic was more powerful than student's initiate the topic in the classroom interaction. Teacher's initiate the topic was at the level of a hundred while student's initiate the topic was at the level of zero. Student's response was more powerful than teacher's response in the classroom interaction. Student's response was at the level of twenty five while teacher's response was at the level of twenty two. Both teacher and student' never developed determine-turn –taking in the classroom interaction.
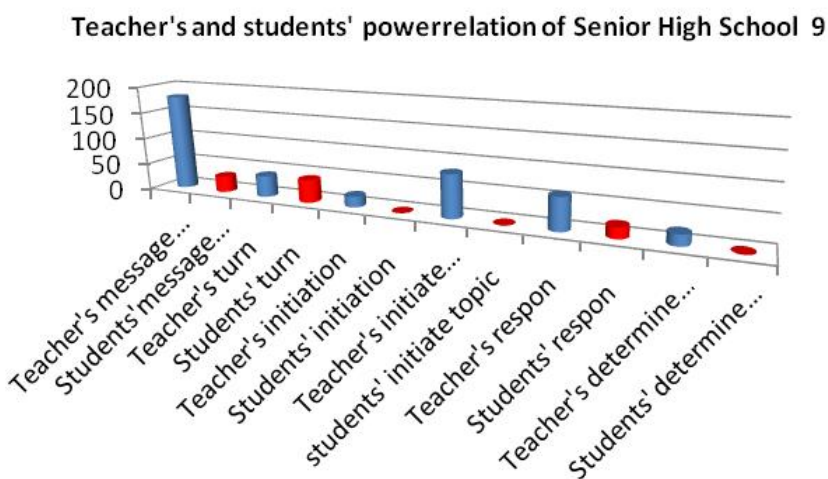
Teacher's and students' powerrelation of Senior High School 8

Teacher's message unit of senior high school 8 was at the level of a hundred and eighty while student's message unit was at the level of twenty three. It means that the teacher's message unit was more powerful than student's message unit in the classroom interaction.

Student's turn was more powerful than teacher's turn. Student's turn was at the level of twenty two while teacher's turn was at the level of ninety. Further, teacher initiation was more powerful than student's initiation. Teacher's initiation was at the level of ninety while student's initiation was at the level of zero.

Teacher's initiate the topic was more powerful than student's initiate the topic. Teacher's initiate the topic was at the level of hundred, while student's initiate topic was at the level of zero. Teacher's response was at the level of a hundred while student's response was at the level of fifteen. It means that teacher's response was more powerful than student's response in the classroom interaction. Teacher's determine turn– taking was at the level of nineteen, while student's turn taking was at the level of zero.

Teacher's and students' powerrelation of Senior High School 9

Teacher's message unit of senior high school 9 Purworejo was at the level of a hundred and eighty while the student's message unit was at the level of twenty two. Teacher's turn and student's turn were at the level of thirty nine level, It means that the teacher's turn and student's turn have equal power to distribute in the classroom interaction. Teacher's initiate was at the level of nineteen, while student's initiation was at the level of zero.

Furthermore, teacher's initiate the topic was at the level of eighty while student's initiate the topic was at the level of zero. It means that teacher's initiate the topic was more powerful than student's initiate the topic. Teacher's response was at the level of sixty while student's response was at the level of nineteen. Then, teacher determines turn-taking was at the level of nineteen, while students determine turn –taking was at the level of zero.

CONCLUSIONS

Based on the results of data analysis on power relations developed by English teachers and their students of senior high school 1 until senior high school 9 Purworejo, it was found that the English teachers were more powerful than their students. It happened because English teachers and their students have different roles in the classroom interaction. Other reasons, most of the English

teachers of classical classroom still keep on using the traditional philosophy of power relation which was developed by Foucault (1980).

Some English teachers of International standardized Schools and some English teachers of classical classroom interaction followed the modern philosophical value of power relation which was developed by Manke (1997).To prove that the English teachers are more powerful than their students in the classroom the researcher presents the conclusions of data analysis based on the theory of power relation which was developed by Bloom (2005).

The conclusions are as the follows:

(1) The first variable was in relation with performing the *message units* in the classroom interaction. It means that the English teachers performed the utterances more than their students.

(2) The second variable to measure power relation in the classroom was *turn distribution*. There were five of nine senior high schools in which the English teachers and their students distribute the turn equally among them. The five senior high schools were senior high school one, seven, four, six, and nine in Purworejo. On the other hand, in senior high schools two, three, eight, and senior high school five Purworejo, the students were more powerful to distribute the turns in the classroom interaction. It happened because students in these senior high schools had much time to share with their friends in the group discussion, further, students had high chance to distribute their turns with their classmates.

(3) The third variable to measure teacher's and student's power relation was an *initiation activity*. The researcher presented the result of data analysis as follows: there were three senior high schools in which the teachers and their students did not initiate the interaction; they were senior high schools three, five, and six. Furthermore, English teachers were more powerful to initiate the classroom interaction in senior high school 8 Purworejo.

(4) The fourth variable to measure the teacher's or student's power relationship was *an initiation topic of discussion*. The teachers of all senior high schools were more powerful than their students in the classroom interaction to initiate the topic of discussion. It means that most of the teachers initiate the classroom interaction while their students were waiting to respond or students had hardly any ideas to initiate the classroom interaction.

(5) The fifth variable to measure the teachers and students power relation was the response activities. Based on the data analysis, the English teachers of senior high schools one, two, three, five, six, and nine, were more powerful to respond to the student's ideas in the classroom interaction. On the contrary, the students of senior high schools seven, five, and six, were more powerful than their teachers. The teacher and his students of senior high school three Purworejo developed the utterances to respond equally.

(6) The sixth variable of power relation in the classroom interaction was determining-turn taking activities. It means that the teachers and students had equal right to determine turn-taking in the classroom interaction. The teachers of senior high schoosl seven, two, eight, and senior high school nine Purworejo, were more powerful to determine turn-taking in the classroom interaction. However, teachers and students of senior high schools one, three, four, five, and senior high school six did not determine turn- taking in the classroom interaction.

Referring to the descriptions above, the English teachers are more powerful than their students in the classroom interaction. It was because the teachers had their institutional power relation that the

students did not have. English teachers mostly still keep the old paradigm of power relations which was developed by Foucault (1980). There were only few English teachers who followed the new paradigm of power relations which was developed by Manke (1997).

In the researcher's point of view, it was better for the English to change their philosophy of power relations concerning the classroom interaction. Both teachers and students have their own right to participate in the classroom interaction. The English teachers would be powerless if there were no students. On the contrary, the students would not be meaningful if there were no teachers. English teachers and also the students should begin to develop a new paradigm of power relation which was created by Manke (1997).

The old paradigm of power relations by Foucault (1980) was mostly used by the classical classroom interaction. It was also because of the teacher's philosophical value in Indonesia. It was stated by Ki Hajar Dewantara: *Ing Ngarso Sungtulodo, Ing Madyo Mangunkarso, Tutwuri Handayani*. This philosophical value has deep influence on teachers' character in Indonesia. The new paradigm of power relations which was developed by Manke (1997), was used only by limited English teachers, it was used by the English teachers and their students in the acceleration classroom interaction of International Standardized School.

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