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Undergraduate Conference
on ELT, Linguistics, and Literature



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Sanata Dharma University

July 6, 2013

Showing Identity Through Language



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The First Undergraduate Conference on ELT, Linguistics, and Literature 2013

Editor:

Committee of Undergraduate Conference 2013



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Sanata Dharma University
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Preface

The committee of Undergraduate Conference 2013 proudly presents the proceedings of The First Undergraduate Conference on ELT, Linguistics and Literature. The proceedings consist of research papers compilation on technology development, culture disclosure, and language development. The development of technology affects human life in terms of the way the people live their life. One of the components affected by the development of technology is culture disclosure. The example of the disclosure is found on the existence of code switching and code mixing on some cultural terms used by the speakers on social media. On the other hand, the development of technology also affects the development of language. The example of the influence is found on how society nowadays unconsciously learns other language through the product of technology development. The committee of Undergraduate Conference 2013 hopes that the proceedings could be beneficial for the readers.

Editor

The committee of Undergraduate Conference 2013





A Note on the First UC USD PBI 2013

How heartening to see everyone at this undergraduate conference! This academic forum, which is officially called the **Undergraduate Conference (UC) on English Language Teaching (ELT), Linguistics and Literature**, was held for the first time this year, 2013, by the Sanata Dharma University English Language Education Study Programme – Program Studi Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris (PBI) Universitas Sanata Dharma (USD).

It is expected that every student involved in this conference whether as a committee member, participant or paper presenter can contribute positively to this event. As planned, the UC USD PBI would be organized annually starting 2013. For student presenters, the UC is an invaluable opportunity to share (mini) research findings and enrich knowledge of linguistics, literature and English language teaching.

The organizing committee, who are mostly PBI-ers of batch 2009, have been working hard in order to make this conference a great success, including in selecting 24 paper abstracts to be presented on the conference D-day, namely Saturday, 6 July 2013.

Enjoy this very first UC USD PBI by sharing ideas with one another – intellectually and academically!

Best wishes,

Barli Bram

UC USD PBI 2013 Facilitator

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EXPRESSING IDEAS TO IMPROVE ENGLISH COMPETENCE

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Abstract

This paper explores the fundamental considerations of using productive experience to improve English language competence. Expressing opinions, identity and feelings are significant to improve language competence. They are not only relevant for English language skills but also for all languages. This paper presents three points of view that give strong pillars of using language production activities that significantly improve language competence. First, the concept in communicative language teaching offers ideas about output hypothesis that suggests the use of language output as an activity to generate language competence. Second, ideas from engagement theory suggest kinds of activities that are significant to help language learners to contribute ideas and opinions to people outside the classroom context. Third, the integration of technology into language teaching provides discussion about the use of computer technology that opens wide the opportunities for language learners to share opinions, identities and feelings to people all over the world. The three pillars are significant to underlie the design of productive activities to improve English language competence.

Keywords: output hypothesis, technology integration, engagement, interaction, create, relate, donate

INTRODUCTION

Improving English language competence can be done in many ways. Language educationalists address the importance of receptive and productive activities to help English language learners to improve English language competence. The popular activities for receptive experiences include listening and reading, and for productive experiences include speaking and writing. The productive experiences open ways for language learners to express ideas. The experiences eventually help them to improve language competence. Developing self-expression through language involves using technology tools to produce a variety of creative works (Kern & Warschauer, 2000). Activities usually begin with a central theme or content area focus—for example, literacy for storytelling, journals and publications, science and math for reports, and arts through digital images and video production (Richardson, 2010). Language learners can work together in groups or individually. Technology-enriched activities help language learners develop and enhance their language competence and technology skills.

This paper addresses the importance of expressing ideas to improve English language competence from three points of view. Those are communicative language teaching, engagement theories, and integration of technology into language teaching. Those three pillars give better improvements of activities so that language learners and users can experience productive activities in current situation. This paper is a theoretical review that elaborates ideas that become foundations in using productive experiences to improve English language competence.

The communication abilities as the central goal of language learning and the significance of interaction in language learning process are considered important reasons of using communicative language teaching as foundation for developing the framework of integrating computer technology into the EFL curriculum. Many instructional activities of communicative language teaching have been implemented in language classroom without the use of computer technology. The use of games, role-plays, debates, tasks, and drama has been very popular as the aids to language learning. Those methods are often used in conventional language classroom without using computer technology to promote language-learning engagement. However, the existence of computer technology gives promises to increase communication opportunities of the students (Kearsley & Shneiderman, 1998; Kern & Warschauer, 2000). Computer-mediated communication is able to provide both synchronous and asynchronous interaction to increase communicative opportunities for learners worldwide (Savignon, 2002). Therefore, it is important to find the effective ways to integrate computer technology into the language teaching curriculum and instruction so that learners can improve their language competencies.

Communicative perspectives in English language learning

In the context of ESL/EFL teaching, learning engagement has become a crucial element due to the popularity of communicative approach to language teaching. Generally speaking, students develop their language competence through engaging in communicative activities in ESL/EFL classes. A significant shift to communicative language teaching appeared in 1980s and 1990s (Kern & Warschauer, 2000). Student engagement with authentic,

meaningful, contextualized discourse and achievement in the second language become paramount in designing foreign language lessons. Students' engagement in language learning activities will have positive impact on the increase of second and foreign language competencies (William & Burden, 1997). A language learner's engagement in meaningful, motivated communication activity using the target language is considered the best route to becoming both literate and fluent in that language (Stevik, 1980; Brown, 1994).

In the practice of communicative language teaching, meaningful interaction has been a central element in second language pedagogy. In teaching a second language, it is insufficient for the teacher to teach only linguistic competence. The teaching and learning process should also include sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence (Canale, 1983; Canale & Swain, 1980). Communicative processes become as important as linguistic product, and instruction become more learner-centered and less structurally driven. Therefore, interaction in the process of language learning is central in ESL/EFL learning context.

From the communicative perspective, language instruction was viewed not just in terms of providing *comprehensible input*, a concept provided by Krashen (1982), but rather as helping students enter into variety of authentic social discourse situations and discourse communities. These are the situations and communities that the second or foreign language learners would later encounter outside the classroom. In helping those language learners entering into authentic discourse situations and communities, second and foreign language instructors are interested in the use of task-based learning, in which students engage in authentic tasks and projects (see for example Breen, 1987; Candlin, 1987; Long & Crookes, 1992; Prabhu, 1987). In this context, a task is "any activity that learners engage in to further the process of learning a language" (William & Burden, 1997, p. 168). In carrying out the tasks, the learners exchange and negotiate meanings so that their knowledge of the language systems develops. Learner's engagement in authentic tasks and projects within such meaningful interaction between two or more participants helps them to improve communicative skills in the target language.

In many decades, developmental theories have addressed the importance of self-expression in language learning. An important theoretical repertoire was proposed by Swain's output hypothesis that mentions that learners need opportunities to produce output if they are to become fluent speakers and writers (Swain 1985). Input hypothesis provides arguments that learners' output contributes to interlanguage development (Ellis, 1994). In her study on immersion classrooms in Canada, Swain (1985) claims that learners need to be "pushed" from semantic into syntactic processing mode. The learners are required to encode comprehensible messages in order to propel their language learning. In line of her argument she claims that "when learners experience communicative failure, they are pushed into making their output more precise, coherent, and appropriate" (Ellis, 1994, p. 282). The three hypotheses become the foundation that interaction takes important roles in improving language competence of the language learners.

Another argument suggests that healthy cognitive development is dependent upon self-expression and communication. Piaget argues that an individual's personal construction of knowledge is the result of social transmission stimulations (Siegler, 1991). Learners' active participation in communication experiences that include the mental manipulation of ideas facilitates the improvement of knowledge (Ginsburg & Opper, 1987). When learners learn language, learners need opportunities to paraphrase information, ask questions for clarification, test their ideas, and expand on information through expository writing (Woolfolk, 1998).

In the context of English as second language teaching, English instructors have used many kinds of methods to provide students with the opportunities to participate in language learning activities to promote second language acquisition. In the communicative language programs, such activities as games, group discussion, debates, and short drama performances have been used in communicative language classroom to give learners to individually involve in classroom interaction (Savignon, 1971, Richards & Rodgers, 1986, Celce-Murcia, 2001). These methods also accept the importance of more traditional teaching methods such as lecturing and skill practice because these activities are important in preparing students to experience the real communication activities. However, the traditional teaching methods of lecturing and skill practice do not dominate the learning activities because the bigger portion of the classroom activities is full with students' interaction using the target language. In addition, task-based language teaching (TBLT) (Candlin & Murphy's, 1987; Ellis, 2009; Prabhu, 1987) has also been very popular. Tasks are used to provide opportunities for communicating in listening, speaking, reading, and writing (Ellis, 2009) especially for enhancing more individualized instruction for the students.

The opportunities for productive experiences require active participation from language learners. Language learners are encouraged to fully engage in expressing ideas, feelings, and identity using target language. However, language engagement does not occur automatically. Language learners are required to carry out certain experiences so that they develop engagement in English language learning. The following section explores ideas from the engagement theories that offer kinds of activities in which language learners can carry out to improve their abilities to express ideas through language.

Engagement in language production

Engagement theory has contributed to the development of curriculum design to help language learners to improve language competence. The theory is not directly derived from other theoretical frameworks for learning. However, it has much in common with many frameworks in learning theories. Shneiderman (1998) first introduced the theory by providing a guiding philosophy for teachers so that they can adapt the principles to their personal style, course contents, student population, and available technology. Engagement theory emphasizes meaningful learning and it is consistent with constructivist approaches. "The main underlying assumption of constructivism is that individuals are actively involved right from birth in constructing personal meaning that is their own personal understanding, from their experience (William & Burden, 1997, p. 21)." Moreover, Engagement Theory emphasizes collaboration among peers and a community of learners. It can be aligned with situated learning theories. Learning collaboratively with others has been suggested by sociocognitive theories. The involvement of other people in learner's life significantly influences his mental development (Vygotsky, 1978). Other people help learners to enhance learning by selecting and shaping the learning experiences presented to them.

The basic principle of engagement theory is related with the constructivist learning model. According to the developers, engaged learning means that all student activities involve active cognitive processes such as creating, problem-solving, reasoning, decision-making, and evaluation (Kearsley & Shneiderman, 1998). Specifically, Engagement Theory comprises three components:

1. **Relating**: learning activities that occur in a group context
2. **Creating**: learning activities that are project-based
3. **Donating**: learning activities that have an outside (authentic) focus

Relating, that is, collaborative work, encourages students to "clarify and verbalize their problems, thereby facilitating solutions" (Kearsley and Shneiderman, 1998, p. 20). Creating involves student participation in the development of their assessment tasks: "students have to define the project and focus their efforts on application of ideas to a specific context" (Kearsley & Shneiderman, 1998, p. 20). Donating "stresses the value of making a useful contribution while learning" (Kearsley & Shneiderman, 1998, p. 20), a feature that motivates learners because they are engaged with an activity they value.

Foreign language teaching practices are based on the assumption that learners' engagement in learning activities gives positive impacts on foreign and second language acquisition. Language learning activities carried out by the students can be designed based on the ideas of relating, creating and donating. Therefore, engagement theory elaborates what skills students need in order to effectively participate in productive and creative activities. In addition, with the improvement of computer technology, engagement theory can become an effective foundation for developing the framework to establish computer technology integration models to improve students' communicative ability in foreign language. The following section addresses the issues of integrating computer technology to facilitate students' engagement in productive activities to improve English competence.

Computer integration into language learning

Language learning engagement becomes very crucial in computer-based language learning. Computer technology have the capacity to facilitate people to access to other people as well as to information and data (Kern & Warchauer, 2000) so that it can serve as medium for local and global communication and provide accesses to authentic materials. Moreover, computer interactions are also potential to enhance communication skills and strengthen language through computer support group interactions (Bourdon, 1999). The use of computer technology in language classroom improves the target language exposure, which is important for enhancing second and foreign language acquisition. More importantly, computer technology gives language learners wider opportunity to actively participate in real communication using the target language.

There have been many examples of successful technology integration programs that are grounded in the separate subject approach. However, there is no single model or program that is applicable to all situations. Technology integration is not a 'one fits all' practice (Wepner, Tao, & Ziomek, 2006) where teachers do the same things for their students. The success of the integration should be measured based on the contextual situation of the school or, even more specifically, the group of the students. The engagement in computer-based learning depends upon the sociocultural context that shapes the interaction using computers where students learn via multimedia mode (Kern & Warchauer, 2000). Contextual situation should also become an important consideration in foreign language teaching. Graves (2000) suggests that the question about how to teach a subject does not have one answer. The answer to the question "will depend on the context in which the teacher teaches" (Graves, 2000, p. 13). In summary, computer-based language teaching does not represent a particular technique or method but it constitutes amalgamation of ways by which students communicate via computer technology, interpret and construct information using the computer technology.

Computer integration carries the meaning of full-time, daily operation within the lesson (Gorder, 2008) where teachers consciously decide to designate certain tasks and responsibility to technology (Bauer & Kenton, 2005). Hooper and Rieber (1999) described five phases of teacher's use of technology: (1) familiarization, (2) utilization, (3) integration, (4) re-orientation, and (5) evolution. It was asserted that most teachers only reach the utilization stage. In this stage teachers are already satisfied with the limited use of technology and tend to cancel the use of it when they experience signs of troubles. They lack of positive commitment to find better ways to break the barriers to the successful utilization of computer technology. Hooper and Rieber (1999) further explain that in the true integration the teachers experience a "breakthrough phase" (p. 254) where computer plays significant roles in the success of the lesson.

Jaffee (1997) suggests four highly important pedagogical principles for the implementation in the classroom where technology is integrated: active learning, mediation, collaboration, and interactivity. Active learning using technology constitutes the interaction between the student and the content in which the interaction allows knowledge building and construction. Using technology for active learning keeps students focused, engaged, and motivated (Barak, Lipson, & Lerman, 2006). Mediation is interaction between the teacher and the students to solve problems, respond to questions, and discuss topics relating to the course. Collaboration is interaction among students through questions and information sharing. Interactivity is the principle that represents the greatest pedagogical potential for learning using technology. This principle is consistent with the principles of language learning. Interactivity is the master concept where active participation is building the understanding and knowledge through interaction with other students, teachers, and resources using technology.

The core principles of Engagement Theory are consistent with the purpose of communicative language teaching. The teaching learning processes in communicative language learning lessons should involve the learners in the experience of meaningful communication (Savignon, 2002; Canale & Swain, 1980; Richards & Rodgers, 1986; Widdowson, 1984). Meaningful communication is accomplished through collaborative activities among students, teachers, and other people outside the classroom. The idea of relate, create and donate in Engagement Theory provides the basis for providing meaningful collaboration and authentic experience of communication. The theory posits three primary means to accomplish engagement: (1) an emphasis on collaborative efforts, (2) project-based assignments, and (3) useful contribution to wider context of learning environments. Kearsley & Shneiderman, (1998) suggest that these three methods result in learning that is creative, meaningful, and authentic. Engagement might happen without technology, but the use of technology provides more possibilities for such engagement to occur.

The idea of collaboration in learning has been considered as an important aspect of successful learning for a long time especially when constructivist principles of learning is used in designing instruction. Collaboration refers to a recursive process where two or more people or organizations work together to realize shared goals. Collaborative learning is based on the idea that learning is a naturally social act in which the participants talk among themselves. It is through the talk that learning occurs (Gerlach, 1994). Herrington, Oliver, and Reeves (2003) argue that collaborative learning is an important way for creating authentic and deep learning. "Cognition occurs not only 'in the head' ... but in the objective elements of communication among individuals" (Cole & Engestrom, 1993, p. 3). Warschauer (1997) argues that computer-mediated communication encourages collaborative learning in language classroom in five ways. First, computer-mediated interaction is more powerful than text-based interaction. Text-based interaction has been used for a long time in language pedagogy. In free-writing activities, for example, students share their compositions written or typed on papers. The use of computer-mediated interaction enables the reader to edit and reedit the composition while rapidly interacting with the writer. Second, computer-mediated online learning allows learners to engage in many-to-many interaction. An individual student can initiate interaction with any or all of the others. Thus, it opens the opportunity of participation in interaction activities. Third, computer-mediated communication allows time- and place-independence interaction. Learners can write and receive messages at any time of the day from any computer with the Internet connection. Fourth, while place-dependent interaction can be conducted in a local network system, the Internet is able to help students to engage in long distance exchanges to people around the world. Fifth, the access to authentic information is crucial in communicative language teaching. Hypermedia allows learners to access up-to-date and authentic information that can be incorporated into the classroom collaborative activities. Through the interaction in students are building their knowledge instead of relying on simple memorization skills.

The aspect of contribution to wider context of learning in Engagement Theory might become the most typical nature of computer integration in English language learning environment. Furthermore, it may become the most challenging nature in the integration of computer technology into language instruction. It is common that in the accomplishment of project-based language learning the students display the final products in the school or the wider community, and become a stimulus for thought and action for other students, teachers and local community (Fragoulis & Tsiplakides, 2009). Students may publish the result of the project in a web blog that can be created on

group or class basis. Another option is that the students may present the result in the form of a wall magazine that can be presented along the hallway so that other people outside the classroom can enjoy the learning product. Some other English teachers require students to perform skits of drama or poster exhibitions at the end of the semester in which the faculty members and students from other classes are invited to watch. Those activities have been very effective in motivating students to carry out the learning process.

The integration of computer technology enables learners to share what they have done not only within the school environment but also outside the school to the greater community of the world. Students can be encouraged to use production or editing software such as Corel Draw, Adobe Photoshop, Sony Sound Force, and Microsoft Video Maker to design production of language learning in the form of stories, poems, pictures or movies. Students can create interesting posters, wall magazine pages, and recorded drama skits that can be shared with other people outside the class. The use of Internet enables students to use the Web to publish their learning production in the form of text or multimedia materials to share with partner classes or with the general public (Kern & Warchauer, 2000). Outside consumers have the potential for generating intense motivation and help students to clarify their work (Shneiderman, 1998). Therefore, using outside parties as the target of language project production can motivate learners to do their best in accomplishing the projects.

CONCLUSION

The three pillars above should be strong enough to give inspiration to students and teachers to use creative and productive experiences to improve English competence. Many language learners are often reluctant to express ideas, identities, feelings, etc using the target language they learn. Consequently, they do not improve their language skills effectively. Considering the advance of networking technology, the elaboration above should positively encourage people to use the technology to develop their capacity in foreign languages. The digital culture should be focused on helping people to improve language competence by sharing opinions, identities, feelings, experiences, and hopes. Many activities using advanced technology are often exiting. However, it is not enough to use the technology only for pleasure. People, especially young people, should also consider the significance of the technology to improve their language competence. The activities such as digital storytelling, web blog development and discussion forum through the Internet will develop students' opportunities to express their ideas, feelings, and identities. Such kinds of activities should be encouraged both by the language instructors and by the language learners themselves to improve positive language learning experiences.

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STRATEGIES FOR TRANSLATING INDONESIAN CULTURE-BOUND ELEMENTS INTO ENGLISH: A CASE STUDY

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Abstract

This paper aims to investigate how Indonesian culture-bound elements were translated into English. Generally, the quality of a translated text depended on its fidelity and transparency to the original text. The challenge to maintain that principle frequently arose in translating Indonesian texts into English because Indonesian language had culture-specific terms that were not available in English. A translator should employ strategies in translating the Source Text (ST) in order to make those elements comprehensible in the Target Text (TT). The researcher compared an Indonesian short story by Ki Panji Kusmin entitled *Langit Makin Mendung* (ST) and its translation *The Darkening Sky* (TT) by Marian De Walt Morgan to examine some strategies applied to translate Indonesian culture-bound elements. The cultural terms analyzed in the short story were names, titles, idioms, and objects. The formulated problems were: (1) What are the strategies used to translate the ST to TT in terms of names and titles, idioms, and objects? (2) To what extent is the translation faithful to the ST? The result showed that various strategies namely omission, word-borrowing and cultural equivalents were used in the TT. Some terms were not translated as seen in the retention of the SL words in the TT. The degrees of faithfulness varied, depending on the closeness of the translation to the meaning in the ST. Furthermore, it was suggested that in translating a text into other languages, one could utilize the best strategies by considering the fidelity and transparency.

Keywords: fidelity, transparency, strategies, culture, translation

INTRODUCTION

Background

Since there are a lot of different languages in the world, it is impossible for ones to comprehend the meaning of the texts written in unfamiliar languages. As a result, translation is needed because it enables ones to transfer the meaning of one language to other languages. However, translation procedures are not easy as languages also reflect culture. There are words, phrases, or sentences that are culturally attached to the language. Because one culture differs from another, the words reflecting the culture also vary. Newmark (1987, p. 95) states that culture-bound elements can come from: (1) ecology, (2) material culture, (3) social culture (4), organisations, customs, activities, procedures, concepts (5) gestures and habits. This has been a challenge for translators to translate such elements from one language to other languages.

As an example, Indonesian language is different from English both syntactically and semantically. One of the problems that arises is that it is often difficult to translate from Indonesian into English because of the culture differences, which results in the use of culture-bound elements in the texts. A lot of Indonesian cultural terms are not available in English. However, a large amount of Indonesian texts, including literary works, have been translated into English. Therefore, the researcher is interested in investigating the strategies to translate Indonesian cultural terms into English in literary works. In this case, the work being examined is a short story that has been translated into English: *Langit Makin Mendung* by Ki Panji Kusmin and *The Darkening Sky* by Marian De Walt Morgan. Specifically, the cultural terms being analysed are addressing forms, idioms, and objects (e.g. places and foods).

Research Problems

1. What are the strategies used in translating the ST into the TT in terms of addressing forms, idioms, and objects?
2. To what extent is the translation faithful to the ST?

LITERATURE REVIEW

Fidelity vs Transparency in Translation

When translating ST into TT, fidelity and transparency are aspects to be considered. Fidelity is the accuracy in conveying the meaning of the ST without subtracting or adding any more part in the TT; it is the faithfulness of the translation to the ST. On the other hand, transparency is the degree of the TL readers' ability to comprehend the



translation in their cultural perspectives. With the principle of transparency, the translation is adjusted so that it is natural to the TL readers. In the seventeenth century, a French critic Gilles Menage stated that fidelity and transparency could not be both kept in translation. This opinion is supported by Patil (2010, p. 11), in which researches show that translations can have only high fidelity or high transparency. This means that loss and gain in translation cannot be avoided. Sapir, as cited in Bassnet (1980, p. 23), states that:

No two languages are ever sufficiently similar to be considered as representing the same social reality. The worlds in which different societies live are distinct worlds, not merely the same world with different labels attached.

As a result, the TT might not have exactly the same meaning as that in the ST because of the fidelity and transparency principle.

Strategies in Translating Culture-Specific Elements

Pedersen (2005) proposes a model in which the translation strategies are divided into two approaches: SL-oriented and TL-oriented. This is presented in the form of scale, ranging from the most foreignizing to the most domesticating ones.

1. SL-oriented, which is closer to the SL than TL. They are:

a. Retention

Retention allows the translator to put the SL words into the TL words. Usually, the retained words are marked with italics or quotation marks. This is considered as the most common strategy in translating culture-bound elements. However, it is not felicitous for the audience of the TT because it provides no clue of the meaning of the words.

b. Specification

Through this strategy, the translator leaves the SL words untranslated, but he or she adds more information that can help the audience understand the meaning. This can be done by:

- explicitation: providing more information that is implicit in the ST. An example is to spell out acronyms or abbreviations.
- addition: adding materials that can guide the audience to the meaning of the ST.

c. Direct translation

This strategy renders the semantic load of the SL words is unchanged. It is word for word translation, which is common in translating companies, technical institutions, etc. This has two subcategory: calque (more strict literal translation) and shifted (less strict literal translation).

2. TL-oriented, which is closer to the TL than SL. They are:

a. Generalisation

Generalisation means replacing the culture-specific items in the ST with more general items in the TL. For instance, *jeans* is translated into *celana* in Indonesian.

b. Substitution

This strategy removes the SL words and replaces them with something else: either with cultural equivalents or paraphrasing.

- cultural substitution: replacing the culture-bound terms of the SL with the equivalent terms in the TL.
- paraphrase: paraphrasing the SL words with the description that fits the context.

c. Omission

With this strategy, the SL words are removed completely, as if the words did not exist.

METHODOLOGY

Research Object

The objects of study are Ki Panji Kusmin's *Langit Makin Mendung* (ST) and its English translation by Marian De Walt Morgan (TT) entitled *The Darkening Sky*. They are the primary sources of this research. This short story is chosen because it contains a lot of cultural-bound elements, which enables the researcher to obtain rich data.

Research Method

The method of this research is qualitative document analysis (Ary, Jacobs, and Sorensen, 2010, p. 457) because it attempts to examine the ST and TT. The steps in collecting the data, adapted from Ary, Jacobs, and Sorensen (2010, p. 458) are:

1. defining the phenomenon to be investigated. In this research, the phenomenon is translating culture-bound elements from Indonesian to English in terms of addressing forms, idioms, and objects.
2. selecting the media, which is Ki Panji Kusmin's *Langit Makin Mendung* (ST) and *The Darkening Sky* (TT) by Marian De Walt Morgan. They are used as the primary sources (p. 467).
3. reading the ST and TT thoroughly.
4. taking the samples from the statements in the ST and TT. There are 5 samples taken in each investigated aspect. The samples are in the form of words, phrases, or sentences that contain the examined cultural-bound items.
5. comparing the taken samples of the ST and TT.
6. classifying the translation strategies used in each sample.
7. deciding the degrees of faithfulness of the translation to the original text. To determine the faithfulness, the researcher refers to the principle of fidelity and transparency.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The table below shows the comparison of the data taken from the ST and TT. The classification of the applied strategies is also given. The underlined terms are the words being examined.

Aspects	ST	TT	Strategies
Addressing forms	" <u>Jibril</u> , neraka lapis ke berapa di sana gerangan?"	" <u>Gabriel</u> , what level of Hell can that be over there?"	cultural substitution
	"Apa yang <u>Paduka</u> renungi."	"What are <u>you</u> reflecting on, <u>Your Excellency</u> ?"	generalisation + cultural substitution
	"Tidak, <u>pak</u> ."	"No, <u>pak</u> ."	retention
	"Kami tidak memaksa, <u>Bung!</u> "	"We're not forcing you, <u>brother</u> ."	cultural substitution
	"Waspadalah <u>saudara-saudara</u> ."	"Be on guard, <u>brothers and sisters</u> ."	cultural substitution
Idioms	Serangannya <u>membabi buta tidak pandang bulu</u> .	It <u>raged on with no respect for rank</u> .	paraphrase
	Pembantu-pembantu saya bilang, siang malam mereka <u>putar otak</u> dan bakar kemenyan.	My assistants said that they <u>racked their brains</u> and burned incense	cultural substitution
	Seperti maling kesiram air kencing, Togog berangkat di malam dingin kota Bogor.	<u>Like a thief urinated upon</u> , Togog left the city of Bogor in the cold night	direct translation
	Kenapa mereka hanya sekali pukul <u>si tangan panjang</u> ?	Why did they only beat <u>him</u> up?	generalisation
	Agen-agen Naspro <u>mati kutu</u> .	The Naspro agents were really <u>in a fix</u> .	cultural substitution
Objects	<u>APC</u> sekonyong-konyong melonjak harga.	<u>APC</u> tablets shot up in price	addition
	Presiden menari <u>lenso</u> bersama gadis-gadis daerah Menteng Spesial diundang.	The President danced the <u>lenso</u> with girls specially invited from Menteng.	retention
	Di atas <u>Pasar Senen</u> tercium bau timbunan sampah menggunung, busuk dan mesum.	Above <u>Senen market</u> hung the odor of garbage heaps piled up in putrid, filthy mountains.	retention + direct translation
	Sekilas bau <u>jengkol</u> mengambang	Soon after, a <u>jengkol-like</u> odor rose up.	addition
	Batu-batu mahal di sini. Satu kubik 200 <u>rupiah</u> ...	Stones are expensive here. One cubic meter for two hundred <u>rupiah</u> ...	retention
	Di depan <u>toko buku 'Remaja'</u> suasana meriak kemelut	In front of the <u>Remaja bookstore</u> , the atmosphere was tense	retention + direct translation
	tapi roti panggang buatan Perancis di <u>HI</u>	but toast prepared by a French chef in the <u>Hotel Indonesia</u>	explicitation



After examining the data, the researcher classifies several strategies of translation (based on Pedersen, 2005) applied by the translator in the TT:

1. Cultural Substitution

Regarding the addressing forms, the translator changes the name *Jibril* into *Gabriel* in the TT. *Jibril* is the name of an angel in Muslim belief. *Jibril* is a term, which Indonesians use to call an angel. *Gabriel* is the “westernised” version of *Jibril*. It is used because in the TL, the name *Gabriel* is more familiar. Meanwhile, *Bung*, which is a friendly term used to call a man, is translated into *brother*. Besides that, *saudara-saudara* is changed into *brothers and sisters* in the TT. Those kinds of translation do not have exactly the same meaning as those in the ST. However, they are natural-sounding in the TL as the use of such words are common for the TL readers. Because of its conformity to the TL, these kinds of translation is unfaithful to the ST.

Two of the idioms in the data are translated with cultural substitution. *Putar otak* is changed into *racked their brains*. *Putar otak* and *racked their brains* are both idioms, which mean ‘thinking hard to find solutions.’ Although both idioms have the same meaning, alteration is made in the term *putar*. *Putar* is changed into *rack* in English, which is not accurate. This translation is classified as unfaithful to the ST because of the different forms used. The other idiom is *mati kutu*, which is translated as *in a fix*. The translation of this idiom is not accurate because *mati kutu* means ‘unable to do anything’ while *in a fix* means ‘being in a bad situation.’ They both have different sense; therefore, the translation is unfaithful to the ST because of the inaccuracy of the meaning and form.

2. Retention

Retention is used by the translator when there are specific Indonesian cultural terms that are not available in English. In the TT, an addressing term *pak* is retained (“Tidak, pak” is changed into “No, *pak*”). Because the SL culture is maintained in the TT, this kind of translation is faithful. There are also cases from the data in which retention is made with adjustment to the TL syntax. It can be seen in the addition of plural marker –s after *rupiah* and article ‘the’ before *lenso*. This kind of translation is faithful to the ST because it still has the sense of the SL culture. However, the consequence of this strategy is that the TL readers will not be able to understand the meaning of the translation because it provides no clue of the meaning.

3. Paraphrase

This strategy is applied by the translator in translating an idiom. This can be seen in the idiom *membabi buta tidak pandang bulu*. In this sentence, the translator describes the meaning of the idiom in the TL by stating *raged on with no respect for rank*. The meaning is accurate but it has lost its cultural sense of the SL. Since the essence of the SL culture is lost, it is classified as unfaithful translation although the meaning is accurate.

4. Generalisation

Taken from the data, an idiom is translated with generalisation. *Si tangan panjang*, which means ‘someone who likes to steal things’, is translated as *him* only. This generalisation, however, does not convey the accurate meaning of the SL words. Thus, such generalisation is not faithful to the ST.

5. Direct translation

Direct translation is used in translating an idiomatic expression (simile) *seperti maling kesiram air kencing*. The translator translates it as *like a thief urinated upon*. This expression means to describe how someone loses his or her dignity without being able to do anything. When it is translated into English directly, this expression is highly uncommon and funny-sounding. The TL readers will not understand what the idiom means. Therefore, this translation is categorized as faithful but not transparent in the TL.

6. Addition

Some cultural words are provided with addition. An example from the data is the translation of “APC” as “APC tablets” in the TT. APC is the brand name of medicine in Indonesia, used to treat various kinds of disease. The word ‘tablets’ is added in order to give guide to the readers that APC is a kind of medicine. Because the sense of the SL culture is still maintained in the TL, this translation is faithful to the ST.

The other word translated with addition is *jengkol*, which is a plant that grows in Indonesia, used as food. The suffix –like is added by the translator. Unfortunately, it makes the meaning inaccurate. ‘Jengkol-like’ does not mean ‘jengkol’, but something similar to ‘jengkol.’ In the ST, it is stated that it is ‘jengkol’ that smells (bau jengkol), not something similar to it. Therefore, because the meaning of the translation is inaccurate, although the SL culture is maintained, this is an unfaithful translation.

7. Explication

This strategy is used to translate the term 'HI' in the ST. HI is an abbreviation, which stands for Hotel Indonesia. In the TT, the translator spells out the abbreviation so that the translation becomes 'Hotel Indonesia.' This translation is faithful to the ST because it still has the essence of SL culture and meaning. Coincidentally, the TL readers are also enabled to understand the meaning of the TT because this translation is in the form of common words in English.

8. Mixed strategies

The translator also uses more than one strategies in translating a cultural term such as:

- **retention + direct translation**

The examples from the data are the translation of 'Pasar Senen' and 'Toko Buku Remaja.' 'Pasar Senen' is translated as 'Senen market' and 'Toko Buku Remaja' is translated as 'Remaja Bookstore.' When such translation strategy is used, the TL audience will be enabled to understand the meaning of the terms partially as they will understand only the translated words but not the untranslated ones. The terms 'Senen' and 'Remaja' will not be able to be comprehended by them as they are untranslated. However, since the translated texts still maintain the culture of the SL and the translation of 'pasar' and 'toko buku' is accurate, they are considered faithful.

- **generalisation + cultural substitution**

In the ST, there is the term *Paduka*, which is a polite addressing form functioning to refer to someone who is in a very respected position. This is used in the sentence "Apa yang Paduka renungi?" in the ST. The translation is "What are you reflecting on, Your Excellency?" In the English translation, *Paduka* is changed into *you* because in English it will be odd to ask someone directly with a third person pronoun (Your Excellency). Instead, the term 'Your Excellency' is added at the end of the sentence to make it more natural in the TL. Therefore, this is classified as unfaithful translation as it conforms to the TL.

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

Based on the discussion of the ST and the TT, it is proven that loss and gain is inevitable in translating cultural-bound elements. As seen in the comparison of the ST and TT, there are some strategies applied to translate the ST in the three aspects examined (addressing terms, idioms, and objects). The strategies are either ST-oriented or TT-oriented. Some strategies are faithful and some others are unfaithful to the ST. A translation can be considered faithful to the ST if it is high in fidelity with consequence of low transparency. On the contrary, an unfaithful translation is more natural and comprehensible for the TL readers, which means that it has high transparency but low fidelity. The case in which a translated text has both high fidelity and high transparency rarely happens. It is challenging to maintain both fidelity and transparency, therefore, it is suggested that one think of some considerations in translating as proposed by Nida (in Venuti, 2000, p. 154):

- (1) The nature of the message
- (2) The purpose of the translator
- (3) The type of audience

Referring to the considerations, one is expected to utilize the most appropriate strategies in translating texts.

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CODE MIXING AND CODE SWITCHING IN TEXT MESSAGES AMONG ENGLISH DEPARTMENT STUDENTS AND LECTURERS: A STRATEGY TO MAINTAIN INDONESIAN CULTURE

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Abstract

Implementing in-group identity markers, one of which uses code switching and code mixing, is a strategy to show positive politeness aiming to minimize threats on “face” in conversation (Brown & Levinson, 1987). This study aimed to reveal the types as well as to expose the politeness strategy of code mixing and code switching used in text messages sent by English Department students to lecturers in formal situation. The data of this descriptive qualitative research were taken from a corpus of text messages sent by English Department students to English Department lecturers, and were analyzed using Brown and Levinson’s politeness strategy and Hoffman’s code mixing and code switching. The text messages analyzed showcased the purpose of asking permission, meeting appointments, and other academic purposes. Findings showed that students mostly used tag switching and inter-sentential switching in the text messages. Students tended to show their politeness and social status by performing code switching and code mixing on the language between English and *Bahasa Indonesia*. Switching the second pronoun ‘you’ to ‘*Bapak/Ibu* followed by the name of lecturers’ was a very typical culture of Indonesians, which was maintained despite the fact that these students were learning English and its culture. These interesting findings suggested that code switching and code mixing can help students preserve their culture amidst much exposure to foreign culture, as well as to show student’s unique local identity.

Keywords: code switching, code mixing, English, Bahasa Indonesia, politeness, text messages

INTRODUCTION

Indonesia is loaded with numerous languages and dialects that allow its people to master more than one language. *Bahasa Indonesia* as national language is more implemented in formal situation, while local languages are employed to hold everyday communication. These two distinctions carry culture peculiarities that make each language has special function. Hence, Indonesians tend to switch and mix the language interchangeably between *Bahasa Indonesia* and local language, i.e. switching to Javanese in which hierarchical language system demands them to use proper language to certain people. In addition to local language which Indonesians acquire since early childhood, English as foreign language is also taught in school and set in the school curriculum. Indonesian curriculum makes it mandatory for students to learn English since elementary school up until their secondary school. This foreign language insertion since early age does not go without effect on Indonesian native language. Indonesian may not speak fluent in which enable them to switch and mix language interchangeably, yet many words in English turn out to be more popular. Moreover, some particular words or expression that carry the English-speaking-countries’ culture, are then embedded in the learners’ mind. Learning one language also means learning the culture it embedded.

As Sapir and Whorf hypothesize the language relativity, that language can determine human’s way of thinking and *vice versa*; that language shapes our mind, mind shapes our culture, and the reverse, culture shapes our mind and mind shapes our language. Hence, learning language results in achievement of mind concept. Performing culture through language can be done by carrying out a conversation. For a successful conversation, communication strategies are applied, one of which is applying politeness strategy. Politeness strategy is implemented in conversation in order to avoid face threatening act. Conveying politeness in a conversation undeniably brings harmony among interlocutors (Brown and Levinson, 1987).

In spite of the uniqueness of each culture carried by each language, implementing one mind set thoroughly will seem impractical. In everyday communication, bilinguals will tend to switch and mix languages and it implicates in switching the culture in a sense to adjust the language use. However, adjusting a language in which the culture is extremely distinct from the culture of the speaker entails a great impact. For instance, Indonesian scholars bear in mind that using the second pronoun ‘*anda*’ to address teachers or professors is considered to be quite impolite; while in English, there is no other second pronoun than *you*. This phenomenon indeed requires deep cross cultural understanding that enables learners or speakers adjust themselves to the culture embedded in the language. In result,

many English learners apply the culture partially and most likely mixing it with the culture of their native language. In other words, it is producing foreign language in the thought pattern of native language. Thus, code switching and mixing between languages is inevitable.

In line with that phenomenon, code switching among English learners happens to be widespread. Mixing the language as well as partially applying Indonesian/Javanese culture in daily conversation turns out to be a remarkable trend; including conversation in text messages. People have tendencies to maintain setting of conversation in text messages similar to the conversation in real situation. Additionally, politeness strategy is implemented in text messages since indirect communication may result in misconception. Politeness strategy used by English learners in text messages obviously appears in a situation when the interlocutors are not in the same level; be in different age, status, power, or distance. This occurrence can be vividly observed as the result of the cultural mixture of foreign language and native language.

Previous researches on code switching and code mixing vary from research on Mixing and Switching Languages in SMS Message by Apriana (2006), The Use of Terms of Address, Code Mixing and Code Switching in Online Facebook Businesses by Larasati (2012). The research by Larasati (2012) has included politeness strategy in the code switching and code mixing phenomena. Taking different focus from the research by Apriana (2006) that dwelling messages sent among students, this study is investigating the text messages sent by English Department students to lecturers. The study is applying linguistic analyses which focus on inter-sentential switching, and sociolinguistic studies that treat code-switching as a mode of language use, where individuals act as members of specific communities, social or ethnic groups cover a broader range of phenomena (Gumperz, 2005).

Two main focuses of the research are, firstly, to find what types of code switching that appear in text messages sent by English Department students to lecturers. And, secondly, to find what politeness strategy is implemented in text messages sent by English Department students to lecturers.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Definition Code Switching

Code switching phenomena can be regarded from many perspectives; as from psychological, according to Vogt (1954) in Nilep (2006) code-switching in itself is perhaps not a linguistic phenomenon, but rather a psychological one, and its causes are obviously extralinguistic; and according to Poplack (2004), code switching is one of a number of the linguistic manifestations of language contact and mixing, which variously include borrowing on the lexical and syntactic levels, language transfer, linguistic convergence, interference, language attrition, language death, pidginization and creolization, among others.

In line with Poplack, Saville-Troike (2003:48) divides varieties of language into two distinctions: code switching and style shifting. Several terms are also in line with the two distinctions: (1) *codes*, as different language, or quite different varieties of the same language (comparable to classical versus colloquial Arabic). (2) *Code alternation*, refers to change in language according domain, or that another major communication boundaries (Gumperz, 1976). (3) *Code switching*, as to change in language within a single speech event. (4) *Style shifting*, refers to change in language varieties which involves changing only the code markers. (5) *Code markers* are variable features which are associated with such social and cultural dimensions as age, sex, social class, and relationship between speakers.

Types of Code Switching

Saville-Troike (2003) defines types of code switching into situational switching, metaphorical switching, and discourse contextualization switching. Also, the scope of switching; the nature of the juncture at which language change takes place: firstly, intersentential switching, a change which occurs between sentences or speech acts. For example, “*Maaf saya baru balas SMS. I think we should cancel the plan.*”; secondly, intrasentential switching, change which occurs within a single sentence. For example, “*What do you think, should we meet di tempat yang sama?*” When the two languages used in intrasentential switching that do not share the same word order, an additional distinction is needed between *guest* and *host* language (e.g. Sridhar, 1980) or between *matrix* and *embedded* (Myres-Scotton’s model, 1993).

Intrasentential style-shifting also occurs when the variety of language being used changes within a sentence, where an informal greeting is followed by a formal term of address. For example, “*Hi, Mr. President.*” However, such shifting may be quite inappropriate unless it is used intentionally for humorous purpose. In Javanese there are three levels of “status style” encoded in both grammar and lexicon: *Krama*, the most formal and polite (H); *Madya*, intermediate (M); and *Ngoko*, informal (L). The choice of levels to be used depends not only on the relationship and relative status of speaker and hearer, but also on that of persons being referred to.

Reason People Switch Language

According to Saville-Troike (2003) there are six reasons why people switch language: (1) humorous effect, it is applied to indicate that a referentially derogatory comment is not to be taken seriously; (2) A real lexical need cannot be satisfactory, the lack of equivalent lexical item in one language becomes the most common reason for people to switch language, or sometimes because access to one of the language is diminished; (3) to exclude other people, when a certain comment is intended for only limited audience, switch into other language is possible; (4) avoidance strategy, if certain forms are incompletely learned in one of the languages, or if one language requires (usually because of pronominal selection or verb inflection) a social status distinction one does not wish to make; (5) repair strategy, when the speakers realize they have been using an inappropriate code. Shifting for repair is necessary when speakers realize they have begun an event, such as a telephone conversation, at an inappropriate stylistic level; (6) make an ideological statement, example of this occurrence is when a person switch into local language in a certain occasion to show that one belongs to particular ethnic group.

Additional to reasons of switching language by Saville-Troike (2003), Gumpres (1982:75-80) also mentions function of switching language: (1) quotations, when people quote a direct speech of another language, a language switch may occur; (2) addressee specification, switch language is addressed to specific people; (3) interjections, interjection is used to mark sentence filler; (4) reiteration, a message may be repeated in another code, a rather simpler code, be it in other language so the message is understood better; (5) message qualification, when a person want to emphasize particular information, switch to other language is possible; (6) personalization vs objectification, the code contrast here seems to relate to such things as: the distinction between talk about action and talk as action, the degree of speaker involvement in, or distance from, a message, whether a statement reflects personal opinion or knowledge, whether it refers to specific in stances or has the authority of generally known fact.

Pragmatics

Brown and Levinson (1987) derive the notion “face” from that of Goffman (1967) and from the English folk term, which ties face up with notions of being embarrassed or humiliated, or “losing face”. Thus, face is something that is emotionally invested, and that can be lost, maintained, or enhanced, and must be constantly attended to in interaction.

There are two kinds of face wants: positive face and negative face. Brown and Levinson (1987:65) elaborated that there are some acts which can hurt the hearer’s positive face and negative face. Those acts which hurt the negative face of the hearers are: (1) those acts that predicate some future act S of H, and in so doing put some pressure on H to do (or refrain from doing) the act S; (2) those acts that predicate some positive future act of S toward H, and in so doing put some pressure on H to accept or reject them, and possibly to incur a debt; (3) those acts that predicate some desire of S toward H or H’s goods, giving H reason to think that he may have to take action to protect the object of S’s desire, or give it to S. There are two major classifications of acts which hurt positive face

Meanwhile, there are two acts which hurt the positive face of the hearers: firstly, those that show that S has a negative evaluation of some aspect of H’s positive face, and secondly, those that show that S doesn’t care about (or is indifferent to) H’s positive face.

Positive Politeness

Positive politeness is redress directed to the addressee’s positive face, his perennial desire that his wants (or the actions/acquisitions/values resulting from them) should be thought of as desirable. Redress consists in partially satisfying that desire by communicating that one’s own wants (or some of them are in some respect similar to the addressee’s wants (Brown and Levinson, 1987:101).

There are fifteen strategies of positive politeness, which are involved in three broad mechanisms: (1) claim “common ground”; (2) convey that S and H are cooperators; (3) fulfill H’s wants. This paper focuses on the first mechanism, claim common ground, which then specified to claim in-group membership with H. By using any of the innumerable ways to convey in-group membership, S can implicitly claim the common ground with H that is carried by that definition of the group. These include in-group usage of: address forms, of language or dialect, of jargon or slang, and of ellipsis. The use in-group language or dialect will be discussed further.

Use In-group Language or Dialect

The phenomenon of code switching involves any switch from one language or dialect to another in communities where the linguistics repertoire includes two or more codes. In situation where code switching occurs, we may expect a switch into the code associated with in-group and domestic values to be a potential way of encoding positive politeness when redress is required by an FTA. One of code switching types is a switch into a spurious dialect, or a dialect not normally used by S or H, to soften an FTA or turn it into a joke.

METHODOLOGY

The method of this study was descriptive qualitative since the researcher tried to obtain the text messages sent by English Department of State University of Malang students to lecturers. There was no data manipulation as they occurred naturally and the researcher did not inform the senders that their text messages were used for a research. The data were taken from text messages sent by students to lecturers and the replied from lecturers, in the sixth semester from January to May 2013.

The researcher collected text messages sent by English Department students batch 2010, 2011, and 2012 to lecturers, in range of the sixth semester only, starting from January to May 2013. The researcher chose the text messages that contain forms of language switching. Messages in *Bahasa Indonesia* or English were only separated because they do not contain code switching occurrences. The researcher saved several text messages in mobile phone and wrote down the rest as it was difficult to have the students send the text messages to the researcher.

The data analysis was carried out in several cycles. First, the researcher started by categorizing types of code switching in text messages based of Saville-Troike (2003). Second, the researcher analyzed the probable reason of the occurrences by taking politeness strategy by Brown and Levinson (1987) into consideration. Third, the researcher further analyzed the findings by taking perspective of preserving Indonesian culture. Then the last step was drawing conclusion of the study.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Types Code Switching that Appear in Text Messages Sent by English Department Students to Lecturers

It has been discussed that according to Saville-Troike (2003) there are two types of code switching. Each text message has been analyzed to find which types fit in the types.

Intersentential Switching

1. *Duh cerewet deh lu non.* I know that you don't understand, we will talk about it later. *Udah deh lo tenang aja, santai, hehehe.* (data 4)
2. *Lo ke rumah ibu aja non.* There're many people in my house. (data 7)
3. *Gak ada.* There's only two and it's all from 2011. (data 10)
4. *Ma'am nanti di smsin sama Navi.* I've told him (data 12)
5. *Yang non tes sudah belum? Kalau sudah nanti jam 09.00 an di Q3.* Tks. (data 25)
6. *Ass, Shinta. Hari ini ada keluarga saya di Blitar yang wafat.* So please the class I can't have ITL class tomorrow. *Kita make up Rabu 1-2 ya.* Thank you (data 28)
7. *Di Q3.206. Insyallah ya Shinta.* Thank you (data 30)

Occurrence no.1 (data 4) the speaker used *Bahasa Indonesia* to express complaint and feeling of being annoyed. The speaker did not use English for the speaker wanted to emphasize the quality of the message, which would be different if it had been expressed in English. The act of switching into *Bahasa Indonesia* is to show the humorous and make the situation less tense. Occurrence no.2 (data 7) is kind of situational switching, where the speaker thought that the setting of the conversation is not formal. This also shows the intimacy between two interlocutors. Occurrence no.3 (data 10) is probably an example of efficiency in the use of *Bahasa Indonesia*. Instead of typing 'nothing or none', it is easier to say 'gak ada'. Occurrence no.4 (data 12), the switch into English in the end of the utterance is to maintain the formal setting of the conversation. It will be less formal when the sentence 'I've told him' is expressed 'saya sudah kasih tahu dia', or even become inefficient when it is expressed in formal *Bahasa Indonesia* as 'saya sudah memberi tahu dia'. Occurrence no.5 (data 25) is a rather simple switch for using 'thanks'. The researcher included this occurrence into type of intersentential switching since it occurs between sentences, and there are two sentences separated by a period. Typing 'tks', for the abbreviation of thanks, is more efficient than abbreviating 'terima kasih'. Occurrence no.6 (data 28) is quite unique text for it shows two types of code switching. The switch into English is to show the urgency of the message, or message qualification. Moreover, by using English the formal setting of the conversation can be achieved. Occurrence no.7 (data 30) is similar to data 25 which is a simple English switch. It is not due to the lack of lexical expression, but it is for the sake of efficiency. It is almost impossible to exclude the fact that text message requires efficiency and provide people with limited space, it means that people shorten the message so that they can use the capacity as efficient as possible (Apriana, 2006).

Intrasentential Switching

1. Oh okedeh Ma'am, hehehe. (data 5)
2. Oh oke deh Ma'am. Dieng kan Ma'am ya? (data 8)



3. *Waduh, udah di list Navi, Ma'am kemarin. Udah dikumpulin juga* (data 11)
4. *Office. Jam 11* (data 15)
5. *Lalu bagaimana make up class nya, Sir?* (data 18)
6. *Kita make up Rabu 1-2 ya* (data 28)
7. *Walaikumsalam. Innalillahi wainnailairajiu. Baik Mam sudah saya infokan ke teman2. Hari Rabu 1-2 nanti apakah di gd Q3/D7 Mam?* (data 29)

The intrasentential switching occurs mostly in the use of pronoun Ma'am or Sir (e.g. data 5, data 8, data 11, data 18, and data 29). This occurred as a result of direct translation of conversation in *Bahasa Indonesia* setting that people commonly address the interlocutor with 'Bu' or 'Pak' to show politeness. The word 'make up class' or 'make up' has become a fixed lexical for English Department students as well as lecturers because to express it in *Bahasa Indonesia* necessitates longer syllable, thus it turns out to be ineffective. Additionally, occurrence no.1 (data 5) shows the humorous purpose of switching the language. Meanwhile, in occurrence no.2 (data 8) and no. 4 (data 15) show the efficiency of code switching since texting space provided is limited, i.e. the word 'di-list' and 'jam'. In preference to saying 'didaftar', mixing English lexical item and Indonesian morpheme becomes a successful solution. And, in place of saying 'o'clock', switching to *Bahasa Indonesia* is found to be shorter and efficient.

Politeness Strategy Used in Text Messages Sent by English Department Students to Lecturers

Findings show that intersentential switching used to show humor that indicates the close relationship between lecturers and students, to stress the quality of message in order to show the urgency, and to maintain conversation atmosphere in a formal or informal setting. While the intrasentential switching takes place on the pronoun level Ma'am/Sir and unalterable expression. These phenomena indicate that Indonesian culture is still demanding though applying a foreign language in daily conversation. Upholding a foreign language in first language mind-set is nothing but to maintain politeness to avoid FTA. There is a strong correlation between the form and content of a language and the beliefs, values, and needs present in the culture of its speakers. Multilingual speakers' production is likely to be influenced not only by the conventions of their native languages and cultures, but also by the knowledge they have of the addressees' language(s) and culture(s), by their knowledge of the resources of the linguistic code(s) selected, and by the expectations and attitudes they hold and develop in the process of interaction (Saville-Troike, 2003).

One distinguishable trend appeared in text message sent by English Department students to lecturers is that each time lecturers switch language into *Bahasa Indonesia* or English, students will directly follow it.

- U16 Good afternoon, Sir. Do we have Introduction to Philosophy of Language this afternoon?
- U17 *Maaf, saya ada rapat di pusat jam 1 siang.*
- U18 *Lalu bagaimana make up class nya, Sir?*
- U19 *Hari Jumat saja ya, di ruangan biasa (D8 304) jam 5-6*
- U20 Thank you, Sir.

The relative power of participants (interacting with social distance, strength of imposition, and contextdependent phenomena) will influence the nature of interaction strategies which are employed. In cases of asymmetrical exchanges, participants with more power will tend to use more politeness strategies which emphasize involvement and solidarity, while participants with less power will tend to use more strategies emphasizing distance and deference (Brown and Levinson, 1987).

This enculturation between two languages is salient evidence that by learning language, people learning knowledge, culture, and belief established in the lexical item. Most learners value their own group membership; some, however, reject their own group and wish to change; many may wish or need to function as members of more than one group and be "bicultural" as well as bilingual (Saville-Troike, 2003). However, no culture is better than other; mixing two cultures by applying one language yet maintaining another mind-set is indeed a unique phenomenon to keep a culture from extinction or assimilation.

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

Switching between two or more languages requires not only linguistics skill but also sociolinguistics competence. Various attitudes towards code switching may occur in teaching and learning foreign language: some may reject and others may accept. However, the crucial point of being bilingual and applying code switching is that people do not lose the culture embedded in the native language. Maintaining a culture, while performing a language is one way to show one's identity. Additions to that, English Department students have given adequate examples of maintaining culture of politeness through performing a foreign language.

It is suggested that people learning foreign language and its culture is beneficial when it is accompanied by deep and thorough understanding of their own culture. Cultural mixture definitely occurs, and language imperialism may happen when people put one language higher than other. Hence, to prevent such issue, applying valuable and suitable local culture while performing foreign language may become a solution. However, performing a foreign language abroad or home needs a deep cross cultural understanding about where, when, and who the language is applied. Thus, communicative language learning can be achieved.

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DOG AND THE “OTHER DOG”

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Abstract

Translating cultural identity is a meaningful challenge to bring the message of cultural meaning from the source text successfully. Maintaining local identity actually shapes our mindset into the existence of culture itself. However, the problem of loss and gain is unavoidable because the similarity between two languages cannot exist. Therefore, it complicates the understanding of meaning in the translation. One characteristic of cultural identity is the common words containing cultural overtones. The phenomena of culturally loaded words also happened in the translation of Djenar Maesa Ayu's Indonesian short story entitled *Wong Asu*. *Wong Asu*, Javanese language, is translated in English into *The Dog Man*. The word 'dog' in Indonesia is a swear word, whereas in English, people never say 'dog' to swear. The findings were found in the sentences containing the word 'dog'. There is a different concept of understanding 'dog' in each perspective seen from the responses of the participant. By using semantic translation method, the analysis compares the two languages and the changes in its translation. Semantic study is also used to see the meaning of both words referentially and organizationally. The purpose of translation becomes impossible when the target language is still elusive.

Keywords: semantics, semantics translation, sociolinguistics, idiomatic translation

Word Meaning and Its Context

Study in meaning cannot be separated with the context in which the words placed. Besides, the concept of word meaning actually has been kept in our mind. When someone says 'table', we will imagine the shape of table which is a place used to place something whether or not it has four legs or less. However, sometimes, what we mean by the word 'table' does not refer to the table in lexical meaning. This idea is the same as when we understand a word in certain language that may have different concepts in another language. This idea is the same with Nida who states 'a single word may have number of quite different meanings' (1975:11).

Nida divides meaning into two types, referential meaning (denotation) and connotative meaning (connotation). Denotation deals with the words as signs or symbols, while connotation is related to the emotional reaction endangered in the reader by a word (Basil Hatim and Jeremy Munday; 2004:35). The example of referential meaning could be seen in the previous study about meaning conducted by Nina Megawati, an English Letters student of Sanata Dharma University, in her thesis entitled *The Study of Meaning Extension of Compound Boy* (2011). Her focus of the study is on the componential analysis of the semantic features and shifting meanings of the lexicon 'boy' after it is compounded and formed into a new compound word. She defined a boy as a very young man, but then the word 'boy' has a new meaning after it becomes *barrow boy*, *bus boy*, *cabin boy*, *office boy*, and *pin boy*, for instance (2011:xii). The word 'boy' has wider range of senses rather than it is seen as a very young boy. On the other side, connotation can be understood as the suggesting of a meaning by a word apart from the thing it explicitly names or describes (www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary). It continues Nida's concept of connotation. The word 'childlike', for instance, contains connotation as innocent.

Regarding this, the context of situation is important because, as stated by Malinowski, 'the cultural context to be crucial in the interpretation of the message'. In daily conversation, 'the meaning of some words may be stated by pointing at object to which they refer' (Simpson; 1979:177), called ostensive definition. It is different from understanding the meaning that is implied in a text because we should have adequate knowledge or understand its context. The importance of having context in which the word is used, based on *A First Course in Linguistics* about semantics, is 'a word is limited to certain context' and 'the context decides the meaning of word may have' (Simpson; 1979:177).

Communicating the Cultural Meaning

Translation is a tool to communicate a text into different language. According to Mildred Larson (1984), it 'consists of transferring without distortion the meaning of the source language into the target language, meaning which must be kept constant, even when the form of the source language changes as it is turned into the form of the target language'. It means that in one word, sometimes, it has more than one meaning or called polysemi. For example, the word 'boy' can be understood as, 1) a male servant, 2) a male child from birth to adulthood, and 3) an

immature male. Basic understanding of this study is to understand the concept of meaning both in the source language (SL) and in the target language (TL). It becomes a challenge for the translator to communicating the meaning. In Bahasa Indonesia, 'boy' as a male servant is translated into *pelayan* regardless of the fact that the servant is male or female. Meanwhile, for 'boy' as an immature male, it is translated into *remaja*. If it is adhered to male, it becomes *remaja putera*, but if it is for female, it becomes *remaja putri*. Another case of translation also appears in English words, such as *brown* and *chair* can not be translated into French. '*Brown* is translated into French with *burn*, and sometimes with *marron*'. Then, *brown* for men's shoes is translated into *jaune*, in which we usually think of as meaning *yellow*.

In idiomatic translation, a text should be translated as natural as possible in the target language. "Idiomatic translation uses the natural forms of the receptor language, both in the grammatical constructions and in the choice of lexical items. A truly idiomatic translation does not sound like a translation" (Larson, 1984:16). Even if the criteria of good translation are like idiomatic translation, the whole meaning of SL is sometimes unable to be adjusted in the TL. Perhaps, the word can be translated but there is a shifting in meaning in which the sense of word is different from the origin. This is called as loss and gain in translation. Susan Bassnett (2002), wrote that 'Eugene Nida' that had much information about the problems of loss in translation, 'in particular about the difficulties encountered by the translator when faced with terms or concepts in the SL that do not exist in the TL' (page 36). This quote is actually talking about the possibilities that happen on the SL after being translated. The difficulty in the way of translating terms or concepts from SL to TL demands the translator to write additional information in order to make the meaning understandable, if it is necessary.

Every language has special characteristic pertaining the existence of words to reflect identity of its culture. This idea is similar to the article in *China Papers* (posted on June 3, 2010) which states cultural loaded words 'refer to words with national and cultural characteristics. One of the remarkable features of such words is their uniqueness of meaning: it is impossible to find a corresponding word in other languages. Because of their peculiar national features, culturally-loaded words are those with the thickest cultural colouring in the complete lexicon of any language' (<http://mt.china-papers.com/2/?p=141856>, downloaded on September 17, 2012). The uniqueness is on the meaning that concepts national and cultural characteristics. Lexically, the complete meaning never occurs in other language. It becomes the value of culturally loaded words which are unchangeable.

The way to examine the basic meaning of a word and allow contrast with other terms in the same semantic field is by using componential analysis (Hatim and Munday; 2004:38). It will acknowledge the semantic features of words to see the kinship terms in different cultures.

'Dog' in Cultural Context

Wong Asu (2003), a short story written by Djenar Maesa Ayu that translated into *The Dog Man* (2005), is actually taken from Javanese language. *Wong* is *manusia* in Bahasa Indonesia and *man* in English. However, the meaning is the same, which is as people. In Javanese, people say *wong asu* as a swear word, referring to person that behaves like a dog or annoying person that make someone else in a high temper. This meaning is similar to 'anjing' but it should be seen in the context where the word is used.

In the translation of *Wong Asu* by Michael Nieto Gracia, there is a meaning shift from the word 'asu' becomes 'dog'. When 'asu' stands alone, not combined by other word, the meaning could be as an animal or a swear word. Besides, people say 'asu' or 'anjing' when they see something incredible as well. However, when the word 'asu' is compounded that becomes 'wong asu', it only means as a swear word. Meanwhile, the concept of this kind of swearword is different from the word in English. Therefore, what happened in *The Dog Man*?

There are some words ending with 'man' such as Spiderman, Batman, and Superman. They refer to the character that moves certain action. Spiderman consists of two words, spider and man, so do in batman and superman. Spiderman is a human that has power and action like a spider. Batman is a human with bat-like. Also, superman has super power in his action. Are they similar with *The Dog Man*? The answer is they are not similar. What makes it different from the other examples is that *The Dog Man* does not come in one word but there is space between *dog* and *man*. This means *the dog man* is not for human whose appearance is like a dog or he is able to bark, like Spiderman who can produce nets from his hands.

When it is translated into *The Dog Man*, there is something lost in the nuance of the original language. The story did not adjust 'asu' into the word of TL that has the same meaning with 'dog' in SL. There are three meaning of the word 'dog' as a noun based on Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (1995). The first is a common animal with four legs and often kept by human beings as pets, or trained work, hunting, guarding, etc. The second meaning is as a male person, especially one who has done something unpleasant or wicked. The third meaning is for a thing that has poor quality. From dictionary, I did not find any meaning that can be adjusted to translate *asu*. Even in Oxford Dictionary, the meaning of dog that is for someone who does something unpleasant and has poor quality is



not enough to transfer the meaning well. What kind of unpleasant thing that can be said as animal-like? Or, what kind of poor quality that reflects the quality of being dog? Meanwhile, *Wong Asu* does not point to male only, but it can adhere to male or female. This does not point to a thing but for human specifically.

Through the conversation, there seems have level in which the word 'dog' is expressed (see *They Say I'm a Monkey!* page 70-71). There are *that dog man*, *that human dog*, *the dog*, *what a dog!*, *the dog!*, *doggg!*, and *you dog!*. The context is when the speaker A (-) tells the story that lit up the temper of the speaker B (+). Table 1 is provided to depict the comparison below.

No	Source Text	Target Text
1.	Wong Asu	That Dog Man
2.	Manusia Anjing	That human dog
3.	Anjing	The dog
4.	Anjingggg!	Dogggg!
5.	Benar-benar anjing	What a dog!
6.	Anjing, lu..	You dog!

Table 1. Comparison between the source text of Ayu's "Wong Asu" and its translation

Table 1 shows the expression through the word 'anjing' from the lowest response until the highest response by saying the person who talks with behaviour like a dog. Meanwhile, in English, showing the response to such a thing is not expressed by saying 'dog', but loudly to say *damn*, *shit*, or *bastard*.

Those that occur in target language culture are unable to cover the idea that comes up in the source text. It seems the language of TL has no problem to understand. On the contrary, even if the translator tried to maintain the word 'anjing' and 'asu' in it, giving response using the word 'dog' is not common in English. This has destroyed the essence of saying 'dog' in SL.

To acknowledge the loss and gain in this translation, the componential analysis will see semantic features on both languages as the comparison.

Anjing	$\left[\begin{array}{l} + \textit{animate} \\ + \textit{human} \\ \pm \textit{male} \end{array} \right]$	Dog	$\left[\begin{array}{l} + \textit{animate} \\ - \textit{human} \\ \pm \textit{male} \end{array} \right]$
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Biologically, the difference is on the feature [+ human] that exists in Bahasa Indonesia, while in English [- human]. This means that meaning of *dog*, in this case, does not point a person.

Here, I excerpt a poem titled *Asu* written by an Indonesian famous poet Joko Pinurbo as the comparison. It has also difficulty of the word 'asu' if it is translated.

Di saat yang membahayakan itu saya teringat Ayah.
Dulu saya sering menemani Ayah menulis.
Sesekali Ayah terlihat kesal, memukul-mukul
mesin ketikanya dan mengumpat, "Asu!"
Kali lain, saat menemukan puisi bagus di koran,
Ayah tersenyum senang dan berseru, "Asu!"
Saat bertemu temannya di jalan,
Ayah dan temannya dengan tangkas bertukar asu.

Pernah saya bertanya, "Asu itu apa, Yah?"
"Asu itu anjing yang baik hati," jawab Ayah.
Kemudian ganti saya ditanya,
"Coba, menurut kamu, asu itu apa?"
"Asu itu anjing yang suka minum susu," jawab saya.

Sementara saya melangkah mundur,
anjing itu maju terus dengan nyalang.

Demi Ayah, saya ucapkan salam, "Selamat sore, asu."
Ia kaget. Saya ulangi salam saya, "Selamat sore, su!"
Anjing itu pun minggir, menyilakan saya lanjut jalan.
Dari belakang sana terdengar teriakan,
"Tolong, tolong...! Anjing, anjing...!"

(Joko Pinurbo, <http://jokopinurbo.blogspot.com/2011/12/asu.html>)

The poem tells a story about a child and his experience with the word 'asu'. There are two meanings of 'asu', in which it stands for an animal and for a character of animal-like. Moreover, the poem has an element to entertain people with 'asu' that can not be replaced by any other words. Perhaps, we can translate 'asu', as a four-legged animal, into dog, but how about 'asu' that stands for swearing or feeling of excitement? For example, if we translate 'asu' (as swearing word) into *bastard*, that the meaning is similar, the sense of using 'asu' in source text will be shifted and the characteristic of cultural loaded word is lost. As a translator, we have to adjust the word according to the cultural context of target text.

Meanwhile, in term of sociolinguistics, *dog* in English symbolized loyalty because a dog always follows the owner. It is different from Indonesian culture that most people consider dog as an animal which tends to be avoided. Perhaps, not all parts of Indonesia consider dog as taboo. This is the uniqueness of meaning in which, sometimes, the meaning for one thing belongs to the majority (for addition, Muslim has a large number in Indonesia), then the meaning itself becomes the concept of the national characteristic.

Loss and Gain in Translating 'dog'

Even if componential analysis becomes a tool in the analysis, according to Roger T. Bell's *Translation and Translating: Theory and Practice* (1991), this approach has two major problems. The first is 'that the 'features' proposed for the analysis of any item are arbitrary' (p. 90). This makes the features of a word sometimes is not necessarily a problem because the criteria for one user may turn out to be trivial or secondary for another. The second one is 'the binary nature of the features (possession or non-possession)' (p. 90). What happened in translating the word 'anjing' is TT, becomes 'dog', can not fulfill the satisfactory of lexical entry from ST because 'dog' has multiple meaning that may also have different meaning in other language. The impact of this is multi-intepretation towards the word. Even though the semantic features shows what loss of the word 'dog' in its translation, there has another meaning of 'dog' which is not as the primary meaning in that context. In this story, the problem comes up in term of understanding the meaning of the word 'dog'. There is different concept of the word 'dog' between the two speakers that cannot be achieved in TT. This problem in semantics is actually on how function of the word is understood. It is about the intention of the speaker A using this word and the reaction of the other speaker or participant (B).

The first is the intention of A using 'dog' to refer human behaviour. It shows a metaphor of the word itself. Both in ST and TT, the meaning of word is the same which points to criticize human behaviour. The word chosen by A tends to elicit the intention from the hearer, as stated in its story (*They Say I'm a Monkey!*, p. 70) "He behaved like a dog".

The second is the reaction of B in understanding the word 'dog' from A. From the responses shown by B, it implies that A succeeded to deliver his tension by using such word. There are levels in which B showing the temper arouses in responding A (see the table above). When B says 'anjing!' for swearing, it means there is something unexpected and make him annoying. By swearing 'anjing lu', B actually supposes that A has exaggerated the story and A is the person that behaves like a dog. There is meaning of word 'dog' that is not in agreement with the B.

In its translation, the responses of B are going to show disagreement towards A as well. Unfortunately, saying 'the dog', 'doggg!', 'what a dog!', and 'you dog!' cannot deliver ssuccessfully the meaning in ST. When the word 'dog' is applied in TT either as a single word or a phrase, the meaning is not as cruel as in ST. This is called as euphemism of the word 'dog' in Bahasa Indonesia. Lyons in *Linguistic Semantics* (2005) discuss 'the lexeme dog denotes a class of entities in the external world'. The relation that 'holds between 'dog' and other expressions of the same language system may be identified as one of its sense relations. Therefore, this translation has decreased the sence of meaning in that context.

Final Remarks

In the translation of *Wong Asu* into *The Dog Man*, there is a different meaning towards the word 'dog'. The word 'dog' (*anjing*) in Bahasa Indonesia refers to cruel language to show something in disagreement that evokes temper both for speaker and hearer. On the contrary, in English, it is an animal that symbolizes a loyal person if it is pointed to someone. This analysis is derived by seeing the semantic features in both ST and TT and sociocultural

circumstances where the word exists. The differences influence its translation in which the essence of the word 'dog' in TT has *softened* the meaning from the original one. It is because the word 'dog' contains cultural word that the meaning is absent in another language. The difficulty of translating 'asu' into dog comes up because of the difficulty in, as Lyons said, 'defining characteristics of the natural kind'. Most English speakers have difficulty in denoting 'dog', whether it is for an individual entity or for scientific purposes. Lyons also said there is no reason to say that the meaning of natural-kind words differs qualitatively from the meaning of words denoting cultural kinds. It means that wherever a word is standing, it is closely related to the cultural context. It is difficult to maintain cultural identity in order to create a translation as natural as possible because the culture of source language is sometimes different from the target language.

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THE AFFIXATION PROCESS OF BAHASA BINAN

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Abstract

Language is a means of communication that allows the respective speakers to elicit what is on their mind through words, phrases, and sounds. The role of language as the medium of communication constitutes a characteristic of language to be flexible towards the time changes, social classes, and socio-economic dimensions. Therefore, the variations of language such as dialects, registers, and slangs exist as the result of these characteristics. *Bahasa Indonesia* as the official language of Indonesia is notably having a language variation that is often called *Bahasa Banci* by the lay people although the formal term referring to the respective language variation is *Bahasa Binan*. Some linguists categorized *Bahasa Binan* as a dialectical language variation of *Bahasa Indonesia*. This language variation was primarily used by the transgender community in Indonesia as a communication medium that accommodated their secret conversations. It was known to have seven variations namely *si-* variation, *-ong* variation, *-es* variation, *-i* variation, *-in-* variation, *-se* variation, and free mixing. This paper attempted to analyze the affixation process according to the seven variations of *Bahasa Binan*. This paper based its data on the dictionary of *Bahasa Binan* by Agung Soedjono, Ibhoed and Adi Wahono (1995). This paper focused on three main types of affixation namely derivational morphology and inflectional morphology as well as the multiple affixation process of *Bahasa Binan*. The writer found that the process of affixation in *Bahasa Binan* mostly followed the process of affixation in *Bahasa Indonesia* although some words also appeared to undergo the unique affixation process that was different from the common affixation process.

Keywords: Bahasa Binan, affixation, derivational morphology, inflectional morphology, multiple affixations

INTRODUCTION

The nature of language that can be formed by the natives allows the language to be varied according to the needs of the speakers. The different geographical separations and social classes or socioeconomic dimensions in fact shape the different forms of communication. Therefore, it can be found language variations that are mostly shaped by the geographical separation and slangs that mostly are triggered by the different social classes.

Taking the issue of a language variation as a concern, according to Akmajian, Demers, Farmer, and Harnish (2001), the term dialect or language variation refers to a form of a language that is regarded as substandard, incorrect, or corrupt. A language variation is actually the opposition of the official language whose nature is standard, correct, or pure. In addition to it, Roach (2009) also says that a variety of a particular language covers the differences on vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation (Koudelkova, 2012). Therefore, based on the explanation above, it can be said that a dialect or language variation must be a language other than the official language that is commonly used by people in majority.

In par with the definition above, Napoli (1996) adds that a dialect must be a variety of speech that is processed through many factors such as geographical area and socioeconomic class. This definition implies that a dialect is a variation of a language according to the regional preferences of language interlocutors and according to the social class and profession of the interlocutors. It signifies that speakers' relationship to their language is really close since their characteristics, jobs, and social classes are reflected through the language they use.

Bahasa Binan is basically a language variation of *Bahasa Indonesia* (Oetomo, 2004, p. 68). It was privately used by the transgender people in Indonesia and it shaped the transgender community as the initial speaker community of this language. In addition to the statement above, Boellstroff (2004) says that *Bahasa Binan* is actually a dialectical register of *Bahasa Indonesia* as he forms this assumption from the perspective of the language use. Therefore, it can be concluded that the initial role of *Bahasa Binan* was as a language that embraced the transgender communities in Indonesia. In addition to it, Oetomo (2001) also supports that *Bahasa Binan* was previously used to avoid lay people to understand the transgender speech so that the ones who understood the speech were solely the speakers of *Bahasa Binan*. In the terms of vocabulary, most of the time the vocabulary of *Bahasa Binan* modify the vocabulary of *Bahasa Indonesia* by adding affixes and word modification.

Recently, there is a pattern of speakers shift on the language as the speakers of *Bahasa Binan* are not merely transgender but also the lay people. Around 1990 in Indonesia, it was noticed that there were some radio



advertisements in Indonesia employing *Bahasa Binan* to attract the listeners. The magnitude effect of radio advertisements affected the society to have the variation of advertisements using *Bahasa Binan*. This fact was justified by the common occurrences of the social advertisements of presidential election (*Pemilu*) on TV in 1999 and a TV serial named *Lenong Rumpi* in which a transgender appeared as one of the main characters (Oetomo, 2001).

There is one research question to answer in this study. This study is aimed to answer the question of how the process of affixation happens in *Bahasa Binan*. To find the answer, the writer analyzes the words from the dictionary *Bahasa Binan* by Agung Soedjono, Ibhoe and Adi Wahono (1995). The writer bases this study on the theory of affixation proposed by Akmajian, et al. (2001) and O'Grady, et al. (2010). The writer also bases the analysis of affixation in *Bahasa Binan* on the process of affixation in *Bahasa Indonesia* as *Bahasa Binan* is noted as the language variation of *Bahasa Indonesia*. Therefore, the linguistic nature of *Bahasa Binan* would share some similarities to *Bahasa Indonesia*. The writer uses dictionary of *Bahasa Binan* as the primary data of study and analyzes some supporting documents such as books, journals, and theses on morphology and *Bahasa Binan* to gain the deeper information on affixation of the language variation.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Before the word affixation is defined, it would be easier to find the definition of the word “affix” beforehand. According to Akmajian, et al. (2001), affix means a bound morpheme attached to a stem or a base/root word and it modifies the meaning in some way. They add that, many times affix is dealing with the thing that indicates the person, number, gender, or tense in a language. Prefixes, infixes, and suffixes are the common kinds of affixes that are determined by the place of the affixes to the base words. From the definition above, it can be concluded that the process of affixation must be dealing with the affix attachment to a base/root word. This conclusion is topped off by the definition offered by O'Grady, et al., (2010). According to them, affixation is the process of attaching an affix that results in the changes of meaning. Therefore, once the base words are attached by affixes, the meaning of the base words will change anyway.

1. Derivational Morphology

According to O'Grady, et al. (2010), derivation is “an affixational process that forms a word with a meaning and/or category distinct from that of its base” (p. 122). The theory above suggests that derivation is actually a process dealing with the addition of the affixes that results in the changes of the meaning and or the category of a base word attached. The explanation above is supported by Ralph W. Fasold and Jeff Connor-Linton (Eds.) (2006) that provide the further definition of derivational morphology. They claim that derivational morphology is a process of word formation that is mostly dealing with the creation of new lexemes from the existing ones and it is often with a change in meaning. There are three types of affix addition in *Bahasa Indonesia* namely prefix addition, infix addition, and suffix addition. The clear definitions of the process of suffix addition, prefix addition, and infix addition are described below.

a. Suffix Addition

According to Parera (2007), *Bahasa Indonesia* is known to have several popular suffixes such as *-an*, *-i*, and *-wan*. Sneddon, et al. (1996) provide some examples of the words attached by suffixes in *Bahasa Indonesia* such as *bulanan*, *hewani*, and *wartawan*. Many times, suffix addition affects the word category and the meaning of the words in *Bahasa Indonesia*. This appears in *bulanan* that is constituted from the noun *bulan* that means “month” and the suffix *-an*. It turns out that after the addition, the word category turns into the adjective *bulanan* as in *majalah bulanan* or “monthly magazine.”

However, this rule does not seem to apply in all the cases as it is depicted in the word *wartawan* which is formed by the attachment of *-wan* to the noun *warta* meaning “news.” In fact, the attachment of *-wan* does not change the word category of the word *warta*. It instead only affects the meaning of *warta* as the word turns to mean “a male journalist” right after the suffix *-wan* is attached to the base word *warta*. To conclude them all, it can be said that the pattern of suffix addition in *Bahasa Indonesia* does not always appear to be the same.

b. Prefix Addition

Another derivational morphology process relying on affixation is the use of prefixes that usually does not change the semantic feature of a word. This means that the addition of prefixes to a noun will not change it into an adjective or a verb. There are some affixes known as prefixes in *Bahasa Indonesia* such as *ber-* as in *beragama*, *me-* as in *melihat*, *ke-* as in *kekasih*, *pe-* as in *pemuda*, *per-* as in *pertanda*, *se-* as in *seorang*, and *ter-* as in *tercatat*. The effect of the prefix addition to the base words in *Bahasa Indonesia* actually behaves identically as English. Most of the time

the addition of prefix in *Bahasa Indonesia* changes the category of words such as the addition of prefix *ber-* to the noun *agama*. In fact, there is also a meaning change in the noun *agama* which turns into the verb *beragama* that means “to have a religion.”

However, this effect could not be applied to all the cases of prefix addition as it can be seen in *pertanda* that is derived from the base word *tanda* and the prefix *per-* addition. It turns out that the addition of *per-* to the noun *tanda* which means “signs” does not change the word category of the base words into adjective or even verb (Sneddon, et al., 1996). From the explanation above, it can be said that the rules of prefix addition in *Bahasa Indonesia* could not be rigidly formed as it often appears to have anomaly of prefix addition effects.

c. Infix Addition

Fromkin, et al. (2003) define infix addition as the addition of a bound morpheme that is inserted in the middle of another morpheme. In accordance with it, Fasold, et al. (2006) say that infix is the affix that appears inside the base to which it is applied. The definitions above constitute a main understanding that the infix addition must be the addition of affix that is located in the middle of the base words in order to vary the meaning of the words.

According to Sneddon, et al. (1996), there are some affixes known as the infixes such as *-em-* as in *g-em-etar*, *-el-* as in *t-el-apak*, and *-er-* as in *s-er-uling*. They then explain that the addition of infix in *Bahasa Indonesia* somehow affects the meaning of the words such as the word *gerigi* that means “serration.” The word *gerigi* is actually derived from the word *gigi* that means “tooth.” However, the meaning of the word *gigi* turns into *gerigi* simply because the addition of affix *-er-* to the base word. The explanation on infix addition above allows the rough conclusion to be formed that many times the addition of infix to the base words does not change the word category of the base words as it appears in *gerigi* that the addition of *-er-* to the noun *gigi* does not change the word category of the base word into other category.

From the description above, it can be concluded that derivational morphology are always dealing with the process of suffixes, prefixes, and infix addition. Suffix addition is usually affecting the semantic feature of a certain word. Thus, this allows the speaker of the language to form a noun from a verb or vice versa as well as to designate the word as a new independent word. The different case happens to prefixes addition. Usually the prefix addition and infix addition do not have something to do with the changes of word category but indeed the addition of prefixes and infixes to the root words will change the meaning of the root words. Therefore, it can be said that there is no absolute theory that is strictly ruling the addition of affixes and defining the effects of the addition to the word category.

2. Inflectional Morphology

O’Grady et al. (2010) describe that inflectional morphology, on the other hand, is always dealing with “the modification of a word’s form to indicate grammatical information or various sorts” (p. 131). Fasold and Connor-Linton (Eds.) (2006) afterwards support the definition by saying that inflectional morphology commonly adds the grammatical information to a lexeme in accordance with the particular syntactic requirements of a language. Finch (2009) also claims that inflectional morphology is more concerned with the grammatical processes such as the forming of past tense, plural, and present participle.

According to some linguists such as Kridalaksana (2007) and Sneddon, et al. (1996), there are only a few cases of inflectional affixes in *Bahasa Indonesia*. They say that most of the affixation cases in *Bahasa Indonesia* are derivational affixes. According to Parera (2007), inflectional morphology in *Bahasa Indonesia* usually only happens in several conditions that are related to gender, comparison, aspect and time, and the active and passive form. The description of inflectional morphology in *Bahasa Indonesia* is taken from Parera (2007) as depicted in Table 3. From Table 3, it can be seen that *Bahasa Indonesia* also has three kinds of inflection namely verb inflection, noun inflection, and adjective inflection. The noun inflection in *Bahasa Indonesia* appears in the word *pemuda* that is turned to be *pemudi* to denote the gender difference as *pemuda* is only used to convey the group of man while *pemudi* is only used to describe the group of woman.

Table 3 Inflection in Bahasa Indonesia

Base Word	Inflection	Word Category	Inflection Category
<i>Pemuda</i>	<i>Pemudi</i>	Noun	Gender
<i>Wartawan</i>	<i>Wartawati</i>	Noun	Gender
<i>Melihat</i>	<i>Melihat-lihat</i>	Verb	Aspect
<i>Menghormati</i>	<i>Dihormati</i>	Verb	Active/passive

Base Word	Inflection	Word Category	Inflection Category
<i>Kecil</i>	<i>Kecilan</i>	Adjective	Comparison
<i>Cepat</i>	<i>Cepat-cepat</i>	Adjective	Comparison

Note. From “Morfologi Bahasa,” by Jos Daniel Parera, 2007, p. 23

The same case also happens to the verb inflection and adjective inflection. Verb inflection that appears in the word *menghormati* in fact turns into *dihormati* when the speaker intends to convey the passivity of a sentence. Therefore, it can be drawn a generalization that the way to form a passive word in *Bahasa Indonesia* is simply by substituting the already existing affix *me-* with *di-*. The same case also happens to the adjective inflection that is usually dealing with the addition of *-an* to the adjectives as it appears in the word *kecilan*.

METHODOLOGY

The writer conducted the research by following the nature of qualitative research. Fraenkel (1993) defines qualitative research as a research that deals with the relationship, activities, or materials. In other words, it can be said the qualitative research employs some materials aiming to achieve the clear depiction of relationship, activities, or materials within a language phenomenon. One of the research materials that can be used in the qualitative research is printed document in which the process of the analysis usually refers to the term “document analysis.” According to Leedy and Omrod (2002), document analysis is the systematic explanation of the contents of materials aiming to identify the patterns, themes, or biases. They then continue that some of the materials that can be used by the writer of a study are books, newspapers, films, TV programs, arts, music, videotapes, and transcripts of conversation (p. 142).

The writer used dictionaries as the main source of words to observe. The writer chose the dictionary of *Bahasa Binan* entitled *Kamus Bahasa Gay* by Agung Soedjono, Ibhoe and Adi Wahono (1995) published by “Penerbit Gaya Nusantara.” The respective dictionary is noted as a dictionary that provides reliable words of *Bahasa Binan* as well as the reliable contextual meanings and the word usage in phrases. The nature of the words enables the writer to see the phenomenon of affixation in *Bahasa Binan* easily.

The writer also used tables and library study. The tables were used to see the pattern of affixation found in *Bahasa Binan* discretely. The writer employed library study on the theories of affixation by Akmajian, Demers, Farmer, and Harnish (2001) and William O’Grady, John Archibald, Mark Aronoff, and Janie Ress-Miller (2010). Therefore, most of the time the analysis of affixation in *Bahasa Binan* would be based on the description of affixation theories cited from those respective linguists. In analysing the data, the writer mostly followed the technique of analysis by Creswell (1998) cited from Leedy and Ormord’s work (2005). Creswell (1998) claims that there are four processes in analysing the data in a study namely organizing data, examining data, identifying the general categories and classifying the data, and integrating and summarizing the data.

FINDING AND DISCUSSION

1. Affixation

Affix is defined as the smallest unit of word or a morpheme that is attached to a stem or base word. The affixation is the process in which the speakers of the language add affixes to the words in order to form the new words. The writer found that there are many cases affixation in *Bahasa Binan*. Among the three types of affixation namely prefix, suffix, and infix, the case of suffix addition appears as the case that happens more frequently in *Bahasa Binan*. Most of the time the case of suffixation in *Bahasa Binan* results in changing the meaning as well as the part of speech of the attached words. Below is describing the process of affix addition in *Bahasa Binan*.

1.1 Multiple Affixation

Syllable substitution is the part mainly elaborating the phenomenon of word formation in *Bahasa Binan* according to the seven variations of *Bahasa Binan* by Oetomo (2001). Oetomo (2001) provides some variations in *Bahasa Binan* namely *si-* variation, *-ong* variation, *-es* variation, *-i* variation, *-in-* variation, *-se* variation, and free mixing. From the data analysis, the writer found that the phenomenon of seven variations of word formation in *Bahasa Binan* by Oetomo (2010) is actually included within the discussion of affixation. The affixation in *Bahasa Binan* mostly closes the opportunity to only employ one process of affix addition. In other words, it can be said that affixation in *Bahasa Binan* mostly employ multiple affixation. Thus, the complex affixation or multiple affixation means the process of affixation that requires more than one process of affixation.

Among the seven variations of *Bahasa Binan*, the writer only found five variations in the dictionary of *Bahasa Binan* by Agung Soedjono, Ibhoe and Adi Wahono (1995). The five variations are *-ong* variation, *-es* variation, *-se* variation, and *-i* variation. The five variations found in the dictionary are described as follows.

Table 1.2.1 Table of Complex Affixation

Word	Root Word
<i>Belong</i>	<i>Bulu</i>
<i>Beyes</i>	<i>Bayar</i>
<i>Binan</i>	<i>Banci</i>
<i>Cinse</i>	<i>Cina</i>
<i>Kenti</i>	<i>Kontrol</i>

Based on the table 1.2.1, it can be seen that the word *belong* is actually a word that is constituted by combining the affix *-ong* to the *Bahasa Indonesia*'s word *bulu* that means "hair" or "fur" in English. Oetomo, et al. (2010) say that in order to form the word in *Bahasa Binan* through *-ong* variation, the speakers need to change the vowels in the first syllable with "e" and substitute the last syllable with *-ong* without omitting the first consonant in the syllable. Therefore, it can be seen that there is a process of changing the first vowel "u" that is located in the first syllable of the word *bulu* into "e" before finally the vowel "u" in the last syllable is substituted by the affix *-ong* without omitting the consonant "l". The same case also happens to the word *bencong* that is derived from the word *banci*. It is seen that there is a process of changing the first vowel in the first syllable of the word *banci* into "e" before finally the last vowel in the last syllable is substituted by *-ong* without omitting the consonant "c."

The second variation appears is *-es* variation that is represented by the word *beyes*. According to Oetomo (2010), *-es* variation follows perfectly the way of forming the word through *-ong* variation. The different thing is only lying on the affix to attach. In *-ong* variation, the last syllable is substituted by the affix *-ong* while in *-es* variation the last syllable containing vowel is substituted by affix *-es*. Thus, the speakers of *Bahasa Binan* could adapt any words in *Bahasa Indonesia* simply by changing the vowel in the first syllable into "e" and substituting the syllable with *-ong* without omitting the consonant in the first syllable such as *dendes* from *dandan* or *hemes* from *homo*.

The next variation appears is the *-in-* variation. The *-in-* variation is actually regarded as the infix addition in *Bahasa Binan*. According to Oetomo (2010), the speakers of *Bahasa Binan* could form the words from the *Bahasa Indonesia*'s word simply by adding the affix *-in-* in every syllable of the root words and delete the last syllable of the words as soon as the affix is attached to the root words. The word *binan* is actually rooted from the word *banci*. The word *banci* undergoes the process of infix addition in every syllable and becomes *b-in-a-in-ci*. After that, the speakers of *Bahasa Binan* delete the last syllable of the word *binaninci* to become *banci* in order to ease the pronunciation. The same case actually happens to the word *binul* and *lines*. The word *binul* actually comes from the word *bule* that is inserted with the affix *-in-* before finally the deletion takes place to the last syllable. The word *lines* actually appears through the identical process as the word *binul* and *binan*. The word *lines* that is rooted from the word *lesbi* has undergone the process of affix *-in-* insertion and become *linesbini* before it finally becomes *lines*.

The next variation is the *-se* variation. The *-se* variation happens simpler than the other variations. According to Oetomo (2010), to form the word in *Bahasa Binan* through *-se* variation, the speakers are only required to substitute the last syllable of the intended words with the affix *-se* without omitting the first consonant in the last syllable. Thus, the speaker could form the word *cinse* from the word *cina* and *lakse* from the word *laki*.

The last variation found is the *-i* variation. The *-i* variation is as simple as the variation of *-se*. According to Oetomo (2010), the speakers are only required to substitute the last syllable of the words with *-i* and change the vowel in the first syllable with "e." Thus, the speakers of *Bahasa Binan* could easily form the word *kenti* simply by substituting the last syllable of the word *kontrol* with the affix *-i* without omitting the consonant "t" and changing the vowel "o" in the first syllable with the vowel "e." The same pattern also appears in the word *penti* that is used to substitute the word *pantat*. The word *penti* undergo the process of substituting the last syllable "-tat" into *-i* and substituting the vowel "a" in the first syllable with "e."

The data analysis conducted by the writer also shows that there is another variation of *Bahasa Binan* that can be taken into consideration. This variation is actually the adaptation of the *-ong* variation and *-es* variation. However, this variation only happens if the root words are started with vowels. Therefore, the word *asli* would become *eslong* or *esles* when this variation of this word formation takes place. The same case also happens to the word *isap* that becomes *esong* or *eses* for the base word is started with the vowel "i."



1.2 Derivational Morphology

This study follows the theory of Akmajian, et al. (2001) that state the case of derivation in *Bahasa Binan* does change the meaning and the word category of the words that is attached by the affixes. O'Grady, et al. (2010) claim that there are at least 13 affixes of derivational morphology. Below are some examples of the derivational morphology in *Bahasa Binan*.

Table 1.2.1 Table of Derivational Morphology in *Bahasa Binan*

Word	Part of Speech	Meaning	Morphological Process	Type of Inflection
<i>Bisikan</i>	Noun	Be able to	The addition of - <i>an</i> to the word <i>bisik</i> .	Suffix
<i>Garukan</i>	Noun	Raid	The addition of - <i>an</i> to the word <i>garuk</i> .	Suffix
<i>Gilingan</i>	Noun	Crazy	The addition of - <i>an</i> to the word <i>giling</i> .	Suffix

Table 1.2.1 depict some *Bahasa Binan* words that are designated as some examples of derivational morphology. The process of derivational morphology in *Bahasa Binan* also changes the word category and the meaning of the base words attached. From the table 1.2.1, it can be seen that mostly the case of affixation is the suffixation of -*an* to form a noun from a verb. This phenomenon can be seen best from the word *bisikan*. The word *bisikan* actually comes from the verb *bisik* that means “to whisper.” However, the addition of the affix -*an* turns the verb into the noun *bisikan* that means “whisper.” The words *garukan* and *gilingan* undergo the same process to the word *bisikan*. Both *garukan* and *gilingan* are the words that are derived from the verb *garuk* and *giling*. In *Bahasa Indonesia*, the word *garuk* means “to scratch” while the word *giling* means “to mill” or “to grind.” However, both verbs turn into the nouns *garukan* and *gilingan* as soon as the base word are attached by the affix -*an*. The addition in fact also changes the meaning of the base words into “the mill” and “the grinder.”

1.3 Inflectional Morphology

O'Grady, et al. (2010) state that inflectional morphology is the type of affixation that deals with the grammar of a language. This means that the addition of the affixes is done for the sake of showing the grammar contrast in a language. Finch (2009) claims that there are three kinds of inflection namely noun inflection, verb inflection, and adjective inflection. However, this study only focuses on noun inflection for the nature of this study is analyzing the word formation not phrases formation or even sentence formation that closely deals with the verb inflection.

Related to the noun inflection, O'Grady, et al. (2010) provide some cases of noun inflection such as the addition of -*s* to denote the plurality of a noun and the addition of -*'s* to denote the possessiveness of a noun. The same pattern of inflectional morphology also happens in *Bahasa Binan*. Since *Bahasa Binan* is rooted from *Bahasa Indonesia*, the nature of the language also appears the same. Parera (2007) claims that many times the case of inflectional morphology in *Bahasa Indonesia* occurred in the conditions that are related to gender, comparison, aspect and time, and the active and passive form. Some examples of inflection morphology in *Bahasa Binan* are described as follows.

Table 1.3.1 Table of Inflectional Morphology in *Bahasa Binan*

Word	Part of Speech	Meaning	Morphological Process	Inflection Category	Type of Inflection
<i>Berbelong</i>	Verb	To have fur	The addition of <i>ber-</i> to the word <i>belong</i> .	Aspect	Prefix
<i>Dideres</i>	Verb	Being anally penetrated	The addition of <i>di-</i> to the word <i>deres</i> .	Passive	Prefix

Table 1.3.2 depicts the occurrence of inflectional morphology in *Bahasa Binan*. Parera (2007) says that some of the indications of inflectional morphology are the existence of affixes denoting the passivity and the progressivity of the base words. The word *berbelong* and *dideres* are some of the examples of inflectional morphology in *Bahasa Binan*. The word *berbelong* actually comes from *Bahasa Binan*'s word *belong* that means “hair/fur.” The noun be-

long in fact turns into a verb when it is attached by the affix *ber-* that indicates the possessiveness of the noun. Therefore, the word *berbelong* actually conveys “to have fur or hair.” In short, it can be said that the addition of the prefix *ber-* to the verb *belong* appears to change the word category and the meaning of the base word *belong*.

The same case also happens to the word *dideres*. The word *dideres* is actually derived from *Bahasa Binan*’s word *deres* that means “to penetrate anally.” The word then undergoes the process of affixation *di-* in the initial position of the word *deres* to indicate the passivity of the base word. Thus, the verb *dideres* conveys the passivity of the word *deres* to mean “being anally penetrated.” Based on the explanation above, it signifies that inflectional morphology in *Bahasa Binan* commonly appears as the words with the affix *ber-* that conveys the possessiveness and the affix *di-* that conveys passivity.

CONCLUSION

Bahasa Binan is a dialectical language variation of *Bahasa Indonesia*. *Bahasa Binan* is noted as a language variation that is primarily used by the transgender community in Indonesia. This study is addressed to answer one research problem that deals with the affixation process in *Bahasa Binan* according to the seven variation of *Bahasa Binan* by Oetomo (2010). This study bases its data on the dictionary of *Bahasa Binan* compiled by Agung Soedjono, Ibhoed and Adi Wahono (1995) published by “Penerbit Gaya Nusantara” as well as the theory of affixation by Akmajian, Demers, Farmer, and Harnish (2001) and William O’Grady, John Archibald, Mark Aronoff, and Janie Ress-Miller (2010).

The writer found that the pattern of affixation in *Bahasa Binan* follows precisely the pattern of affixation in *Bahasa Indonesia*. From the seven variations of *Bahasa Binan*, the writer only found five variations of *Bahasa Binan*. The writer found that all of the five variations of *Bahasa Binan* actually undergo the process of affixation. However, most of the time the process of affixation in *Bahasa Binan* is not only done to make new words but also to convey the secret message. This reason is logically accepted considering that the primary purpose of developing *Bahasa Binan* is to elicit secret messages.

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THE INFLUENCE OF TASK-BASED LEARNING ON STUDENTS' SPOKEN ENGLISH IN *PENDIDIKAN GURU SEKOLAH DASAR* SANATA DHARMA UNIVERSITY

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Abstract

Living in this era, in which English has been a dominant global language, every English learner is expected to master speaking skills in the language. Supporting this paradigm, since last century, language teaching and learning focus has changed, from being grammar-orientated to speaking-orientated. Language teaching uses various approaches, for example Task-Based Learning (TBL). A research project on this approach was undertaken recently at Sanata Dharma University, from March to April 2012. The subjects in the research were the coordinator of *Pendidikan Profesi Guru Terintegrasi* (PPGT) and the eighteen students (all the members of class A PPGT) in PGSD Sanata Dharma University academic year 2011/2012. The research question was: What are the influences of Task-Based learning in spoken English on PPGT students in PGSD Sanata Dharma? This research problem enabled the researcher to find out what the influences of Task-Based Learning (TBL) are, on the English speaking skills of these students. The data of this Class Action Research were obtained by using observation sheets, interviews, questionnaires, and by observing students' performances. The data gained through these instruments were then scrutinized. The results showed that TBL helped the students to improve their speaking skills. The given tasks encouraged them to become more actively involved in speaking English individually, in pairs, and in groups.

Keywords: TBL (Task-Based Learning), PPGT (Pendidikan Profesi Guru Terintegrasi), speaking English

INTRODUCTION

The objectives of language learning and teaching have shifted from traditional approaches (mastering language knowledge) to a contemporary approach (communicating target language). This phenomenon occurs alongside the globalization and mass media communication development. In their article entitled *Key Concepts in ELT*, (Foster & Susan, 1999, p. 45) notice that in the traditional way for teachers, language teaching is a matter of presenting knowledge of the target language to learners. Meanwhile, for learners, language learning is seen as a process of mastering language knowledge presented by teachers, which is done from one step to the next. It means that the teachers are the presenters and the students are the receivers who start learning a language from the easy sections and subsequently move slowly to the complicated ones. In each section of the target language, learners must master and digest it. Errors which happen during the learning process are considered proof of poor learning.

In contrast, the contemporary view, which emphasizes communicative competence realizes that, for learners, language learning is an organic process that follows its own internal agenda. In such a process, (Ellis, 2004, p. 1) says that learners should be helped and led to be able to communicate the target language meaningfully without paying much attention to grammatical accuracy. In this sense, language learners may produce errors. Errors are not considered as negative parts of the language learning process. Conversely, he says that it is a natural sign in the process of language learning.

With regard to the fact that errors may take place in the learning process, Nunan (2006, p. 66) says that a teacher has to play the role of a guide and let the learners live with errors and motivate them to learn from the errors. By living with the errors and learning from the errors, the students are triggered to move on in reaching their own ultimate goals and teaching-learning goals, namely to be able to communicate the learned language. Underlining Nunan's idea, Renandya (2013, p. 76) emphasizes that to reach their goals of learning a language, the students should be assisted by a teacher who takes the central role as a guide and a motivator in the learning and teaching process. The paradigm of reaching the ultimate goal in language learning has triggered education experts and linguists to propose various teaching and learning approaches. One of them is Task-Based Learning (TBL) approach.

TBL is an approach concentrating more on carrying out tasks and giving opportunities to learners to communicate a meaningful learned language rather than on grading structures and vocabulary (Richards & Rogers, 2003, p. 225). This way helps the language learners see other ways of learning and mastering the learned language. Learning a language is not only a matter of sitting in the classroom or at a desk to memorize or incorporate vocabulary or language structure. It is also a matter of communication. Since a language is a means to be used in communication,

during the learning-teaching process, TBL provides opportunities for learners to put the learned language into practice by giving them tasks to carry out in the classroom or outside the classroom. Tasks that are carried out in the classroom are called pedagogic tasks; meanwhile tasks done outside the classroom are called real-life tasks (Nunan, 2006, p. 40).

After noticing the students' class participation over a two-month learning-teaching process, the writers decided to use the TBL approach to see what influences TBL had on the students when learning English, especially speaking skills. Thus, in this study the writers would like to address a question: What are the influences of TBL in learning English for PPGT students in PGSD Santa Dharma? This research question is only addressed to Class A of PPGT in Sanata Dharma which consists of eighteen students; ten of them are males and eight are females.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

To support the development of Communicative Language Teaching theory, many linguists and researchers emerge, like Prabhu, Ellis, Nunan, Willis, and Ollivier. All of them restrict the tasks to activity of teaching learning language. Prabhu, a linguist from Bangalore, is the very first person to come up with TBL for use as a solution to the traditional way of learning language. For Prabhu (1987) a task in TBL is "an activity which required learners to arrive at an outcome from given information through some process of thought, and which allow teachers to control and regulate that process" (p. 24).

According to Ellis (2012, p. 153) the term 'task' has two nuances, namely "the actual materials that are given to the learners and the actual performance of the task materials." Language learning requires activity and purpose. Referring to this, Nunan (2006, p. 1) defines a task as a work done in the classroom by learners. They are required to understand and actively produce the target language meaningfully. Since the focus is on language meaning, they may ignore the language form or structure.

Furthermore, Willis (2003: 23) defines tasks as "activities where the target language is used by the learner for a communicative purpose or goal in order to achieve an outcome." In this sense, there are at least two key words Willis wants to underline: Goal and outcome. In the sense of goal, tasks in themselves carry a specified objective to be achieved by the learners. On the other hand, to achieve an outcome, all tasks should help and enable the learners to produce language meaningfully in the classroom and outside the classroom or so called real life.

Still in line with language as a communication tool, Willis (1999), as cited in Richards and Rodgers (2003) construes that tasks are a useful means for implementing three principles which form part of the communicative language teaching/learning movements since the second half of the 20th century. The three principles are "Activities that involve real communication..., activities in which language is used for carrying out meaningful tasks to promote learning and language that is meaningful to the learner supporting the learning process" (p.223). In this sense, the tasks are seen as the main part of planning and instruction in the teaching learning activities in the classroom or outside the classroom.

Along the lines of (Nunan, 2006), Ollivier (2009, p. 7) says that there are two types of tasks according to *The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages*. They are "classroom tasks"—also called "pedagogic tasks", and 'real-life' or 'target' or 'rehearsal' tasks." In the classroom, TBL creates opportunities in which students actively involve themselves in speaking the learned language by simulating communicative situations. Subsequently, the learners are able to implement the classroom experience in social life contexts. In this sense, Ollivier points out a very important aspect in communication which is called the social aspect. As the term communication stems from Latin *common* meaning togetherness, communication basically involves interaction with another person or people in an activity. The researchers observed that when doing tasks in the classroom and outside the classroom, PPGT students build up relationships among themselves. Using English, they speak out about their experiences and everything related to the tasks.

Grounded on the above elaboration, the researchers could say that TBL is a situation in the learning process that gives learners a broad opportunity of being actively involved in gaining knowledge or information by doing activities to reach certain ultimate goals, namely to produce language meaningfully in the classroom or outside the classroom. In this sense, the learners are the main persons in the whole learning process, meanwhile the teachers play role as guides and motivators. Referring to this research, the learners play their role as the subjects, who have the right to explore themselves in regard to gaining English speaking skills by actively doing tasks provided by their instructors.

METHODOLOGY

There are some important issues to be pointed out in this section. They are: subjects, setting, instrument, and data collection. When conducting the research, the writers employed quantitative research. The reason for using

quantitative research was that it enabled the researchers in collecting data, analyzing the data, explaining, describing, generalizing, and predicting what will happen in the future based on the real phenomena of Task-Based Learning. The research was conducted on March 3rd (interview with the PPGT coordinator). The researchers conducted a questionnaire with eighteen PPGT students on April 28th, 2012. The setting for the study took place at the English Club in which the students participate in every Saturday. The subjects were eighteen students (class A) of the first semester out of seven-semester program of English Club of PPGT.

The students come from three different provinces: Aceh, West Papua, and Nusa Tenggara Timur (NTT). These three provinces are well known as 3Ts: *Terdepan, Terluar, Tertinggal* (foremost, outermost, mostly left behind). Reports from all of the tests taken and lecturers' opinion more or less depicts the students as belonging to this stereotype: They are in the lowest passing grade of academic aptitude in Sanata Dharma University; ranging from grades 1-4 They are also behind in English proficiency. The aim of the English Club is to help them to actively familiarize themselves with English and to develop interest in English; in other words not be afraid of English. This feeling is supposed to be a help to them in improving their English skill by actively using it in real life.

In helping arouse the students' desire to speak English, in the classroom, the instructors did not merely teach students grammar, or how to memorize new English words, or how to write, or how to read, or what to listen to. Instead, the course was carried out using proper approaches that trigger and enable students to speak out about what they have learned or have had on their minds. The writers paid more attention to a special approach called Task-Based Learning (TBL). This approach was used as a bridge to help students to involve themselves and to be involved in the whole English teaching/learning activity. Additionally this approach helps the students to engage in tasks in the class and outside the class as well, especially in their homes (The Students Residence in Paingan) individually in pairs or with groups of friends.

In the study, the writers decided to use interviews and questionnaires with the respondents, as well as observation. These instruments helped the researchers provide an easier way of obtaining information that would provide a good overview and analysis. To obtain reliable data, as well as observation, the writers held an interview with the coordinator of PPGT and held a questionnaire for eighteen students of PPGT. The research was conducted separately to the respondents. The researchers needed approximately twenty minutes to record the PPGT coordinator's answers to the eleven questions. The eighteen students also took about twenty minutes to answer the eleven questions. The questions and answers are attached in the appendix. Prior to filling out the questionnaire, the students were briefed about the reason why the researchers were conducting the research, the nature of the questionnaire and the way to answer the questions.

From the coordinator of PPGT the writers collected data on PPGT as a program and PPGT students. From the eighteen students, the writers collected important information on what influences TBL contributes to the students' effort and what strategy they have to help themselves to be able to speak English.

Since the writers conducted the interviews and questionnaires directly with the participants, this research employed a human element. The interview with the PPGT coordinator was conducted in English because she was able to speak English fluently. Meanwhile, the questionnaires for the students were written in Indonesian since the students had not been able to acquire the written English well. The first six questions for the PPGT coordinator were related to PPGT as a program and the second five questions were related to each student's background and characteristics connected to English acquisition. For the students, the first four questions were related to their personal difficulties and strategies in learning English. The second seven questions were related to their experiences in doing tasks when learning English.

To describe the TBL approach used in the class activity, the writers undertook a library study to provide some theories proposed by linguists especially Prabhu, Nunan, Willis, Ellis, and Ollivier. In the discussion, the writers provide a description on the TBL learning teaching process based on the research question: What are the influences of TBL in learning English for PPGT students in PGSD Santa Dharma?

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

While elaborating data collected from the interviews, questionnaires, class observation, and students' performance in this discussion, the writers focus on one research question: What are the influences of TBLT in teaching English for PPGT students in PGSD Santa Dharma? To answer this question, first of all the writers would like to remind the readers about PPGT, what its mission is, who the students are and the level of their English acquisition? PPGT stands for *Pendidikan Profesi Guru Terintegrasi* (Integrated Teacher Profession Education). It is called integrated because once the students graduate they get S1 and a teaching certificate as well. It is also a government project. The government selects the students and selects Sanata Dharma as one of the universities to run the training. It is hoped that at the end of the training, PPGT manages to help the students, who are in the lowest

passing grade of academic aptitude in Sanata Dharma University, to pass the minimal requirement in mastering English.

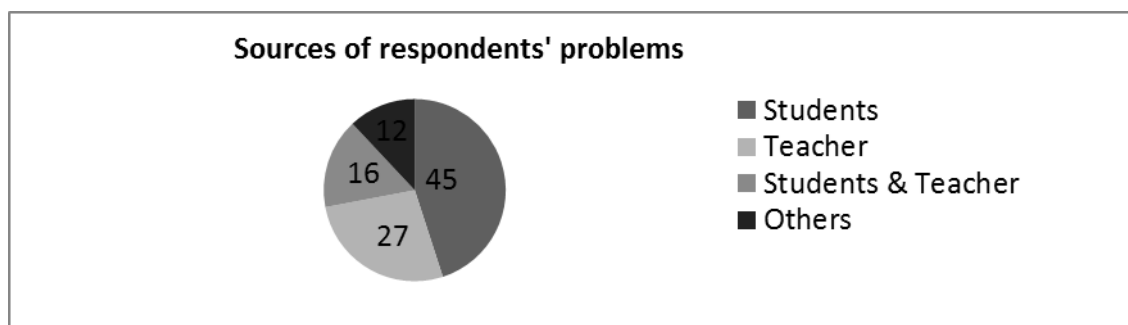
Respondents were asked to respond to four statements regarding their learning problems and ways to solve the problems. Those statements helped respondents to see what they have and do not have in themselves. The result of the percentage distribution is shown in the table below:

Item	N	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
		1	2	3	4	5
You have found problems with English since you began to learn it.	18	100%				
You have a target in learning English	18	100%				
You have an approach or strategy to reach your target	18	55.55%	44.45%			

The above table shows that 100% of the 18 PPG students agree that they have problems in learning English. Generally, the students have problems in grasping the way of thinking. That is why they make lots of errors. In the researchers' observation, they repeat the same mistakes, for example with the use of personal pronouns: "She hair is blonde" which should be "Her hair is blonde." This sometimes discourages their spirit of learning as they feel guilty. To encourage students to move forward in learning English, Willis (2003, p. 7) clearly states that making mistakes or errors is a normal symptom for every language learner.

It is amazing that the 18 students had their own targets to achieve at the end of the course in the English Club. All of them wanted to be able to speak English much better than they were in the past. To reach such a target they had some strategies to implement. The strategies were: Trying to speak English as much as they can in the class and outside the class, reading books, asking friends and teachers. One of these strategies goes together with what Willis (2003, p. 8) states: "Reading widely is one of the best ways to learn another language."

The following diagram shows the source of the respondents' problems.



The students identified some sources for their problems in learning English. Of the 18 students 45% found themselves to be the source of the problem. It was in the form of a dislike for learning English and feeling discouraged because of the repeated mistakes they made. Out of the group 16% found both themselves and their teachers to be the source of the problem. Life circumstance was found to be the source of the problem for 12%. Teachers made up the remaining 27% because students felt teachers blamed them for making mistakes. Willis (2003, p. 7) suggests: "Teachers should always correct students' errors." Teachers should never give up correcting students to help them improve their English. One further step to be taken by the teacher after giving tasks is to give feedback or correction when the students submit their works. This is the influence of the task-based approach that is applied in the classroom.

The following table shows the respondents' experiences in doing tasks when learning English.

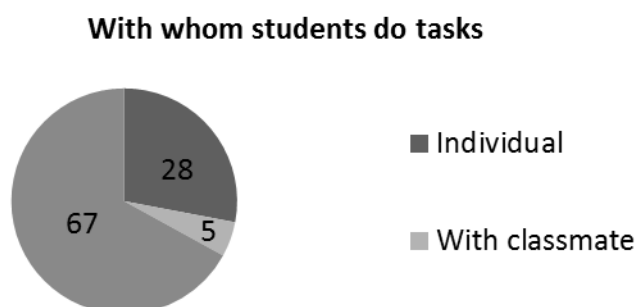
Item	N	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
		1	2	3	4	5
Tasks help you improve your English speaking	18	61.11%	38.89%			
Tasks help you improve your English vocabulary	18	55.55%	44.45%			
Tasks help you improve your English pronunciation	18	88.88%	11.12%			
Tasks help you construct English sentences	18	72.22%	27.78%			

The other influences of the task-based approach are that students gain improvement in speaking, vocabulary, pronunciation, and constructing sentences in English when speaking. Even though it is challenging for them to speak up English, 100% of the students agree that they improve their speaking when doing tasks given by the teacher, vocabulary when speaking with teachers and friends in the class or outside the class, their pronunciation and sentence construction when having to speak English in front of the class. This fact goes together with what Willis says that students must use English when learning to speak it, even if they make lots of errors.

The following table shows the fact that the students always get tasks from teachers and they are responsible for that. All of the students agree that this always happens to them. To help them master English they should have tasks and keep doing them responsibly.

Item	N	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
		1	2	3	4	5
You always get tasks from lecturer	18	100%				
You always do the tasks	18	77.77%	22.23%			

The following diagram shows with whom they do their tasks. 28% of them do their tasks by themselves. 5% of them used to do their tasks with their friends, and 67% of them do the tasks given either alone or with friends. Students who do their tasks together with others show that in a social circumstance they can manage to improve their English. They are extroverted people, and they can be better English learners (Willis: 9).



CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

Task-Based Learning is an appropriate approach to be applied in language teaching and learning because it gives the students more opportunity to communicate a language through doing the tasks meaningfully. In this sense, the students are not the passive knowledge receivers, but the subjects who actively involve themselves in learning a language. The teachers do not dominate the class as the knowledge presenters; they act out their roles as the guides, facilitators, and motivators for the students. The result is that the students feel more comfortable in learning and can more easily improve their language learning. The teachers' roles in TBL go along with a saying in Indonesian coined by Ki Hajar Dewantara, the father of education in Indonesia: "*ing ngarsa sung tuladha, ing madya manguk karsa, tut wuri handayani*". The meaning is "guiding in the front, facilitating in the middle, and motivating from the back".

According to the research findings and discussion, the writers may conclude that all of the participants had a positive response to the learning process based on the TBL approach. They encountered a lot of problems in improving their English speaking skills before joining TBL. TBL helped the PPGT students to make significant progress in speaking at the English Club. They were excited when the tutors gave them tasks to be carried out individually or in pairs, in the classroom or outside the classroom. The tasks also encouraged them to learn more by searching for more knowledge and information on speaking skills. It means that TBL is an appropriate approach to be applied in the English Club of PPGT students, especially class A.

Since the students felt very comfortable with the TBL approach, they were able to improve their vocabulary, speaking, and listening skills. The tasks which were combined with games made them eager to know more about English. However, this study would like to give some suggestions. Firstly, since the English Club is to continue for the next four semesters, the next tutors should use the TBL approach in the class. To make sure whether TBL is good to use in group A of PPGT, the tutors may use and compare other approaches, like Cooperative Language Learning or Content-Based Instruction. Secondly, readers should study this issue to determine whether TBL is an appropriate approach to apply in PPGT.

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THE INFLUENCE OF MOTHER TONGUE IN LEARNING ENGLISH

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Abstract

The interference of mother tongue is found in English pronunciation and in the sentence order. It creates many variations in English which can lead people to a misunderstanding. According to Wilkins (1972), some problems appear when people try to speak English as the second language but then they borrow the pattern from their mother tongue. It is called negative transfer or interference. This paper aims to reveal how some mother tongues influence people to produce English at some places in the world and it also aims to give solutions to overcoming the misunderstanding in English usage due to the influence of people's mother tongues.

Keywords: mother tongue, influence, learning English

INTRODUCTION

In this era of globalization, English has become an international language that many countries use as a principal foreign language and also a second language. The internationalism of English is a result of two periods of world domination by English speaking countries: British imperialism in the nineteenth century and the economic influence of the United States in the twentieth century (Brumfit, 1982). It requires people to learn English in order to follow the change of times. On the other hand, English is not the first language that people used around the world because they have their own languages or their mother tongues according to the areas they are staying or they are originally from. The first language that people learned from one's mother and it is mostly used at home. In the way people learn English as a second language; their mother tongue will give influence on sentence order and sometimes on pronunciation. The influences occur as the combination of people's mother tongue which has creates certain identity with English. The effect is that it creates many varieties of English in terms of the dialect and it can cause misunderstanding among people in using English.

Considering this phenomenon, this paper tries to find out what mother tongue is and how it is related to English learning. Besides, it also tries to figure out and the examples of mother tongue influencing in learning English which are found in some areas with different language.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Mother Tongue

Mother tongue or first language is a term that denotes not only the language one learns from one's mother, but also the speaker's dominant and home language (Nordquist, n. d). This is a language one uses more often and it has been structured in mind in terms of the linguistics and communicative aspects.

Influence

Based on dictionary, influence means power to sway or affect based on prestige, wealth, ability, or position. In this case, the influence comes from people's mother tongue to the way they learn and produce English language. Mother tongue as the first language has its own power as it is often used by the people and it has become habit that is unchangeable.

Learning English

Learning English is a process in which people who already have their own first language try to acquire and produce English as a second or foreign language. This process sometimes called Second Language Acquisition. According to Judie Haynes in his article on everythingESL.net, there are some stages in second language acquisition:

Stage I: Pre-production

In this stage, learners may have up to 500 words in their receptive vocabulary but they are not speaking yet. They repeat everything they say. They are not really producing language but are parroting. These new learners of English

will listen attentively and they may even be able to copy words from the board. Total Physical Response methods will work well with them. English language learners at this stage will need much repetition of English.

Stage II: Early production

This stage may last up to six months and students will develop a receptive and active vocabulary about 1000 words. During this stage, students can usually speak in one or two phrases.

Stage III: Speech emergence

Students have developed a vocabulary about 3,000 words and they can communicate with simple phrases and sentences.

Stage IV: Intermediate fluency

English language learners at the intermediate fluency stage have a vocabulary of 6000 active words. They are beginning to use more complex sentences when speaking and writing and they are willing to express opinions and share their thoughts. At this stage, students will use some strategies from their native language to learn the content in English.

Stage V: Advanced Fluency

It takes students from 4-10 years to achieve cognitive academic language proficiency in a second language. Student at this stage will be near native in their ability to perform in content area learning.

METHODOLOGY

This paper was conducted based on the writer's observation in class when having a study in English Language Education Study Program of Sanata Dharma University in 2013. The class is one of the multicultural classes containing different ethnic, religion and culture. Some of them come from different places such as Batak (North Sumatra), West Borneo, Papua, Java and NTT. The students have their own accent in speaking based on the area where they lived before and the writer take this moments to make an observation on the influence of mother tongue in their English.

Library study was also conducted to collect some supporting data, like the example of conversation in other languages for example Spanish and Oshikwanyama, the national language of Namibia.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Influence in English Sentence Order

Mother tongue is the first language that people learn. They not only learn but also master the language that they received from the family and environment which is directly structured in mind as they use it all the time and because of the repetition which can make people strongly remember it. Moreover, when people learn a second language, there is something happens in the brain when it has to transfer the second language into the first language to understand it. Wilkins (1972) observes the process of code/language code transfer in the brain below:

“When learning a foreign language an individual already knows his mother tongue, and it is this which he attempts to transfer. The transfer may prove to be justified because the structure of the two languages is similar – in that case we get “Positive transfer” or “facilitation” – or it may prove unjustified because the structure of the two languages are different – in that case we get “negative transfer” or “interference” (Wilkins, 1972 : P 199)

The problems appear when people try to speak English as the second language but they borrow the pattern from their mother tongue or it is called ‘negative transfer’. This is an example when a mother tongue of Namibians affects their sentence order in English. Once, there were two Namibian women talking about fraud case involving a principal. One of the women said in English: “The school principle ate the school fees”, and then the other reply in Oshikwanyama, the national language of Namibia, “Omukulunhufikola okwa lyapo iimaliwa yofikola”. It dawned on that the first woman had translate her mother directly into English. Meanwhile, in English the term ‘eating money’ does not exist. It should be “misuse the money/funds” or “misappropriate the money” because people do not eat money (Julia, 2012). The other example like in Spanish they would like to say “Felipe llevó a la escuela sus libros favoritos”. If it is translated directly in English, it means “Felipe took to school his favorite books”. Meanwhile, in



English it should be “John took his favorite books to school.” In Spanish, a preposition phrase is regularly put in front of a direct object. (Phap, 2010).

Influence in Pronunciation

There are also some cases that affect English in terms of pronunciation. Based on the observation, some people in Indonesia specifically in Java have a *medok* (thick) accent. For example in pronouncing the word ‘useful’, where it should be pronounced as /ju:sf^ul/, they will say it /ju:s^of^ul/ with the ^o sound after the u: sound. Some people from Sumatra are difficult in pronouncing the /f/ sound. The word ‘find’ is pronounced /paInd/ where it should be /faInd/. Papuan or people from east part of Indonesia are hard to produce the /v/ sound. They tend to pronounce it in a strong form /e/, it makes the word ‘a book’ will pronounce /eb^ok/ while it should be /^ob^ok/. These are the examples of how mother tongue creates many differences in English language. People, especially children, are often confused to learn English but there is also the way to overcome this confusion. For example, by learning their language, especially their accent, it will help you to understand when they are talking.

The confusion of learning English is usually caused by the fluster of people in choosing the standard of English that they should use. In fact, English as an additional language (EAL) is usually based on the standards of American English or British English as well as incorporating foreign terms. However, nowadays, people are no longer using these standards in using English. There are many dialects of English and it is different with British or American English, but it does not mean that those dialects of English take the standard form. For example, the Singlish (Singapore English), is deficient or not good enough to use. It is different from standard form which means that it has its own uniqueness and people who use Singlish should be proud with it. The most important thing to be considered is to use and to teach English confidently with whatever your mother tongue interference as long as it can be understood.

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

In order to reduce the possibility of misunderstanding by the usage of many varieties of English, people should consider that English is also a second language for many people that are still learning English with big interference of their mother tongue. It means that their English will be diversified with common English in terms of vocabulary, pronunciation, and even in word order. In addition, the way people say things in their mother tongue is not necessarily the way they express in English (Julia, 2012).

People need to expand the knowledge of language by learning more languages and understanding the system of the language. For example, if someone wants to go to Australia, they will learn Australian English, its dialect, the common expressions, the idioms, and other elements related to Australian English in order to survive and have a good communication with people there. Fillmore and Snow (2000) note that “understanding the variety of structures that different languages and dialects use to show meaning, including grammatical meaning such as plurality or past tense, can help teachers see the errors of their students who are learning English” (p. 16).

Mother tongue has a big interference in learning English as a second language. As the first language is still used in people’s daily life, it will influence the learning of the new or second language. However, it does not matter which dialect that you have in using English as long as your English can be understood.

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THE IMPLICATIONS OF FOOTBALL COMMENTARY IN LISTENING COMPREHENSION OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATION STUDY PROGRAM STUDENTS FOCUSING ON SPECIFIC INFORMATION

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Abstract

This research focuses on football commentary as one form of sport announcer talks based on sociolinguistics. More precisely, football commentary belongs to a study of register. Since the context employed in football commentary is different from daily conversation, the purpose of this research is to find out the functions of football commentary dealing with listening comprehension for specific information. The participants of this research are eight students of English Language Education Study Program in Sanata Dharma University, who are assumed as foreign language learners. The research belongs to survey research because it uses questionnaires as its instrument. The reasons for using questionnaires are its simplicity in collecting data and its capability to answer the purpose of this research. In the outline, the contents of the questionnaires cover three parts, namely (1) the participants' general knowledge of football, (2) the participants' general and specific knowledge of football commentary, and (3) the participants' opinion on the implications of football commentary according to their experiences. The result of this research shows that there are positively six obvious implications of listening in football commentary.

Keywords: football commentary, register, listening comprehension, specific information

INTRODUCTION

Football is one of the oldest sports in the world which becomes more and more popular recently. This fact is proven by Fabianto (n.d.) finding some documents related to the history of football, but unfortunately there is no exact information mentioning when football was invented. However, based on those documents, it is reported that football had been existing for some centuries BC. Meanwhile, modern football was getting to be familiar in the middle of ninetieth century in Great Britain. The development of modern football in fact is still occurring until now.

The popularity of football consciously or not is influenced by its long period of existence. The spectators of football are increasingly varied from time to time. The differences of gender, age, social status and other categories cannot restrict people to be fond of football. Moreover, the presence of technology, such as television and internet has significantly given a big contribution to football expansion all over the world. In football matches broadcasted on television or internet, the thing that draws spectators' attention the most is the action of football players in maneuvering the ball. However, there is another thing giving a meaningful influence of football matches besides the game itself; that is football commentary.

Based on sociolinguistics, football commentary belongs to a study of register. According to Lehmann (1976), "the term register is occasionally applied to varieties of language determined by use, in contrast with dialect, which is related to the user (p. 277). It means that the language used in football commentary is specifically different from other contexts. Just like other contexts, there are users of the language employed in football commentary that are familiar with the use of terms related to such a context. They are usually people possessing a duty to report live football matches, who are called football commentators. Linguistically, such commentators are named sport announcers.

The football barometers in this world are football matches in Europe, played by both national teams and football clubs. Because of the great number of spectators scattered across the world, English, as an International language, is the most frequently used in football commentary to ease them following the matches. Therefore, the purpose of this research is to find out the implications of football commentary dealing with listening comprehension for specific information, especially for English as Foreign Language (EFL) speakers.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Holmes (1992), as cited by Noertjahyanto (2001), mentions, "Registers tend to be associated with particular groups of people or sometimes specific situation of use. In giving the examples, Holmes gives the sport announcer talk or what we call sport commentaries." One of sport commentaries is football commentary. The function of football commentary according to Beard (1998) is to "clarify or describe what is happening in the field" (Noertjahyanto, 2001).

Therefore, the language used in football commentary is different from daily conversation, particularly the vocabulary (Holmes, 2001, p. 152).

Besides containing particular vocabulary, football commentary offers speech of the commentators who report the events happening to the match. Even though the commentators speak English, it does not mean that all of them are English native speakers. In 1995, Trudgill suggests, "Whenever we speak, we cannot avoid giving our listeners clues about our origins and the sort of person we are. Our accent and our speech generally show where we come from, and what sort of background we have" (Wray et al., 2004, p. 88). It is still based on Trudgill (1990), as cited by Wray et al. (2004), that "*All of us speak with an accent*" (p. 100). It is because each commentator possesses his own way of speech, especially the accent due to the fact that not all football commentators come from English-speaking countries.

In this research, listening becomes a means to enable the spectators comprehend the content of football commentary. Buck (2001) revealed that

Listening comprehension is the result of an interaction between a number of information sources, which include the acoustic input, different types of linguistic knowledge, details of the context, and general world knowledge, and so forth, and listeners use whatever information they have available, or whatever information seems relevant to help them interpret what the speaker is saying. (Mewald, Gassner, & Sigott, 2007, p. 5)

In connection with football commentary, listening comprehension is necessarily possessed by the spectators to know specific information of the match.

METHODOLOGY

Before conducting this research, the researcher determined the sample, the materials, and the procedures in order to answer the formulated problem of this research. The section of the samples comprises the total and the educational background of participants in this research. Meanwhile, the section of the materials consists of the questions in questionnaires given to the participants. The last section is the procedures in collecting data through questionnaire.

The samples

The participants in this research were eight students of English Language Education Study Program (ELESP) of Sanata Dharma University. The participants consisted of seven males and one female. The consideration to choose them as the participants of this research was because all of them were fond of watching football match.

The materials

The instrument used in this research was questionnaire consisting of two parts; they are related to personal identity and participant's knowledge about this research topic. The part of personal identity was addressed to the participants in order to know their educational backgrounds, while the rest of ten questions aimed to answer the problem formulation. The questions were the combination of close-ended and open-ended questions. The purpose of providing close-ended questions was to ease the participants in giving their answers due to available options. On the contrary, open-ended questions were provided to let the participants freely give answers based on their own opinion, which became the foundation in constructing the answer of problem formulation.

The procedures

The method used in this research was survey research. Questionnaire was the instrument of this research because it offered simplicity in collecting the data and it is quite appropriate for exploring participants' knowledge dealing with this research topic. The questionnaires were spread on May, via email and manually filled by handwriting.

FINDINGS

Data collection discussed in this section was taken from the data related to this research topic only, excluding participants' personal identity. The processed data were categorized into three major sections presented through charts and tables. First, it revealed the participants' general knowledge about football. Second, it explored the participants' general and specific knowledge about football commentary. Third, it dug up the participants' opinion related to the implications of football commentary based on their experiences.

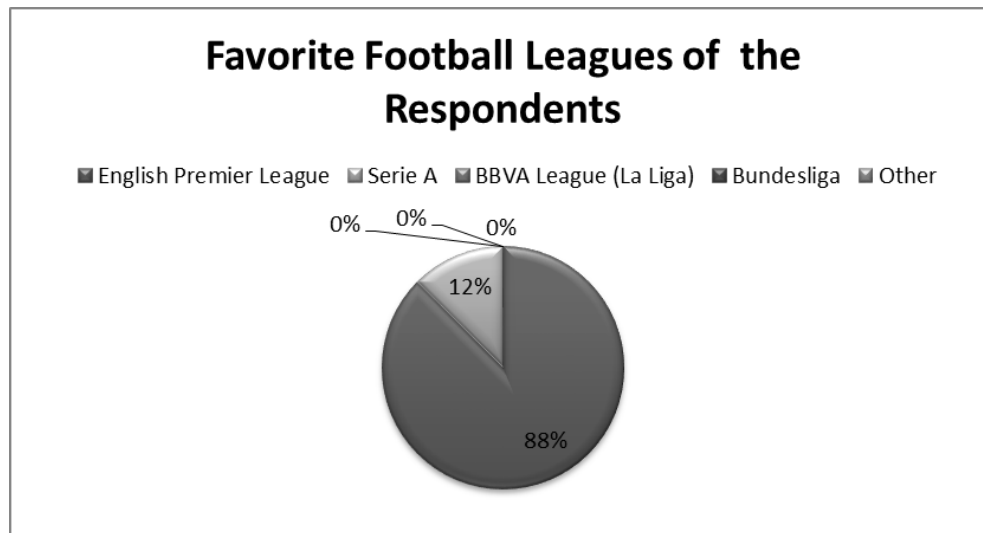


Figure 1. General Knowledge of Football

The percentage of participants' answers as presented in figure 1 were based on question no 3, i.e. what league do you like to watch most frequently. All leagues provided as options in the questionnaire were broadcasted live on television. The majority of participants (88%) answered that English Premier League was their favorite football leagues, whereas 12% of eight respondents preferred to choose Serie A League. It means that most of the participants were more familiar with English Premier League than other leagues. That also reflects that they were more familiar with British English accent.

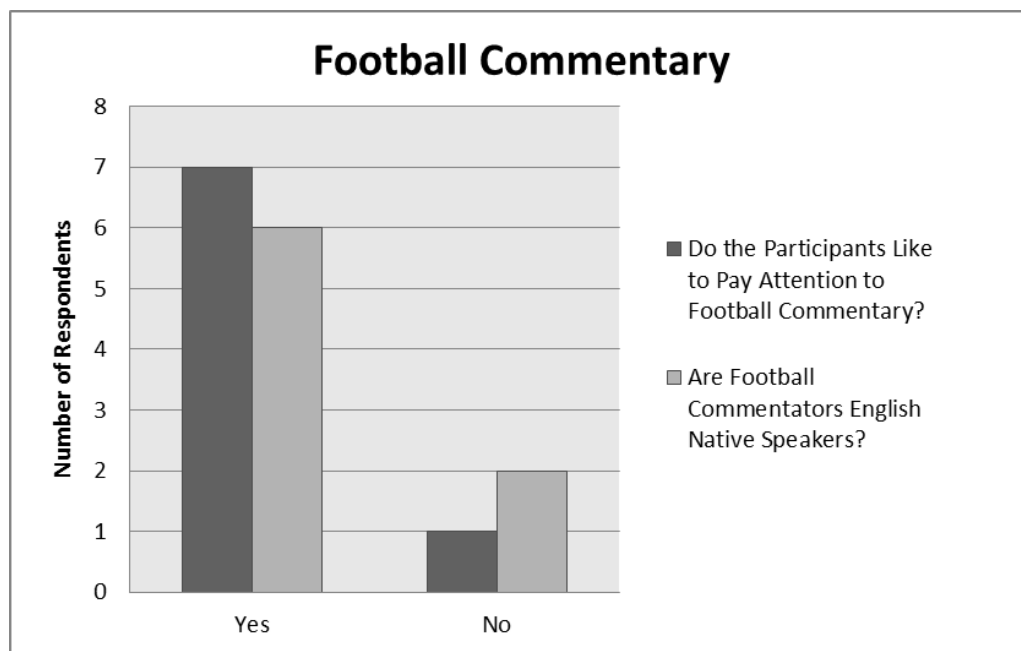


Figure 2. General Knowledge of Football Commentary

Figure 2 describes the participants' response to questions no 4 and 5. The chart in dark grey color represents questions no 4, i.e. do the participants like to pay attention to football commentary. The result showed that seven out of eight participants said yes, while only one participant said no. Still in the same figure, the light grey chart represents the participants' answer toward questions no 5 which asked whether football commentators are English native speaker or not. The result showed that the majority of participants (six people) answered yes, whereas two out of eight participants said no.

The previous figure indicates that most of the participants had an assumption that football commentators were English native speakers. Therefore, they were interested in listening to football commentary. On the contrary, one out of two participants who answered no to questions no 5 had an opinion that some of football commentators in certain league were not English native speakers.

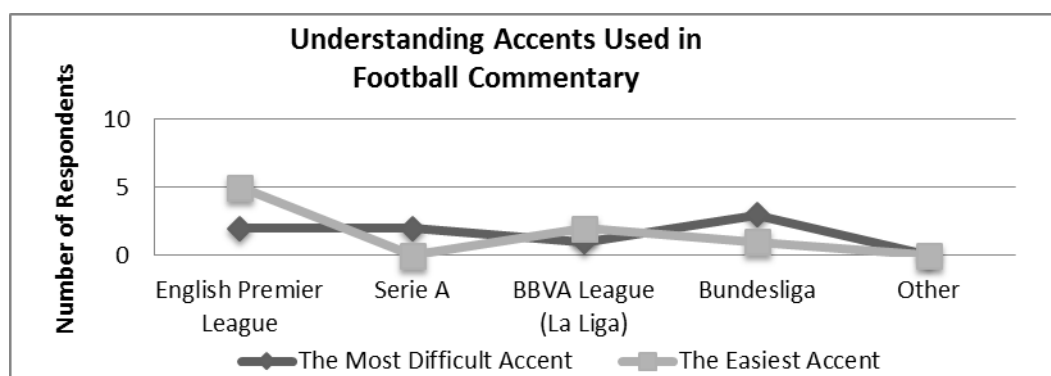


Figure 3. Specific Knowledge of Football Commentary in connection with Football Commentators' Accents

Information presented in figure 3 is about the participants' opinion on accents produced by football commentators in reporting football matches. The dark grey line shows the number of participants who felt difficult in understanding football commentators' accent during their speech. Based on the figure, football commentary in Bundesliga was chosen as the most difficult accent to understand by three out of eight participants. On the other hand, the light grey line represents the total of participants who got easy to understand the accent of football commentator reporting specific information of football match. The result conveyed that English Premier League containing the easiest accent to be understood by five out of eight participants. To know the reasons why the participants chose options as presented in the previous figure, the two following tables give explanation about them.

Table 1. The Most Difficult Accent Presented in Football Commentary

League	Total Percentage (%)	Reason	Percentage (%)
English Premier	25% (n=2)	Pronunciation Speed of Speech	50% 50%
Serie A	25% (n=2)	Vocabulary Pronunciation Speed of Speech	33% 33% 33%
BBVA (La Liga)	12% (n=1)	Pronunciation	100%
Bundesliga	38% (n=3)	Pronunciation	100%
Other	0% (n=0)		

According to the Table 1, the main reason why Bundesliga was chosen to have the most difficult accent to understand was due to its pronunciation. Three out of eight participants said that the pronunciation of the football commentators was not clear and it sounded strange to them. Although the commentators spoke in English, their German accents were still strong and might cause peculiarity of their speech. Meanwhile, the accent which gained most aspects of difficulty was Italian accent in Serie A League. Two out of eight participants revealed their reasons that the main problems in understanding football commentary in Italian accent were football terms in Italian, pronunciation, and speed of speech.

Table 2. The Easiest Accent Presented in Football Commentary

League	Total Percentage (%)	Reason	Percentage (%)
English Premier	63% (n=5)	Vocabulary Pronunciation Familiarity	17% 50% 33%
Serie A	0% (n=0)		
BBVA (La Liga)	25% (n=2)	Pronunciation Speed of Speech	50% 50%
Bundesliga	12% (n=1)	Pronunciation	100%
Other	0% (n=0)		

Table 2 presents the easiest accent in football commentary based on the participants' opinion. Based on the result, English Premier League was chosen as the league whose accent was easy to understand by five out of eight

participants. It was because they were more familiar with pronunciation and vocabulary in British accent than in other accents. 50 % of the five participants suggested that the pronunciation was the aspect making them easy in listening to football commentary the most.

Based on the previous two tables, it can be drawn a conclusion that the origin of the football commentators influenced the way they report the football match, including accent, pronunciation, and particular terms of football.

Table 3. The Implications of Football Commentary

No	Implication	Total Percentage (%)
1	Knowing the real situation on the field	16%
2	Knowing correct pronunciation	21%
3	Knowing new vocabulary	21%
4	Updating information about football	16%
5	Increasing listening sensitivity	16%
6	Increasing the tension of football match	10%

After previously asking some supporting questions to the participants, three questions were provided by the researcher to find out the implications of football commentary in the participants' listening comprehension focusing on specific information. Table 3 was presented to give an outline of the participants' opinion in connection with their comprehension towards football commentary. Basically, there were 6 implications the participants felt the most. The most influential aspects were that by listening to football commentary, the participants could learn how to have a correct pronunciation and learn new vocabulary about football. Those implications gained 21% for each. Furthermore, the rest percentages (58%) were related to their feeling and general knowledge towards football matches.

The examples of the two most influential implications will be shown as the following. First, football players' names were the most difficult things to be pronounced by the participants. For instance, Bojan Krkic, Martin Skrtel, Wojciech Szczesny, Jakub Blaszykowski, and Tom Cleverley were names that participants mentioned as some of the most difficult names to pronounce. By listening to football commentary, they could pronounce them correctly. Second, the participants could learn new vocabulary by listening to football commentary. For example, "He beats them off", "He bangs it in", "penetration", and "right/left flank".

DISCUSSION

According to the result of the questionnaires, some theories discussed in the review of related literature section will be interconnected with the result of the data. Therefore, the formulated problem of this research obtained an answer based on valid and reliable data.

Supporting questions which were put into two parts – general knowledge about football, and general and specific knowledge about football commentary – were used to explore the participants' opinion about basic information of football commentary before they were led to main questions. It could be concluded that various accents and particular football terms obviously influenced their listening comprehension about football matches.

As previously mentioned in review of literature section, Trudgill (1995) suggests, "Whenever we speak, we cannot avoid giving our listeners clues about our origins and the sort of person we are. Our accent and our speech generally show where we come from, and what sort of background we have" (Wray et al., 2004, p. 88). This theory proves that various accents spoken by football commentators from some leagues showed their origin. Bundesliga was one of the examples. Football commentators in Bundesliga were mostly German, which means that their accent would still sound German although they spoke in English.

Holmes said that language used in football commentary was different from daily conversation, particularly the vocabulary (2001, p. 152). It was exactly like what the respondents felt when they listened to football commentary. They met specifically different vocabularies, but they could understand them after being accustomed to listening to them.

After bringing the participants to the supporting questions, the researcher led them to go to the main questions in order to answer the problem formulation of this research. The formulated problem was to find out the implications of football commentary in the listening comprehension of the participants especially focusing on specific information. The data showed that there are obviously six implications caused by listening to football commentary. They were (1) Knowing the real situation on the field; (2) Knowing correct pronunciation;

(3) Knowing new vocabulary; (4) Updating information about football; (5) Increasing listening sensitivity; and (6) Increasing the tension of football match. From the six implications, it could be drawn a conclusion that listening to football commentary could linguistically affect their comprehension about football.

CONCLUSION

This research has found out the implications of football commentary towards listening comprehension of some ELESP students of Sanata Dharma University as the participants, which can enrich sociolinguistic study, especially chapter of register (sport announcer talk). The implications are basically categorized into three main part; they influence the improvement of the participants' vocabulary, pronunciation, and sense towards football.

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APPENDIX

Questionnaire on the Implication of Football Commentary towards Listening Comprehension of ELESP Students Focusing on Specific Information

I am conducting a survey on the implication of football commentary towards listening comprehension of ELESP students focusing on specific information. Your voluntary participation is requested so I may learn more about the functions of football commentary dealing with listening comprehension on specific information. Your name will not be recorded on the questionnaire and your responses will be anonymous. Again, your participation is voluntary and you may choose to not answer all of the questions on the questionnaire even after signing the consent. If you are willing to participate, please sign this form.

If you have any questions pertaining to this study, please contact Septiana C. Fridayani, English Language Education Study Program (ELESP), Sanata Dharma University.

Thank you for your assistance.

Participant Signature

Date

Part I
Personal Identity

Name : _____
Age : _____

Sex : ☐ Male ☐ Female
Major : _____
Batch : _____

Part II

Please answers these following questions based on your own understanding by circling one of the options and mentioning your reason!

Do you like watching football match?

- a. Yes, I do. b. No, I don't.

Which one do you prefer to watch football match?

- a. Television b. Internet (live streaming)

Why?

What league do you like to watch most frequently?

- a. English Premier League d. Bundesliga
b. Serie A League e. Other (please specify)
c. BBVA League (La Liga) _____

Do you like to pay attention to the commentary on the football match spoken in English?

- a. Yes, I do. b. No, I don't.

Do you think the commentators on the football match are English native speakers?

- a. Yes, I do. b. No, I don't.

Based on your opinion, football matches in what league do present the **most difficult** accent to understand related to their commentary?

- a. English Premier League d. Bundesliga
b. Serie A League e. Other (please specify)
c. BBVA League (La Liga) _____
Why?

According to your opinion, football matches in what league do present the **easiest** accent to understand dealing with their commentary?

- a. English Premier League d. Bundesliga
b. Serie A League e. Other (please specify)
c. BBVA League (La Liga) _____
Why?

In your opinion, what is the impact(s) of listening to football commentary?

Based on your answer in no. 8, please mention the example of the impact(s) of listening to football commentary!

e.g. By listening to football commentary, I know the correct pronunciation of football players' names which are difficult for me to pronounce. The example is **Bojan Krkic**.

After completing the previous questions, what do you think about listening to football commentary?

- a. Giving beneficial impact
b. Giving no impact
c. Distracting the audience's focus
Why?



DRILLING AS A TECHNIQUE TO HELP THE SECOND SEMESTER STUDENTS OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATION STUDY PROGRAM SANATA DHARMA UNIVERSITY ACQUIRE RECEIVED PRONUNCIATION

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Abstract

English learners need to adjust their speaking ability to the accepted English accent so that their speech will sound natural. One of the ways to speak naturally is to apply Standard English accent. There are so many accents and one of them is Received Pronunciation (RP), an accent promoted by the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) and used in south-eastern England. There is RP training in Pronunciation 2 Class, which uses drilling method. Five students were randomly chosen and interviewed. The data obtained showed the difficulties which the students faced in speaking English in the RP, aspects of pronunciation needed to train and to be emphasized in the class, and how the drilling method helped the students acquire RP.

Keywords: drilling, Received Pronunciation, pronunciation 2 class

INTRODUCTION

Speaking is one of four skills needed in learning language. Speaking naturally is one of the aims that English learners, especially ESL learners, try to accomplish. In order to speak naturally, people may not talk in foreign accent. Foreign accents occur when a person speaks one language using some of the rules or sounds of another language. For example, Indonesians speak in English but they apply Javanese accent. However, there are so many English accents that the ESL learners may acquire in order to speak English naturally. One of the accents is Received Pronunciation. Roach (2004) states that it is a misnomer to call Received Pronunciation as an accent of British English, an accent used by upper class of south-eastern England and promoted by BBC. As it is mentioned before, there are several accents of English, for example Received Pronunciation and General American accent. However, the writer will limit the discussion on Received Pronunciation as the focus on the study is Received Pronunciation.

English Education is one of the study programs in Sanata Dharma University which trains the students both in English language field and in the education field. There are many English competences and skills courses and educational courses including teaching practices. All skills are being improved including the speaking skill. To improve the speaking skill of the students, English Language Education Study Program provides some speaking and pronunciation classes.

Pronunciation classes train the students how to speak English naturally by practicing some aspects of accent. There are some pronunciation classes: Pronunciation 1 class, Pronunciation 2 class and Textual pronunciation class. Firstly, the students are prepared by acquiring the sounds of English in Pronunciation 1 class. After passing Pronunciation 1 class, they will take Pronunciation 2 class. Pronunciation 2 class helps the students to speak English in Received Pronunciation. The last class is an optional subject, Textual Pronunciation class. This subject requires the students to read some texts and sing some songs.

Pronunciation 2 class is the class which gives accent training, especially Received Pronunciation training. This class is important as the accent will help them to speak English naturally. The class uses drills as the method in training accent which covers stress, rhythm, intonation, and words segment.

In this writing, the writer will discuss the problems that English learners find in order to speak in Received Pronunciation, the aspects of pronunciation they need to consider and their lecturer has emphasized, and how the drilling method helps them to acquire Received Pronunciation.

By knowing the problems that English learners find when speaking in Received Pronunciation, the aspects of pronunciation they need to consider and their lecturer has emphasized, and how the drilling method helps them to acquire Received Pronunciation, the writer hopes that this study will help the lecturers to understand the students' needs and challenges in learning new accent. This study also aims to explain the appropriateness and advantages using drilling as the method in learning Received Pronunciation. Thus, the lecturers and English teacher may implement this method and adjust to their learners.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

1. Received Pronunciation

Holmes (2001) explained that Received Pronunciation, abbreviated as RP, is the accent of the best educated and most prestigious members of English society. It was seen that this accent is the accent “received” at the royal court. It is also mentioned as “the Queen’s English”.

Roach (2004) explained that RP is a social accent and promoted by BBC. Although RP is a social accent, not a regional accent, it reveals the speaker’s origin. Roach also said that the majority of speakers of this accent live in or originate from, the south-east of England. It is affirmed by thefreedictionary.com definition: RP is originally based on the speech of the upper class of south-eastern England and characteristic of the English spoken at the public schools and at Oxford and Cambridge Universities.

English in general has 24 consonants, 12 cardinal vowels and 9 diphthongs (Indriani, 2005). Speaking in Received Pronunciation truly needs the accurate pronunciation of each sound. There are also some aspects of pronunciation needed to take care of. They are stress, intonation, rhythm, words segments, and sound contrast. Zsiga (2006) states, “Linguistic stress is a prominence relation between syllables: certain syllables are longer, louder, higher-pitched, or more clearly articulated than those around them” (p.31). She also states that intonation distinguishes different focuses attention on a particular word.

2. Drilling

Richards and Rogers (2001) state that drilling belongs the audio-lingual method. They also explain that this method, which presents behaviorism, emphasizes in three elements: stimulus, which is the bait to elicit behavior; response, which is the result or reaction after receiving the stimulus; and reinforcement which marks the response whether it is appropriate or inappropriate and it encourages the repetition of the response in the future if it is already appropriate.

Using drilling in practicing pronunciation is one of the best ways. As Richards and Rodgers (2001) say, foreign language learning is basically a process of mechanical habit formation. Good habits are formed by giving correct responses rather than by making mistakes. By performing pattern drills, the chances of producing mistakes are minimized. Language is a verbal behavior - that is, the automatic production and comprehension of utterances – and can be learned by inducing the students to do likewise (Richards and Rodgers, 2001).

Brook distinguishes between short-range and long-range objectives of this method (Brook, 1964, in Richards and Rodgers, 2001). In terms of pronunciation, he explains that accurate pronunciation is one of the short-range objectives. In other side, the long-range objective is “must be language as the native speaker uses it. . . There must be some knowledge of a second language as it is possessed by a true bilingualist” (Brooks 1964: 107).

Having this method, the learners may not understand the meaning of the text they pronounced because something which is emphasized is the new form of verbal behavior by listening to the teacher, and repeating or imitating it accurately.

METHODOLOGY

This study is a qualitative research. The researcher chose a qualitative research because the data needed was a descriptive data collection. The subjects of this study comprised five students of English Language Education Study Program (ELESP) Sanata Dharma University who were in second semester. They were taking Pronunciation 2 Class and they were both females and males. The research dealt with a small scope and the experiences about pronunciation that the respondents had were almost equal because they had just focused on studying English for these two semesters were the reasons in choosing the number of respondents.

The data was collected through interview of five randomly selected students. Interview helped the researcher to get the data needed because she could improve and elucidate the question when the respondents could not understand the question well. The interview conducted on March in Sanata Dharma University. It was held in a casual circumstance and it took 10 minutes for each correspondence. The interview was tape-recorded. The writer delivered four open questions requiring information related to difficulties they found, Pronunciation 2 Class and drilling method applied in the class. The interview checklist was firstly consulted to the lecturer for comments and suggestions. This instrument was pre-tested to some students in ELESP but they did not take part to this study itself. The comments, suggestions, and pilot study led to some improvements and revision of some items.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

1. Difficulties in Speaking English

The ESL learners are from many different areas. They have their own mother tongue and accent. Moreover, every language has different existing sounds which may not exist in other language.

Actually they do really affect their English pronunciation. 80% of the correspondences agree that their accent is one of the obstructions they find. It will not be natural if they speak English in their accent. Thus, dropping their accent is one difficulty in speaking English.

The stress of syllable is also one major difficulty they face. It is hard for them to memorize the stressed syllable because when they place the stress in wrong syllable, it may change the meaning of the word. Zsiga (2006) says “Linguistic stress is a prominence relation between syllables: certain syllables are longer, louder, higher-pitched, or more clearly articulated than those around them” (p.31). The flowing of the sounds and the emotion of the sentences are also problematic. In a long sentence, they get confused to make the sound flow smoothly. For example in words “and I...” They have to pronounce sound /d/ from the last sound of “and” and sound /ai/ from word “I” by dragging them so that the sounds will flow naturally. The emotion, for some learners, also becomes the difficulty. They think that their pronunciation is monotonous an emotionless which make their English speech is not naturally spoken.

The way a word pronounced and the intonation are mentioned as their difficulties, too. Since they are beginners in learning English, they find it difficult to pronounce the words that they rarely hear. The intonation that the students produce also matters. They think that it is hard to implement the intonation. They have to choose between rising and falling intonation and apply them in different circumstances. They do not know how to distinguish the focus attention, whereas Zsiga (2006) states that intonation distinguishes different focuses attention on a particular word.

Other difficulties the learners usually find are the sound contrast and the sound reduction. In Indonesian, there are some English sounds that do not exist. The sounds such as /S/ and /T/ are the examples of the English sounds that do not exist in Indonesian. The sound reduction is the last difficulty the correspondences mentioned. ‘Should’, ‘would’, ‘had’ can be shortened as ‘d’, ‘is’, ‘has’ can also become ‘s’ when it is preceded by the subject. They still have to think before they are able to reduce the sound properly.

2. Aspects to Consider in Acquiring Received Pronunciation

There are some aspects mentioned by correspondences that need to consider in order to acquire Received Pronunciation: stress, intonation, word-pronunciation, rhythm, speed, and sound contrast. Stress, intonation, and pronunciation are the major aspects that people need to consider in order acquiring certain accent, especially Received Pronunciation. More than 50% of the correspondences see that they are important. In Indonesian, the stress of syllable does not really matter. The wrong placement of stress may not change the meaning, but it is different with English. Native speakers of Received Pronunciation use stress in their daily speech, moreover they want to emphasize something they mean. However, they cannot stress any syllable because wrong placement of stress may change the meaning of word or context of the sentences.

Speed of the speech and the rhythm pattern of the Received Pronunciation are distinctive and need to be considered. If people say something in a slow motion, it will not become natural, indeed. Speaking too fast is not understandable, too. Thus, the speed when people talk affects the naturalness of the accent they use. The rhythm is also important. The rhythm is closely related to the stress. Rhythm application requires the speakers to know the syllable or word which is stressed and not. When it comes to the stressed syllables, they have to say it a little longer and when it comes to unstressed ones, they need to be a little bit faster so that there will be rhythmic.

20% of the respondents agree that sound contrast is one element that they need to consider in learning an accent. As we know that Indonesian does not possess all sounds, so the awareness of people in producing the sounds is not that high. It becomes a small note that people have to be more sensitive in producing the sounds which do not exist in their mother tongue.

3. Aspects Emphasized in Pronunciation 2 Class

Being asked about the aspect of accent emphasized in their pronunciation class, everybody agrees that stress is one of the dominant aspect emphasized. The flow of the sounds and the intonation are also trained and taught in Pronunciation 2 class. They also learn the emotion of the sentence.

The lecturer gives many stress exercises about the stress because stress is a significant aspect of pronunciation. The words may have different meaning if they place the stress on the wrong syllable. They start to learn stress in word level, phrase level, clause and sentence level. In a sentence level, the stress will give the information to the listeners about the things which are being emphasized by the speaker. In the practice, the students are required to repeat the pronunciation several times so that the students will be accustomed to the stress pattern they should pronounce. The words segment and the flow of sounds are also emphasized because it affects the accent. It is unnatural if we speak but we say the words word-by-word. The students are also demanded to speak fluently and apply word segment appropriately. It will help them too in intonation. The intonation will be much better by segmenting the words on the right place.

4. Drilling As a Technique to Help the Students Acquire Received Pronunciation

In Pronunciation 2 Class, drilling is used as the method of training the students' pronunciation. The drilling method is thought as an effective way in forming the verbal behavior and accurate pronunciation. In the students' opinion, drilling is helpful for them in helping to acquire Received Pronunciation.

Drilling requires them to repeat several times in pronouncing some words. By repeating, they think that they start to be accustomed with the pronunciation. It helps them to speak English in Received Pronunciation more fluently. They can record the pronunciation in their memory and memorize it. While their friends repeating some words several times, the other students can also learn from their friends.

The opinion and answer that the students have given actually approve the statement from Richards and Rodgers (2001) that foreign language learning is basically a process of mechanical habit formation. In this case, the foreign language is English and specifically the habit that they try to form is accent which is Received Pronunciation. It also reflects that what Brooks mentioned as short-range and long-range objectives can be achieved. Students gain the short-range objective which is accurate pronunciation. Moreover, the drilling helps them to approach the long-range objective which is using the language as the natives use.

The reinforcement given by the lecturer is also helpful. They will be encouraged to do the same thing if it has been appropriate already but they will change their pronunciation if the lecturer thinks their pronunciation is inappropriate. It proves what Richards and Rogers (2001) said that reinforcement encourages the repetition of the response in the future if it is already appropriate. By passing this process, the students will experience of making mistakes and correct the mistakes. They will also be able to update the wrong pronunciation with the right one by repeating the correct one over and over again. It is in line with what Richard and Rogers also say that language is a verbal behavior - that is, the automatic production and comprehension of utterances – and can be learned by inducing the students to do likewise (Richards and Rodgers, 2001)

By learning the aspects of pronunciation in this method, the students improve their speaking skill. It deals with their accent. The forming process are effective because the method requires the students to try to say a new word, correct the wrong pronunciation, and repeat the correct word's pronunciation. The reinforcement is also one of the aspects of the method which helps the students to decrease their mistakes.

CONCLUSION

Students on Semester 2 ELESF Sanata Dharma University find some difficulties in speaking Received Pronunciation. The accent that they have on their mother tongue, how to make the sounds flow, word pronunciation, emotion of each sentence, stress, intonation, sound reduction and sounds which do not exist are some problems faced by them. Whereas they think that all the difficulties are also the aspects that influence of Received Pronunciation. However, in the Pronunciation 2 class, there are some aspects emphasized (stress, intonation, pronunciation, rhythm, and sound contrast) to help the students acquire the Received Pronunciation. The drilling method implemented in Pronunciation 2 Class is really helpful because it makes the students accustomed to how they should pronounce words and sentences in Received Pronunciation. Learning foreign language including the accent is the same as forming a mechanical habit and it is what drilling method emphasizes. The drilling method helps the students form the appropriate behavior and then strengthen the behavior through the reinforcement given by the lecturer. It proves that drilling method is effective and helpful for students in acquiring Received Pronunciation.

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JOSHUA FISHMAN'S DOMAINS OF LANGUAGE USE IN RELATION TO MULTICULTURAL LIFE IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATION STUDY PROGRAM SANATA DHARMA UNIVERSITY

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Abstract

This qualitative research aimed to prove Joshua Fishman's theory of domains of language use in relation to multicultural life in the English Language Education Study Program of Sanata Dharma University (ELESP USD) as well as to find the possible factors which influenced language use in every domain of language use. By using random sampling, the researchers interviewed ten students of ELESP USD related to the five domains of language use they applied daily. The five domains of language use in this research were family, friendship, education, relationship, and transaction. The participants were asked to express their way of speaking based on the five domains of language use. The researchers analyzed the possible factors influencing the language use that the participants applied in the five domains of language use. The results proved that Joshua Fishman's theory of domains of language use in the relation to multicultural life was applied by ELESP USD. The results also showed that the variety of language use depended on local languages, cultures, and speech communities. Another finding showed that domains of language use and the addressees influenced the choice of words when the discourse contained formality and politeness.

Keywords: domains of language use, multicultural life, ELESP USD

INTRODUCTION

English Language Education Study Program (ELESP) students come from different speech communities. They have different cultural backgrounds and languages. They have different ways in expressing certain things e.g. asking for pocket money to their parents. These differences build multicultural life among ELESP students. However, the differences often make some misunderstandings between the speaker and listener. One of the examples is on the expression used among ELESP students—come from different speech communities—in daily conversation. Sometimes, when they use their mother tongue to express certain things, the interlocutors are able to understand the message. Nevertheless, they often feel insulted by the way the speakers speak even though they are able to catch the message clearly.

The example above is a phenomenon related to domains of language use. Joshua Fishman (1972) stated that there are five domains of language use; family, friendship, religion, education, and employment. In this research, the researchers employed adjusted language domains. The adjustment was made based on the research participants i.e. ELESP students. Therefore, the five language domains used in this research were: family, friendship, educational environment, relationship and transactional. In each domain of language use, the speakers will address different listeners. The speakers will also use different expressions in delivering the message. There are also certain contexts in each domains of language i.e. asking for pocket money, inviting friends for having lunch, asking for leave of absence, dating, and buying something.

In this research, the researchers would like to explore Joshua Fishman's theory about domains of language use in relation to multicultural life in ELESP. The research problems that the researchers would like to explore are 1) to find out the expressions which are used by ELESP students in certain domains of language in certain contexts, and 2) to find out the possible factors which influenced the language use in every domains of language in certain contexts.

The research will give contribution to both the speakers and the listeners. The contribution for speaker is that the speakers will be able to adjust their language to the interlocutors' language. The contribution for the listeners is that the listeners will be able to learn the speakers' languages.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

1. Multicultural

“Multiculturalism is the way to describe how social structures create and maintain different cultures in a society” (Wekker, 1998: 44 as cited in Blom, Maussart & Ernste, 2006). Multicultural is often similarized to culture diversity. This culture diversity is clearly depicted in Indonesian society – especially in the national motto ‘Bhinneka Tunggal Ika’ or Unity in Diversity. Another depiction can be seen from the fact that there are so many ethnics, races, religions/believes, and languages spread across Indonesian territory.

Therefore, from the explanation given above, Indonesia is categorized as a multicultural and multilingual country. Todd (2008) states ‘each multilingual country has its own unique set of characteristics’ (p.4). In Indonesia, there are 700 hundreds living languages; and most of them belong to the same language roots. Two language roots that give big influence to Indonesian indigenous languages are Sanskrit and Malay language.

Related to multiculturalism, Taylor (1995, as cited in Song, 2008) states that language is an ‘authentic’ identity marker of speakers. It means that language is an important characteristic that shows the sense of speakers’ culture belonging. It can be predicted that a person who speaks Sundanese comes from West Java or at least know a little Sundanese culture.

2. Domains of Language Use

The first person who proposed domains of language is Schmidt- Rohr in 1932. It is developed by Fishman. Based on Fishman (1972:20) as cited in Marjohan A. (1988), “domain is a sociocultural construct abstracted from topics of communication, relationship between communicators, and locales of communication, in accord with the institution, of a society and the area of activity of speech community in such a way that individual behavior and social patterns can be distinguished from each other and yet related to each other”. Therefore, the languages used by people are influenced by many factors.

Fishman (1972) states that the factors which influence the concept of domain are topic, role relation, and locale. He says that topic can be a regulator of language use in multilingual settings. For example: someone changes his or her language to the interlocutor’s language when discuss certain topics. Marjohan A. (1988) says that role relation means that languages you are using are determined by the interlocutors you speak with. For example: father speaks to mother, child speaks to mother, and mother speaks to child. He also states that locale means that the places where the conversations take place influence the languages you are using.

According to Tanner (1967) as cited in Marjohan A. (1988), there are factors of choice to be setting in locale. The factors are content or topic, social distance and motivational factors. In social distance, there are two dimensions: vertical and horizontal dimensions. The vertical dimensions mean that the languages use are determined by the relative position of someone that is compared with others. Marhojan A. (1988) states that you have to respect someone who is above you in terms of status, age or marital status. The horizontal dimensions refer to the relative closeness of someone with others. You tend to use a low code if you speak to someone who is close to you in terms of degree of friendship, sex, ethnic background, religious background or educational background. Someone has motivational factors when he or she is interested to speak with the interlocutors or interested about the topics even manipulative.

3. Politeness

Wardough (1992) says that “politeness seems to be a very important principle in language use” (p.280). It indicates that people must consider others’ feelings while they are speaking. In addition, he mentions solidarity, power, distance, and intimacy as the factors why people must be polite with each other. It will also influence the choice of pronominal forms in speaking.

Since politeness becomes very important in speaking, people will be very careful too in speaking. It is called as language awareness shown through the general ‘politeness’, determined socially.

4. Formality

Geertz (1960, as cited in Wardough, 1992) says that social relationship between speakers and listeners affect the language style. Wardough (1992) states speakers apply different style of speaking, for instance, formal and informal style. Both styles were used in different conditions. In ceremonial occasion, speakers use very formal speech whereas informal speech is used in conversation between intimates. The level of formality itself is influenced by many variety factors: the kind of occasion; the various social and age; the emotional involvement of one or more of participants.

5. Dialect

Francais (1992) and Romaine (1994) state, “In linguistics, dialects are the variants or varieties of a language used by different speakers who are separated by geographic or social boundaries (as cited in Elfenbein, Lévesque, Beaupré, Hess, 2007, p. 131). This also happens in Bahasa Indonesia. Even though, people from Java Island, Sumatera, Kalimantan, Sulawesi, Maluku, Bali, NTT, NTB, and Papua admit that they speak Bahasa Indonesia, in fact, it is not the standardized Bahasa Indonesia but the variants of its. Indonesian geographic structure can make Bahasa Indonesia vary because Indonesia consists of many islands. Every island differs in terms of cultures.

6. Speech Community

Langer (n.d.) defines speech community as “a group of people who share understandings of communication that are not shared by people outside the group”. Wardaugh (1998, p. 116, as cited in Patrick, n.d.) states that speech community is “some kind of social group whose speech characteristics are of interest and can be described in a coherent manner”. Duranti (1997, p. 82, as cited in Patrick, n.d.) defines speech community as “the product of the communicative activities engaged in by a given group of people”. From the definitions proposed by the experts, the researchers conclude that speech community is the product of communicative activities which is shared particularly in a group of people as a mean of communication and can be described in a coherent manner.

METHODOLOGY

1. Research Setting

This research was conducted in English Language Education Study Program Sanata Dharma University on March 2012.

2. Research Participants

The participants of this research were English Language Education Study Program’s students.

3. Sampling

The researchers used random sampling in order to gather the data for this research.

4. Qualitative Research

The researchers used qualitative research method in this research. Why did the researchers use qualitative research method and not quantitative? There are several definitions of what qualitative research is proposed by several experts which made the qualitative research method matched the characteristics of this research.

Holliday (2002) argues, “Qualitative research presents a statement about reality and social life that has to be continually argued and reaffirmed.” (p. 1). This argument suited the characteristics of this research because the case of this research was brought from the reality and social life which happened in English Language Education Study Program Sanata Dharma University. The researchers studied one phenomenon of language i.e. the five domains of language use: family, friendship, educational environment, relationship and transactional.

Hancock (1998) in his book *Trent Focus for Research and Development in Primary Health Care: An Introduction to Qualitative Research* states, “Research which attempts to increase our understanding of why things are the way they are in our social world and why people act the ways they do is ‘qualitative research’” (p. 1). Through this kind of research method, the researchers attempted to increase the understanding of the domains of language use especially in ELESP Sanata Dharma University.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

This section discusses the research results. Since the researchers analyze five domains of language use, the results will be divided into five sections. The five domains of language use are family, friendship, educational, relationship, and transactional.

1. Family

The first discussion would be related to the first domain of language use: family. In gaining the information related to the first domain of language use, all of the participants were asked to express their way on asking for pocket money to their parents. The researchers found that all of participants used forms of address such as ‘Buk’, ‘Mah’, and ‘Pah’ in the beginning of sentences they uttered e.g. “Pah, minta uang”.

¹ Comes from the word ‘ibu’ (Javanese language). The meaning is the same as ‘mom’

² Comes from the word ‘mama’

³ Comes from the word ‘papa’

Those forms of address were used to show respect and politeness. Using form of address in asking pocket money was considered more polite than just uttering “minta uang”. However, the use of form of address led to another negative purpose. There was probably a hidden intention of using those forms of address. The participants tried to give good impression to their parents by being polite so that their request could be granted.

Related to culture, the utterance ‘minta uang’ was considered as an imperative either in Bahasa Indonesia or many dialects. In Javanese society, it—talking to older people using imperative—was considered against the culture. The person who uttered it will be credited as a bad mannered person.

Table 1: Expression used in asking for pocket money

Participant #	Expression	Form of address	Language
1	Buk, nyuwun duit.	Buk	Javanese (Krama)
2	Mah, minta uang.	Mah	Bahasa Indonesia
3	Mah, nyuwun duit.	Mah	Javanese (Krama)
4	Buk, nyuwun sangu.	Buk	Javanese (Krama)
5	Mah, minta duit jajan.	Mah	Bahasa Indonesia
6	Mah, motore wis arep servis.	Mah	Javanese (Ngoko)
7	Pah, aku minta uang dong. Duitku abis.	Pah	Bahasa Indonesia
8	Buk, minta uang.	Buk	Bahasa Indonesia
9	Buk, minta uang jajan dong.	Buk	Bahasa Indonesia
10	Pah, minta duit.	Pah	Bahasa Indonesia

It can be seen from table 1 that there were 4 participants who spoke Javanese language to ask for pocket money; and 3 of those 4 participants chose to use Krama style. This style of Javanese language was considered more polite than Ngoko style. Basically there were three styles of Javanese language i.e. Ngoko (low level), Krama Madya (intermediate level), and Krama Inggil (high level) (Poedjosoedarmo, 1979; Errington, 1988 as cited in Sukarno, 2010). However, in this research, the researchers used two classification of Javanese language style i.e Ngoko and Krama. The reason was that the term Krama already represented the polite degree while Ngoko represented the impolite one. Krama should be used by those who spoke to people who were older than them. By doing so, they showed their respect and politeness.

Six of ten participants preferred to speak Bahasa Indonesia rather than to speak in their dialects. The predicted reasons were that:

- 1) although they got sufficient knowledge on their dialects and even were able to speak in their dialects fluently, if they were accustomed to speak in Bahasa Indonesia, they would unconsciously use the language to speak to their parents,
- 2) they had little knowledge on their dialects. Therefore they chose to use Bahasa Indonesia to avoid mistake that could lead to misunderstanding,
- 3) the participants unconsciously spoke in Bahasa Indonesia was because of the interviewers. Since the interviewers came from different origin, the participants tried to ease the interviewers in grabbing the ideas in order to avoid misunderstanding. There was a possibility that the interviewers could not understand the utterances given in form of dialects. Therefore, the participants chose to use the national language i.e. Bahasa Indonesia that was considered understandable both for the participants and interviewers.

2. Friendship

The second domain of language use is friendship. In the second domain of language use, all of the participants were asked to invite their friends to have lunch together. The researchers found that three of the participants used the forms of address ‘Dab’, ‘Ndes’, or ‘Teman-teman’. The forms of address ‘Dab’ or ‘Ndes’ were used by Javanese participants in asking for having lunch together to their friends. Those forms of address have meaning “hey friends”. However, related to the politeness, forms of address ‘Dab’ or ‘Ndes’ have negative interpretation sometimes for some people because they considered those forms of address used to address people who have lower class of dignity than the speakers have.

There were seven participants used 'Eh' before inviting their friends. 'Eh' was not form of address because the purpose of form of address is to address people, such as 'Ma'am', 'Miss', or 'Sir'. Therefore, in this research, 'Eh' seemed to be a form of address because its purpose was to address people. Related to culture, 'Eh' is considered as impolite form of address because 'Eh' used to address things or animals.

The participants tend to not address their friends name in inviting their friends to have lunch together. The predicted reasons were:

- 1) the participants addressed more than one of their friends, and
- 2) the participants needed as much answer as possible from their friends so the participants would have friends to accompany them in having lunch.

There were seven participants who did not use forms of address before inviting their friends to have lunch together, such as "Makan yuk!" or "Ayo Makan". "The sentences mean "Let's have lunch". The participants said straight to the point when they invite their friends to have lunch together. It showed that the participants had close relation with their friends because they straightly ask the intention to their friends.

There was a participant who used a question as a small talk before he invited his friends to have lunch together, such as "Eh, ndes, ngelih ra kowe?" In English, it means "Hey friends, are you hungry?" There was hidden intention behind the small talk such as: the participants would treat their friends in having lunch or the participants would like their friends to accompany them in having lunch.

Javanese participants used *Ngoko* Javanese to speak to their friends because their ages were approximately the same (Sukarno, 2010). On the other hand, the participants who were not Javanese tended to use Bahasa Indonesia to speak to their friends. The participants' dialect influenced the participants' language when they asked their friends to have lunch. All of the participants use informal style of speaking because they have a close relationship. (Wardaugh, 1992) It means that the participants have horizontal dimensions to their friends in which they are close in age, degree of friendship and educational background. (Marjojan, 1988)

3. Educational

In this domain, the scope of the conversation between speakers and listeners were related to educational institution as per school or college. As stated by Fishman (1972), the factors which influence the concept of domain are topic, role relation and locale. In this study, the topic is they were asked to express asking permission to their lecturers, in which they had to leave a class due to important errands. Next, the role relation in this study is between students and lecturers. Then, the locale is associated with conversation's setting. In terms of locale, this educational language domain was set in a campus where the participants study English Education.

The results showed that most of the participants spoke English to their lecturers, because their major study was English Language Education. Thus, they should speak English with their lecturers in the campus area and surroundings. The study discovered only one participant, out of ten, spoke in Indonesian language to inquire permission. The most-likely reason was because she wanted to inquire her permission clearly, which would be appropriately conveyed in her mother tongue, Indonesian. Therefore, she preferred to avoid using English for fearing that it may cause ambiguity.

Upon delivering their inquiry, all participants were considerably polite, as shown from their expression. Three of them started their inquiry by intentionally addressing politeness to their lecturers, such as "Excuse me, Ma'am/Sir". Four of them started with apologizing beforehand, like in saying "I'm sorry Miss/Sir" and "Maaf, Miss". The rest of the participants directly delivered their inquiry, such as "Miss, tomorrow I'm having an event", "Sir, Mam, I have something to do tomorrow", and "Sir, Miss, I'd like to tell you I will be absent on..."

Furthermore, all of them chose the elect the pronominal "Sir, Miss, or "Ma'am" to address their lecturers instead of directly address their lecturers' name. They were aware that the use of those pronominal forms would share their respect to the lecturers; similar to a theory suggested by Wardaugh (1992) on the politeness influenced the choice of pronominal forms in speaking.

Another finding was that the patterns of politeness in English language were shown from the pattern "would you mind", "I could not", and "I'd like to...." Three of the participants were using these patterns, showing their adept skill of English. The seven other participants did not seem to express similar notion, most likely because of their inadequate knowledge of English language. Given that English is not their mother tongue, they did not possess much sensitivity in this particular language, thus making them not pay attention to the patterns.

In the end, the analysis led to a conclusion that the use of polite language was used in the education domain. The power and distance (Wardaugh, 1992) between the speakers and listeners become the main factors which influenced the politeness. In terms of power, the listeners, in this case lecturers, have strong power in this domain. In the educational institution, the lecturers have roles as the educators in which they had higher position in educational level than the speakers, the participants, as students. Meanwhile, in term of distance, this domain was included in the vertical dimension. People have to respect someone who above them in terms of status (Marhojan, 1988).

In addition, the locale, campus area and surroundings, influences the language use between speakers and listeners (Tanner 1967, as cited in Marjohan, 1988). Based on the analysis, the factors influenced the locale were content or topic and social distance. In terms of topic, the students asked for permission. They should speak politely because their lecturers were the persons they needed to accept their requests. In terms of social distance, it was the same as distance factor in politeness. The vertical dimension was used by students to respect their lecturers.

4. Relationship

Related to the fourth domain of language use, relationship, the participants were asked to express the way they asked their girlfriends or boyfriends for dating. The researchers found that two participants used the forms of address 'Yunk' or 'Hun' to start the conversation with their girlfriends or boyfriends. The use of free forms of address had specific purposes. The use of free forms of address, such as 'Yunk'⁴ or 'Hun'⁵ was to remember the participants' boyfriends or girlfriends. It also showed that there is special closeness between the participants and their boyfriends or girlfriends.

Related to culture, one of ten participants used "Koh" to address her boyfriend. In Mandarin Language, 'Koh' used to address big brothers of the family. There were some predictions related to this form of address:

1. the participants' boyfriend is a Chinese or he comes from Chinese family who have Mandarin Language as his dialect.
2. the participants comes from Chinese family although her dialect is not Mandarin Language.

In order to maintaining good relationship with their girlfriends or boyfriends, five of the participants used small talk as the preliminary before they asked their girlfriends or boyfriends for dating e.g. "Hari ini kosong gak?" or "Kapan waktu senggangnya?" In English it means "When do you have a spare time?"

There were five participants who directly said their intention when they asked their girlfriends or boyfriends for dating. It showed close relation between the participants with their boyfriends and girlfriends.

All of the participants spoke in Bahasa Indonesia to their girlfriends or boyfriends when they asked for dating. By speaking Bahasa Indonesia, the participants used informal style of speaking which was to respect their boyfriends or girlfriends. And at the same time, the used of Bahasa Indonesia avoid the sense of rudeness.

5. Transactional

The last domain of language use is transactional. In this domain of language use, the participants were asked to express the way they buy something from the street vendors. All of the participants used the forms of address either "Ak"⁶, "Mas", "Buk" or "Mang"⁷ to start the conversation with the vendors when they express the way they buy something.

There were seven participants who directly stated the amount of the food that they would buy. There were three participants who asked for the price to the street vendors before they stated the food of the things they would buy. There were one participants spoke in *Krama* Language when they would like to buy something to the street vendors. There were nine participants spoke in Indonesian Language when they would like to buy something to the street vendors.

Table 2: Expression used when buying something from street vendors

Partici pant #	Expression	Form of address	Language
1	Ak, beli ciloknya tiga ribu!	Ak	Bahasa Indonesia
2	Mas, ciloknya tiga ribu ya!	Mas	Bahasa Indonesia
3	Mas, beli!	Mas	Bahasa Indonesia
4	Mas, cilok dua ribu!	Mas	Bahasa Indonesia
5	Buk, ini berapa? Beli ini satu...	Buk	Bahasa Indonesia
6	Buk, beli ini satu bungkus.	Buk	Bahasa Indonesia

⁴Comes from the word 'sayang' (Bahasa Indonesia). The meaning is the same with 'darling'.

⁵ Comes from the word 'honey' (English). Used to address girlfriends or boyfriends.

⁶The form of address derived from the word "Aak" which is used to address the vendors from West Java

⁷The form of address which is used to address the street vendors

Participant #	Expression	Form of address	Language
7	Buk, saya mau beli.	Buk	Bahasa Indonesia
8	Mas, pinten niku?	Mas	Javanese (<i>Krama</i>)
9	Mang, beli ciloknya tiga ribu dong!	Mang	Bahasa Indonesia
10	Mas, beli ini satu!	Mas	Bahasa Indonesia

To address the street vendors who were men, the form of address which they used varied. The word “Ak” is usually used to address the street vendors from West Java or a Sudanese. Usually, people who sell “cilok”, “cireng”, or “cimol” come from West Java for the those foods originate in West Java. However, nowadays, people from Central Java have been accustomed to sell these kinds of foods. That is why; very often we find that people call the street vendors who sell “cilok”, “cireng”, or “cimol” by “Mas”. The word “Mang” is more neutral. It can be used for the street vendors from West Java or Central Java or other regions in Indonesia. To address the street vendors who were women, the participants used the word “Buk”.

From table 2, we can see that almost all participants used Bahasa Indonesia when buying something from street vendors. This is because the street vendors who sell things in front of Sanata Dharma University are not all Javanese. In order to be more neutral, they tended to used Bahasa Indonesia because they did not speak the street vendors’ languages or dialects. Only one participant used Javanese Language (*Krama*) when buying something from street vendors.

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

By doing this research, the researchers found that there were some expressions which are used by ELESF students in certain domains of language in certain contexts. There were five domains of languages in this research: family, friendship, educational, relationship, and transactional. In the first language domain use: family, the participants use forms of address to their parents in asking for money to consider the politeness. The participants did not address their friends’ name in inviting their friends to have lunch together in the second domain of language use: friendship. Related to the third domain of language use, educational, most of the participants spoke English to avoid ambiguity when they asked for permission to their lecturers. In the fourth language domain use, relationship, the participants used Bahasa Indonesia to ask for dating to their boyfriends or girlfriends. It is considered to avoid the sense of rudeness. In the last domain of language use, transactional, the participants tended to use Bahasa Indonesia in order to be more neutral because not all street vendors are Javanese. The research results showed that Fishman’s theory on Domain of Language Use was applied in multicultural life of English Language Education Study Program students. Another finding was that domains of language uses and the addressees influence the choice of words when one was speaking in terms of the formality and politeness.

For the better research, we, the researchers of this research, recommend that the next researchers that have the interest in the same field should be clearer in giving instructions to the participants. In the case that the participants were asked to ask for money from their parents, ask them to use the language which they usually speak. If the researchers do not state that the participants have to use the language they usually speak, they tend to use Bahasa Indonesia in order to be more neutral. It may cause bias in the research itself.

For the speakers and the listeners, the researchers recommend that we have to understand one and another when we are speaking. It is because we are from different regional parts of Indonesia. We have different culture, language, and dialects of Bahasa Indonesia. Thus, we have to know how they speak first before coming to the conclusion that they are not polite.

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⁷Cilok, cireng, cimol are the foods which come from West Java

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DICTIONARY CONSISTENCY IN DEFINING LEXICAL ITEMS: FLOWERS

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Abstract

Dictionary is a medium that many people both native speakers of English and foreign language learners usually put their trust in defining the meaning of certain words. Therefore, dictionary is expected to be consistent in defining the meanings of the words in the entry list to help the language learners discover the definitions of new words. This study aimed to discover whether or not the online dictionary used by most language learners has been consistent in defining the meaning of certain words. This study focused on the consistency of *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* online (OALD) in defining lexical items, in this case, flowers. Sense of relations of meaning, in this case is hyponymy, was used to decide the appropriate referent to define the flowers' description of the meaning. Library study was conducted in order to attain the goal of this study. The writers made the list of flower and the definition of each flower listed before being compared one to another. The result showed that OALD online was inconsistent in defining lexical items. It was proven by examining the definitions of some flowers which were defined as flowers and some others were defined as part of plants.

Keywords: consistency, dictionary definition, hyponymy

INTRODUCTION

The research was done as the result of the fact that people are liable to discover the meaning or the description of certain words on certain dictionary. It made dictionaries become one of the main sources which were trusted by the language learners, in general, around the world. Dictionaries encapsulate words' definition in terms of other words, making them easy to print in books, easy to access, and easy to memorize. In spite of the reliance of the people on dictionaries, they might not be usually precise in defining the words. Alongside the development of the technology, now we have online dictionary, for example, *Oxford Advanced Learners' Dictionary (OALD) Online*, *Cambridge Dictionaries Online*, and many others. This research was aimed to discover whether online dictionary, in this case is *OALD Online*, which is commonly used by the language learners, is consistent or not in delivering and defining special lexical items: flowers.

The research examined the consistency by looking at the definition of some hyponyms. As we know, most of dictionaries employ hyponymy to narrow down the terms definition. It was used to categorize the words based on certain characteristics, so the learner would be able to get the mental-image description of the terms easier.

OALD Online was chosen for its popularity among English language learners especially the language learners in English Language Education Study Program (ELESP) of Sanata Dharma University, Yogyakarta, Indonesia. This research was going to find out how consistent *OALD Online* in delivering and defining some lexical items by comparing the description of the name of flowers in dictionaries. The names of flowers were chosen because it is common and feasible for this research to observe.

REVIEWS OF RELATED THEORY

1. Dictionary

Many ways can be used to define the meaning of words that are not familiar or to find the exact definition of a word. A dictionary is a central part of the description of any language. A good ordinary household dictionary typically gives (at least) three kinds of information about words, phonological information about how the word is pronounced, grammatical (syntactical and morphological) information about its part of speech (e.g. noun, verb) and inflection (e.g. for plural number or past tense), and semantic information about the words' meaning (Hurford & Heasley, 1983).

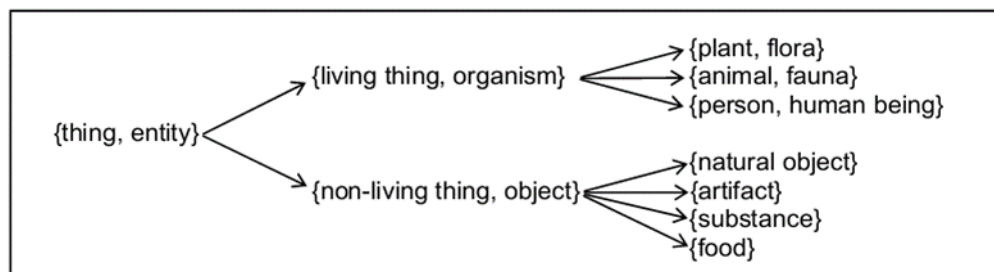
A dictionary tells you what words mean. The dictionary writers may have quite similar goal, which is to define everything, but they differ markedly in their style of approach and the emphasis which place on various goals. Ordinary lexicographers are concerned about describing meaning and not about prescribing meaning while academic semantics tend to be well educated people, and most of them speak a language, in which, for example, both bird and mammal are hyponyms of animals. Semantics aim to describe the sense relations between predicated, as they

understand them, in their own everyday language (Hurford & Heasley, 1983). Katz and Fodor (1963) state that dictionary explicates the meaning of the term by relating the word with the other words which have the similar sense of relationship such as synonym, antonym, and hyponym.

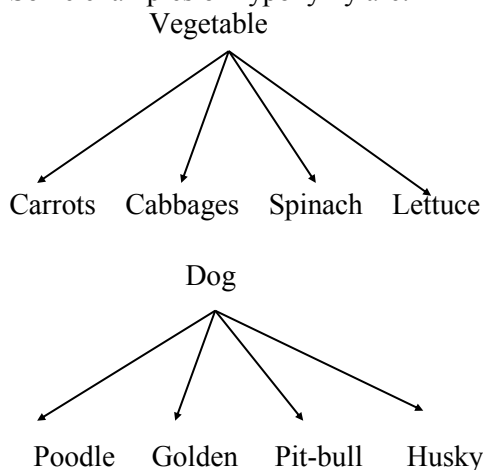
2. Hyponymy

In order to make a description of a word in dictionary, lexicographers tend to use sense of the relationship with other words. The common terms are synonym and antonym. Synonym refers to the similar meaning and antonym refers to opposite meaning. There is also hyponymy. Hyponymy is a less familiar term to most people than either synonym or antonym, but it refers to a much more important sense relation (Crystal, 2003). Hyponymy is the relationship between specific words and a general word when the former is included within the latter. Adisutrisno (2008) defines hyponymy as a sense relation between words which involves the notion of inclusion. It is a term to refer to a set or a group of words included in a higher term of word. The higher or upper term of word is called a super ordinate and the lower term is called hyponym. However, defining hyponymy is less straightforward than defining cognitive synonym. For reasons, it is necessary to restrict the type of sentence used in the definition of the words (Cruse, 1986).

Hyponymy can be illustrated by the common formula "An A is a kind of B" for example "*House* is a hyponym of the subordinate *building*, but *building* is in turn, a hyponym of the subordinate *structure*, and, in its turn, *structure* is a hyponym of the subordinate *thing*. A subordinate at a given level can be a hyponym at a higher level". It can also be said that hyponymy is viewed as the loss of specificity. It means that it involves moving from something more specific to something more general (Bergmann, Hall, & Sharon, 2007).



Some examples of hyponymy are:



Palmer (1981) said that hyponymy involves entailment. Pateda (1989) supports Palmer's statement by saying that if a hyponym of a super ordinate is determined, people will be able to imagine the name of its group. If people have been able to mention the name of the group, then they are able to mention the hyponym. An example of entailment is *This is a tulip* entails *This is a flower*. In hierarchical classification a tulip and a flower are also plants. Thus, in further specification "*flower* is an IMMEDIATE hyponym of *plant* and that *tulip* is an IMMEDIATE hyponym of *flower*."

3. Consistency

Being consistent means always behaving or happening in a similar, especially positive way. In this study, the researchers try to index the consistency in Oxford Advance Learners' Dictionary. Essentially, indexing consistency is seen as "a measure of the similarity of reaction of different human beings processing the same information".

Indexing consistency in a group of indexers is defined as "the degree of agreement in the representation of the essential information content of the document by certain sets of indexing terms selected individually and independently by each of the indexers in the group" (Tonta, 1975). Based on the theory, we can see the consistency of a dictionary from the writer representation in processing the same information.

METHODOLOGY

This study was trying to discover the consistency of *OALD Online* in defining flower names definition. The names of flowers chosen were flowers that commonly and widely known by most people (the list of name of the flowers can be seen in the result and discussion part). This study found the truth by analyzing the experts' findings through books, journals, and *OALD Online*. This research was library-study research.

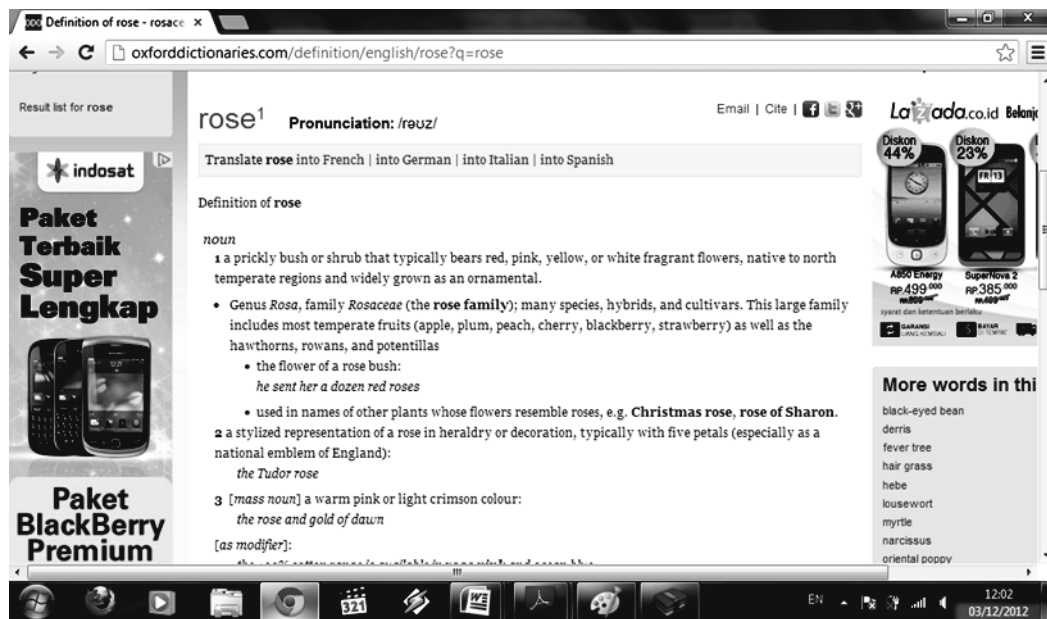
RESULT AND DISCUSSION

1. Data Collected

Having the *OALD Online*, the data of the definition of flower's names had been collected to discover the consistency of the definition based on the classification of the specific information (hyponymy). Here is the list of flowers definition cited from *OALD Online*:

Table 1.1

No.	Word	Meaning
1.	Rose	a flower with a sweet smell that grows on a bush with thorns (= sharp points) on its stems
2.	Jasmine	a plant with white or yellow flowers with a sweet smell, sometimes used to make perfume and to flavour tea
3.	Tulip	a large, brightly coloured spring flower, shaped like a cup, on a tall stem
4.	Orchid	a plant with brightly coloured flowers of unusual shapes. There are many different types of orchid and some of them are very rare.
5.	Bougainvillea	a tropical climbing plant with red, purple, white or pink flowers
6.	Hibiscus	a tropical plant or bush with large brightly coloured flowers
7.	Sunflower	a very tall plant with large yellow flowers, grown in gardens or for its seeds and their oil that are used in cooking
8.	Lily	a large white or brightly coloured flower with petals that curl back from the centre. There are many types of lily
9.	Lotus	a tropical plant with white or pink flowers that grows on the surface of lakes in Africa and Asia
10.	Dahlia	a large brightly coloured garden flower, often shaped like a ball
11.	Chrysanthemum	a large, brightly coloured garden flower that is shaped like a ball and made up of many long narrow petals
12.	Lilac	a bush or small tree with purple or white flowers with a sweet smell that grow closely together in the shape of a cone
13.	Lavender	a garden plant or bush with bunches of purple flowers with a sweet smell
14.	Azalea	a plant or bush with large flowers that may be pink, purple, white or yellow, grown in a pot or in a garden
15.	Daisy	a small wild flower with white petals around a yellow centre; a taller plant with similar but larger flowers
16.	Poppy	a wild or garden plant, with a large delicate flower that is usually red, and small black seeds. Opium is obtained from one type of poppy
17.	Alyssum	one of several types of plant. Some types, with small white, blue, or pink flowers, are common in gardens.
18.	Iris	a tall plant with long pointed leaves and large purple or yellow flowers
19.	Violet	a small wild or garden plant with purple or white flowers with a sweet smell that appear in spring
20.	Aster	a garden plant that has pink, purple, blue or white flowers with many long narrow petals



Picture taken from OALD online

The definition defined by *OALD Online*, the consistency can be seen clearly by the way the lexicographer defines the flower's names. Some of the flowers above are defined as plants but some are defined as flowers. Having this phenomenon, the researchers grouped the flowers that defined as flowers and plants in different table to elucidate the distinction.

Table 1.2: List of Flowers which are defined as flower

No.	Flowers	Definition
1.	Rose	a flower with a sweet smell that grows on a bush
2.	Tulip	a large, brightly coloured spring flower, shaped like
3.	Bougainvillea	a tropical climbing plant with red, purple, white or
4.	Daisy	a small wild flower with white petals around a yellow centre; a taller plant with similar but larger flowers
5.	Lily	a large white or brightly coloured flower with petals that curl back from the centre. There are many types of lily
6.	Dahlia	a large brightly coloured garden flower, often
7.	Chrysanthemum	a large, brightly coloured garden flower that is shaped like a ball and made up of many long narrow petals

Table 1.3: List of flowers which are defined as plant

No.	Flowers	Definition
1.	Jasmine	a plant with white or yellow flowers with a sweet smell,
2.	Orchid	a plant with brightly coloured flowers of unusual shapes. There are many different types of orchid and some of them
3.	Hibiscus	a tropical plant or bush with large brightly coloured
4.	Sunflower	a very tall plant with large yellow flowers, grown in gardens or for its seeds and their oil that are used in
5.	Lotus	a tropical plant with white or pink flowers that grows on
6.	Lilac	a bush or small tree with purple or white flowers with a sweet smell that grow closely together in the shape of a
7.	Lavender	a garden plant or bush with bunches of purple flowers with
8.	Azalea	a plant or bush with large flowers that may be pink, purple,
9.	Poppy	a wild or garden plant, with a large delicate flower that is usually red, and small black seeds. Opium is obtained from
10.	Alyssum	one of several types of plant. Some types, with small
11.	Iris	a tall plant with long pointed leaves and large purple or
12.	Violet	a small wild or garden plant with purple or white flowers
13.	Aster	a garden plant that has pink, purple, blue or white flowers

2. Plant Vs Flower and the Hyponymy

OALD Online defines "flower (noun) as the part of a plant which is often brightly colored with a pleasant smell, or the type of plant that produces these". In contrast, plant (noun) is defined as "a living thing which grows in earth, in water or on other plants, and usually has a stem, leaves, roots and flowers and produces seeds". By seeing the definition in *OALD Online*, the researchers can classify the super ordinate and the hyponym of the terms. Flower is the hyponym of plant (Palmer, 1981; Pateda, 1989). By the data collected, the classification of the hyponymy of plant and flower can be drawn as this:

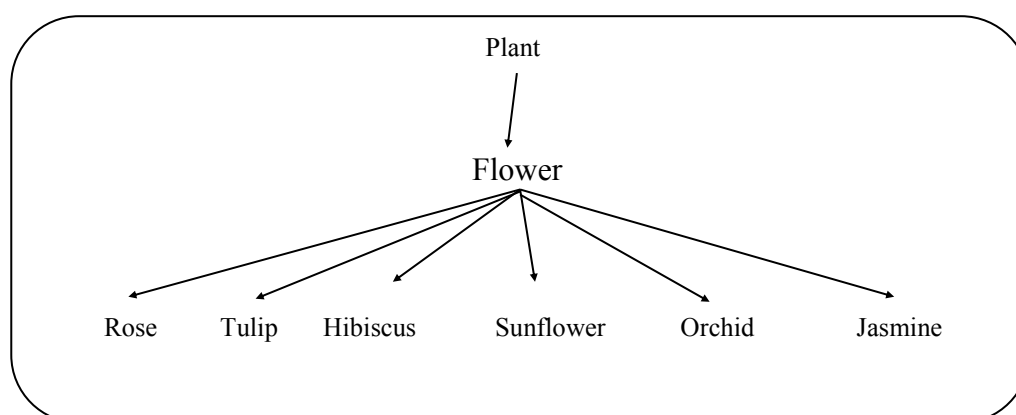


Table 2.1

The picture in the Table 2.1 gives clearer understanding about the hyponymy of plant. The Table 2.1 shows that “Plant” is the super ordinate of “Flower” and “Flower” is the hyponymy of “Plant”. To be more specific, “Rose”, “Tulip”, “Hibiscus”, “Sunflower”, “Orchid”, “Jasmine” are the hyponymy of the super ordinate “Flower”. That is just some examples of the hyponymy of “Flower”. The other names of flowers can also be considered as the hyponymy of “Flower”.

In order to help the language learner to understand the meaning of words, the lexicographer needs to be more specific in defining the definition of certain words. The term plant is the super ordinate of flower or it can be said that flower is the immediate hyponym of plant. If lexicographer define tulip, for example, as a kind of plant, it is true but it can lead the language learners especially they who are in the beginner level to a wrong definition because it too wide; meaning to say that if it is defined as flower, using the immediate hyponym, the language learners will get the imaginary description from the dictionary description.

CONCLUSION

The data collected from *OALD online* shows that flowers used for this research are defined differently in *OALD online* which is resulted to the conclusion that *OALD online* is inconsistent in defining the definition of flower’s names. The lexicographers need to be consistent in defining the terms written in the dictionary. The names of flower need to be defined as plant because flower is just a part of a plant. In contrast, kind of flowers is the hyponymy of “Flower” not “Plant” so the writer should consider this matter wisely.

The aim of dictionary is to help people find the definition of certain words and it is required to be specific in helping the dictionary users, especially for those who are not the native of the language. Seeing this case from the language learners’ aspect, the more specific the terms defined the better it would be. It is because the foreign language learners find it difficult to imagine the flowers if the definition is too general to be digested by their mental-image.

This research needs a further study to discover whether the other lexical items in dictionary have been described consistently or not. This study took a simple example of lexical item: flowers, to find it easier for the reader to be aware of the core of problem being discussed this study. There might be other items that are described inconsistently in certain dictionary, either online or printed dictionary. It would be very helpful for the improvement of English dictionaries in the future if the readers are willing to do another research related to this topic.

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APPROPRIATENESS OF VOCABULARY ITEMS FOR THIRD GRADE STUDENTS OF *SD BOPKRI GONDOLAYU YOGYAKARTA* BASED ON NATION'S FOURTEEN 1000 WORD FAMILY LISTS

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Abstract

Learning English is very important for EFL learners. Thus, it should be done as early as possible. Learning English cannot be separated from learning vocabulary. In this case, mastering many vocabulary items as early as possible is a good starting point for elementary students to learn English. Therefore, the appropriateness of vocabulary difficulty level should become a topic to consider. This research helped to find out the answer to the research question: Are the vocabulary list materials of the third grade students of SD BopkriGondolayu Yogyakarta appropriate to be given to the students? The library study was conducted in this research. The main data were collected from the third grade vocabulary list materials and Paul Nation's fourteen 1000 word family lists. The results were presented in form of percentages. After having some supporting theories and reliable data, the researchers proved that the vocabulary list materials of the third grade students of SD BopkriGondolayu Yogyakarta were appropriate to be given to the students.

Keywords: *third grade elementary students, vocabulary list materials, Paul Nation's fourteen 1000 word family lists*

INTRODUCTION

Indonesia is one of EFL countries from all over the world. EFL which stands for English as Foreign Language is used for non-English speaking area or region. However, EFL is slightly different with ESL. ESL which stands for English as Second Language is used for English as the medium language in the society after mother tongue. English has recently become the important language to learn as it is used worldwide. Crystal (2000) as cited in Ya-Chen Su (2006) stated, "English has increasingly become the international language for business and commerce, science and technology, internet, entertainment and sport". It also indicates that by understanding English, we are able to get more information provided in English and compete with other countries in this modern era. Chlopek (2008) said, "By learning English, EFL students are enabling themselves to become users of international, or rather intercultural". As the development of English learning becomes important for the EFL learners, English teachers should concern on the process of English learning itself.

One of the most prominent parts in English learning development itself is learning vocabulary. Due to its importance, learning vocabulary in EFL class becomes the essential element of learning English. Good mastery of vocabulary helps EFL learners to speak fluently, write easily and understand what they read and listen accurately. Vocabulary teaching, which is experienced by most of EFL learners, holds the important key of success for the EFL learners to learn English. Nation in the Asian EFL Journal entitled *Teaching Vocabulary* said, "The positive effect of vocabulary teaching is that it can provide help when learners feel it is most needed". Therefore, the teacher also takes part of this process of learning since they are required to facilitate the students.

Indonesia is one of EFL countries, in which the learners only learn English at schools or courses. They are accustomed to find the meaning of certain words in a dictionary then memorize them without knowing how to use the vocabulary in context. Moreover, they do not practice English in their daily life since native language and Bahasa Indonesia become the primary language. It is the essential point, in which the EFL teachers should concern about helping the EFL learners in learning vocabulary and acquiring English using the four skills: reading, writing, listening and speaking.

EFL learners have started to learn vocabulary early from elementary school. It is believed that third grade of elementary student is the appropriate stage to learn and memorize English vocabulary because their logical thinking and intelligence have been developed well due to their growth. First grade and second grade students are likely to learn and memorize less complex vocabulary. The first grade and second grade students learn English from the basic ones namely number, alphabet, and even more colors. In those stages, being able to write and read is more important than learning vocabulary in English with its complexity. Third grade students are believed to be the most appropriate and prominent stage to learn vocabulary since they have already been able to write and read. Therefore, the difficulty

level of the words chosen should be appropriate for certain level of students. Regarding this matter, EFL teachers should carefully choose the appropriate materials for the students.

Based on the consideration preceded, it is very important to check and validate the vocabulary items for the students. One way to validate the vocabulary items is by comparing the vocabulary given by Nations' fourteen 1000 word family lists. The lists have high and low frequency words which are usually used in daily life. Paul Nation is a Professor in Applied Linguistics at the *School of Linguistics and Applied Language Studies (LALS)* at *Victoria University of Wellington, New Zealand*. Furthermore, he supervises PhD research on vocabulary. He has been teaching vocabulary in several countries namely Indonesia, Thailand, the United States, Finland and Japan.

Realizing the existing vocabulary items, the age of the learners (8 until 9 years old) and the suggestion proposed by Nation (P. Nation, personal communication, September 5, 2012), this research used first three levels or first three thousand of fourteen 1000 word family lists, they were baseword 1, baseword 2 and baseword 3. In short, this research would like to address two research questions that were based on Nation's fourteen 1000 word family lists: Are the vocabulary lists materials of third grade students of *SD Bopkri Gondolayu Yogyakarta* appropriate to be given to the students? Why is it appropriate? One main reason to conduct this research was to validate the vocabulary items of third grade students by using the first three baseword which were composed by Nation.

REVIEWS OF RELATED LITERATURE

Barnhart (2011) in *Vocabulary is? The definition of Vocabulary* defines Vocabulary as (1) stock of words used by person, class of people, profession, etc and (2) a collection or list of words, usually in alphabetical order and defined. In other words, vocabulary is the daily words used by people in general and particular language. It is also defined as a list of words which is defined alphabetically or like a dictionary. However, there is a slightly different point of view from Penny Ur (1991) who says that vocabulary could be defined roughly as the words we teach in the foreign language. Deriving from the definition, words can be called as vocabulary if those come from foreign language not from our mother language which can be learnt from other languages.

Based on Nation's book entitled *Teaching Vocabulary: Strategies & Techniques* (2008), vocabulary can be divided into three until four levels largely on the basis of the language frequency and the range of language frequency namely high frequency words, low frequency words, academic words, and technical words. High frequency words refer to the words which frequently appear in all kinds of language use while low frequency words are the ones which appear rarely. Academic words refer to the words which are found in academic writing including academic textbooks, academic articles and laboratory manuals focusing on several special purposes area. Meanwhile, technical words are the ones which commonly appear in more special purposes namely the vocabulary of Physics or vocabulary of Applied Linguistics.

Two levels of vocabulary are mainly discussed in this research; they are high frequency words and low frequency words. High frequency words are the most important group of words. These words occur very frequently in all kinds of uses of the language. They are needed in formal and informal uses of the language. Most of the lists of high frequency words consist of approximately 2.000 word families. According to Nation (2008), there are three characteristics of the high frequency words. First, most of the words are quite short. Second, 169 of 2.000 word families are function words e.g. *a, at, because etc*. Third, most of these words are the ones which very young native speakers of English are likely to know.

Low frequency words are diverse group. Thus, the words in low frequency words are from wide range area. Similar to high frequency words, low frequency words have three characteristics. First, words are not quite frequent. We may find the similar low frequency words, months or years later. Second, technical words come from other areas. Most of the low frequency words have a narrow range, which are not needed in any kinds of language use. Third, words which just occur rarely since the low frequency words only have small proportion within the running words.

Furthermore, Paul Nation (2001) proposed fourteen 1000 word family lists. Fourteen 1000 word family lists are the word lists that made by Paul Nation based on his study in teaching vocabulary consisting of high frequency words and low frequency words. Word family, according to Bauer and Nation (1993), consists of a base word and all of the derived and inflected forms which can be understood by a learner without having to learn each form separately. In other words, word family list is a group that shares the same root – the part of the word that gives its basic meaning. Nation's fourteen 1000 word family lists itself consist of fourteen levels of base word which are compiled based on its frequency. Each level, which is called base word, consists of one thousand words. Base words are the free-standing words. Those words have their own meaning without any addition such as prefix or suffix.

The sources of Nation's fourteen 1000 word family lists also come from General Service List (GSL) of English words by Michael West (Longman, London 1953) for the first 2000 words, and the Academic Word List (AWL) by Coxhead (1998, 2000) containing 570 word families. All of these lists include the base forms of words

and derived forms. GSL is based on written English corpus while the AWL based on academic vocabulary. Beside those lists, there is another list, British National Corpus (BNC). BNC is the 100-million word collection of sample of written and spoken language from a wide range of sources, designed to represent a wide cross-section of British English from the later part of 20th century both spoken and written.

The vocabulary items chosen to validate in this research is third grade vocabulary items taken from the English course book. Third grade is the first stage of complex material learning or so-called the prime time. According to Bastable and Dart (2003), there are two developmental characteristics based on its stage: The developmental stages of childhood and the developmental stages of adulthood. The developmental stages of childhood are divided into five stages; infancy (first 12 month of life), toddlerhood (1-2 years of age), early childhood (3-5 years of age), middle and late childhood (6-11 years of age) and adolescence (12-19 years of age). Meanwhile, the developmental stages of adulthood is divided into three stages; young adulthood (20-40 years of age), middle-aged adulthood (41-64 years of age), older adulthood (65 years of age and older).

Furthermore, they stated that an individual's developmental stage significantly influences the ability to learn which means that each stage has its own level or standard of learning materials. The third grade students aged 8 years old, so they are included into middle-late childhood. In this stage, they approach learning with enthusiastic anticipation. Their minds are also open to new and varied ideas (Bastable&Dart, 2003). Children at this developmental level are motivated to learn because of their natural curiosity and their desire to understand more about themselves, their bodies, world, and the influence which carry different things in the world (Whitener et al., 1998). In this case, learning vocabulary becomes the major concern for them. It has been explained before that this research is dealing with third grade students because of their readiness of learning vocabulary. They are very talkative, which causes their speaking and listening vocabularies are expanding rapidly. In addition, based on educational book entitled *What Every 3rd Grade Teacher Needs to Know about Setting Up and Running a Classroom* (2011), the vocabularies of this grade are growing quickly. The third grade students tend to love to talk and explain ideas. In addition, they are ready for more complex materials since they have already been able to read and write, thus learning vocabulary becomes very important.

METHODOLOGY

This study focuses on the implementation of vocabulary items for third grade elementary students. The vocabulary items that were used in this study were taken from the third grade students' course book entitled *English Hooray!* The book was composed by Consultative Group on English Education (CGEE) of which the members were Mukarto, Sujatmiko, Murwani and Kiswara, in 2009. The course book consists of vocabulary materials and exercises which are designed by some interesting pictures. Furthermore, the vocabulary items were taken from vocabulary test materials. The researchers listed the words one by one. Those words became the main materials to be checked.

This research was qualitative research approach. According to Hancock (1998), qualitative research is a research which attempts to increase our understanding on why things are the way they are in our social world and why people act the way they do. Thus, the purpose of this approach is to answer or facilitate the question asking the reason why a phenomenon exists in the society. Furthermore, Hancock explained that qualitative research is concerned about developing explanations of social phenomena. Indeed, that this research approach concerns more about the internal factor of the object research.

The purpose of this research was to check and validate the appropriateness of vocabulary items that were given for the third grade students of *SD Bopkri Gondolayu Yogyakarta*. This research used library study as the method. According to George (2008) library study is a method that involves identifying and locating sources providing factual information or personal/ expert opinion on a research question. Therefore, the research analyzes some sources in order to answer the research question. The primary data of the study was the vocabulary items taken from a course book entitled *English Hooray!* It also used Nation's fourteen 1000 word family lists as the validation of the third vocabulary items. This research used Nation's word family lists as the validation because he was one of the experts in teaching vocabulary who really concerned about teaching vocabulary especially for EFL learners and he had categorized words in low and high frequency words compiled in the word family lists. The lists could be used as the measurement for certain vocabulary items size.

There were some steps in conducting this research. First, the researchers observed the third grade students when they processed in learning vocabulary. The researchers observed how the third grade students experienced and learned vocabulary at school. In addition, the researchers found out the third grade students' characteristics during the process of learning vocabulary. Second, the researchers collected the vocabulary items from a course book and English test materials which were provided by the English teacher. After that, the researchers had a face-to-face consultation with the English teacher and Professor Paul Nation via email as the direct sources of this research.

Fourth, the listed vocabulary items were validated by comparing those vocabulary items to Nation's word family lists. Fifth, the researchers set the appropriateness measurement based on the supporting theories of the good vocabulary items materials given for certain vocabulary teaching. The last step was classifying those vocabulary items and calculating the words that were and were not included in the Nation's word family and determined the vocabulary items appropriateness by analyzing the result of the calculation.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

Learning English cannot be separated from learning vocabulary. The more EFL learners master the vocabulary and its use, the easier they acquire English. Almost all four skills: reading, writing, listening and speaking demand on the vocabulary mastery. After having discussed some reviews of related literature briefly, the vocabulary teaching materials provided for the EFL learners should concern about the students' characteristics and the difficulty level of vocabulary itself.

This research is dealing with third grade elementary students, vocabulary items, and Nation's fourteen 1000 word family lists. This research was conducted to seek the appropriateness of vocabulary lists materials for third grade students of *SD Bopkri Gondolayu Yogyakarta* based on Nation's Fourteen 1000 Word Family Lists. The result of the research will be discussed more as follows.

Table 1. Words category based on Nation's Baseword 1, 2, and 3

No	Category	Words	Percentage (%)
1	All Words	223	100%
2	Uncategorized	30	13%
3	Baseword 1	142	64%
4	Baseword 2	33	15%
5	Baseword 3	18	8%

Based on the table above, it can be seen that there are 223 words listed as the third grade vocabulary items. As it is explained in the previous parts, these vocabularies are taken from the students' course book entitled *English Hooray!* The parts of speech of these words are adverb, preposition, determiner, noun, adjective, verb, exclamation, and ordinal number. This research validates these words by checking the third grade students' vocabulary items into Nation's word family lists. The way to validate is simply by checking the existence of the words in the first three base words of family lists composed by Nation.

From all 223 words, there are 30 words (13%) which are not included in the first three base words. Moreover, 142 words (64%) are found in the baseword 1. There are 33 words are found (15%) in the baseword 2 and 18 words (8%) are found in baseword 3. In other words, there are 30 words which are not included in the first three basewords and 193 words are found among the first three basewords. However, it is still considered as appropriate since the result of uncategorized words that shows 13% is less than 30% and only few words are inappropriate to be given to the students.

The measurement of appropriateness itself is 70:30. It is set based on the four equally balanced strands of Nation (2007): Meaning-focused input, in which the learners learn new vocabulary and establish previously, met vocabulary which focused on enjoying and understanding the materials. Therefore, there should be no more than one unknown word in every 50 running words. Meaning-focused output is in which the learners are pushed to make use if vocabulary at the boundaries of their knowledge. Though, they should not learn or use a large number of unfamiliar vocabulary. Language-focused learning is used when learners develop the explicit knowledge of particular words by seeing the meaning, form and use of words. Hence, the learners should learn the previously met vocabulary contextually in order to adjust to the familiar vocabulary and its meaning, form and use. Fluency development is in which the learners become more proficient in using the vocabulary focusing on the message-focused of four skills. Therefore, there should be no unknown vocabulary to be proficient in performing these four skills; reading, writing, listening and speaking.

In order to get the optimum result of a vocabulary teaching, these four strands should present equally in every vocabulary course. One important aspect to support the vocabulary teaching is the vocabulary material. According to Nation (2008), a good vocabulary exercise should focus on useful words, preferably high frequency words that have already met before. Also, it should provide the meet or used words that establish new mental connections which set up useful learning conditions. Moreover, it should not provide related unknown or partly

known words together to avoid interference.

Deriving from these related theories above, this research has set the appropriateness measurement to 70% appropriate vocabulary items and 30% inappropriate vocabulary items. The appropriateness measurement is set after realizing that the unknown or the unfamiliar vocabulary should not be concerned or should be less considered as a very small part of the running words or even no unknown words in certain vocabulary items. In other words, especially for EFL learners, in their vocabulary items there should not be more than 30% of unknown words occur. For certain EFL learners, learning English is sometimes difficult especially for third grade students because in their circumstance, they learn their second and foreign language at once in which the written form of English is slightly different with its spoken form. However, if the inappropriate words less than 30%, it will be much better and it can really help the EFL learners to learn vocabulary easily.

Yet, the result of the uncategorized words is also analyzed based on Nation's word family list. The result will be presented as follows:

Table 1.1 Uncategorized words

No.	Word	Part of Speech	Baseword
1.	Aloud	Adverb	Baseword 7
2.	Badminton	Noun	Baseword 5
3.	Basketball	Noun	Baseword 6
4.	Chant	Verb	Baseword 6
5.	Chin	Noun	Baseword 4
6.	Classroom	Noun	—
7.	Crossroad	Noun	Baseword 5
8.	Eraser	Noun	Baseword 5
9.	Eyebrow	Noun	Baseword 5
10.	Flyswatter	Noun	—
11.	Forehead	Noun	Baseword 6
12.	Gym	Noun	Baseword 5
13.	Hello	Exclamation	—
14.	Infirmity	Noun	Baseword 7
15.	Janitor	Noun	—
16.	Jungle	Noun	Baseword 4
17.	Kiss	Verb	Baseword 4
18.	Motorcycle	Noun	Baseword 4
19.	Pants	Noun	Baseword 4
20.	Rearrange	Verb	Baseword 4

No.	Word	Part of Speech	Baseword
21.	Restroom	Noun	–
22.	Review	Verb	Baseword 4
23.	Seesaw	Noun	–
24.	Shorts	Noun	Baseword 4
25.	Skirt	Noun	Baseword 4
26.	T-shirt	Noun	–
27.	Tailor	Noun	Baseword 5
28.	That	Determiner	–
29.	Wow	Exclamation	Baseword 16
30.	Zoo	Noun	–

The table above shows 30 uncategorized words or can be considered inappropriate words, which means that these vocabularies are not found among the first three basewords or not included as high frequency words. However, from these 30 uncategorized words, 21 words still can be found in other baseword such as baseword 4, baseword 5, baseword 6, baseword 7, and baseword 16, while the rest are not included in any baseword. The 30 uncategorized words, which are not found in baseword 1, 2, and 3, are the low frequency words. It does not mean that those words are not good to be given to the students, but the learners also need to learn the low frequency words after they have a good control in high frequency, academic, and technical words.

CONCLUSION

After having discussed the result and discussion part, it can be concluded that the third grade vocabulary items of *SD Bopkri Gondolayu Yogyakarta* are appropriate to be given to the students because the majority of the vocabulary items are included in high frequency words. It is clearly shown in the result of the words, there are 193 words are found among baseword 1, baseword 2 and baseword 3.

Besides, there are only 30 words of all the 223 words which are not included in baseword 1, baseword 2 or even baseword 3 which shows 13% of all the words. Twenty one words (9%) which are low frequency words are found in other baseword except baseword 1 up to 3. 9 words (4%) are not found in any baseword. However, these vocabulary items of *SD Bopkri Gondolayu Yogyakarta* are considered appropriate because the result shows 13%, which means that the inappropriate words are less than 30%.

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THE STUDY OF STANDARD AND NON-STANDARD VARIATION FOUND IN *LOVE ACTUALLY*

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Abstract

This paper aimed at examining the real examples of the use of standard and non-standard variation taken from *Love Actually*. The writers analyzed the category and the factors of the language variation use in the movie. The objects of the analysis were the Prime Minister and his maid, Natalie. The writers employed film analysis method and used the *Love Actually* script as the instrument to obtain the data. The writers reviewed the theory of language variation and the influencing factors. The variations were found in the Prime Minister's and Natalie's dialect. The result showed that the use of standard and non-standard variation was influenced by socioeconomic class and social network.

Keywords: standard and non-standard variation, *Love Actually*, dialect

INTRODUCTION

A. Background

Sociolinguistics is a study, which is related to the use of language in the society with the goal to understand the language structure and the function of language in the communication (Wardhaugh, 1992: 13). In this study, language and society are two elements that underlie this field of study. Society is a community in which interaction must take place and language is the facilitator of the interaction itself. In fact, society takes many different forms that affect the variations of language use.

There are many variations of language; two of them are Standard and Non-Standard Variation. Every language has standard and non-standard variation, even British English – a language that most of people see as a prestigious one – does. It is shown in a British movie, *Love Actually*. In the movie, it is found the use of standard and non-standard variation. Related to the variations and the movie, this paper will discuss those two variations that are taken from *Love Actually*.

Love Actually which is written and directed by Richard Curtis is a sort of omnibus movie which presents a number of stories about nine couples who are in love. The genre of the movie is romantic comedy and the setting of this movie is taken in London during a frantic month before Christmas in London. The characters who take the roles are so various that each character has their own language variety whether it is standard or non-standard variety. These varieties make the researchers interested in conducting a research in this area since it is believed will give contribution to the language study.

It is important to discuss these two variations found in the movie because of some reasons. First, as a language learner, it is crucial to be open-minded towards the existed language variations so that there will be no negative attitude to a particular variation. This movie shows the real example how to appreciate the standard and non-standard languages in formal and informal situation. Second, as a member of society, it is essential to understand how to use particular variation appropriately. As similar to the movie, it shows how to choose a particular language depending on the function and situation. Third, as a novice English language teacher, it is important to learn the variations in order to help the students learn better. This movie provides the real case of language variation in English language as the additional information for the novice English language teachers so that the teachers can be wiser in treating the language variation in the classroom.

B. Research Questions

1. How is the use of standard and non-standard variation in *Love Actually*?

C. Limitation

In order to make the discussion focused, there are two limitations. First, the paper will focus on standard and non-standard variation used by the Prime Minister and Natalie, the new junior member of the household staff in the



ministerial house in *Love Actually*. Thus, the scenes that are analyzed are only the scenes of Prime Minister and Natalie. Second, the variation meant in this paper is the dialect used by those two characters.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Definition of Standard & Non-Standard Variation

According to Wardaugh (1992), standard language or variation is a language that has been standardized and promoted as the 'standard' form. It means that the variation has been codified in some ways or has been developed in grammar spelling books, dictionary, or any other standardized systems. However, every word found in a dictionary is not always considered as standard form (e.g. slang). Standard language is a variety used in education and government as the official language (Ferguson, 1966). This variety is generally one which is written, recognised as a prestigious variety or code by a community, and used for H functions alongside a diversity of L varieties (Holmes, 2008: 77). In addition standard variety is also the centre of political, social, and intellectual life in England. In contrast, non-standard variation which is known as vernacular language is variation that has no official status like standard variation. Non-standard variation does not have codification because non-standard variation does not through any standardization process (Wardaugh, 1992: 30-33). Furthermore, a vernacular is usually the first language learned by people in multilingual community, and they are often used for a relatively narrow range of informal functions (Holmes, 2008: 75). Sometimes it is used only for communication in the home and with close friends. It is to show the solidarity between people from the same ethnic group. Thus, it cannot be separated from the stigmatization by the society. Here, dialect is associated with the speech of less prestigious social group, therefore the label acquires negative connotations. Yet, it should be clear that there is nothing linguistically inferior about non-standard form (Holmes, 2008: 138).

Dialect

According to Wardaugh (1992: 22), language variation can be found in the way people speak or dialect. Dialect refers to particular patterns of diction and the order of the words used by people in a particular region. Dialect occurs when a group of speakers of a particular language differs noticeably in its speech from another group. In *English*, the term dialect sometimes carries negative connotations associated with nonstandard varieties as what has been mentioned previously. In this sense, the speaker speaks a dialect of his or her native language. Unfortunately, the term dialect is also misused by laypeople to refer strictly to differences in vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation or sometimes to refer to slang usage (Bergmann, Hall, Ross, 2007: 407). For additional information, English standard is also a social dialect which is used by the well-educated English speakers throughout the world (Holmes, 2008: 137).

Social Factors That Correlate with Language Variation

There are some factors influencing the use of language variation. They are socioeconomic class, gender, and social network (O'grady, W., Acrrhibald, J., and Miller, JR, 2005: 513-515).

Socioeconomic Class

Using a particular variation according to socioeconomic class can give valuable clues to how language behavior reflects social mobility. There are two basic standings for the theory is simplified of variation; the upper classes tend to use linguistic variants with higher prestige; and the lower middle class show the most linguistic insecurity. It is because lower-middle class speaker may not have internalized norm of "correctness", they tend to adopt variant that they believe to be "correct", even though these variants are not standard.

Gender

Cross-linguistically and cross-culturally, it is admitted that the speech of men and women tends to differ. There are two tendencies which have been frequently observed. First, when variation is stable, men use more nonstandard forms than women. Second, when variation is leading to a change in the language, women use more of the incoming forms than do men. In general, women are most often associated with greater use of variants.

Social Network

It is important to know the strength of relations between individuals and their social network such as family, neighborhood, employment, religion, and friendship since the relation between individuals and their social network can influence the variation used.

METHODOLOGY

Research Method

The research is going to explore the standard and non-standard language variation used by the Prime Minister and Natalie in the *Love Actually*. The researchers used film analysis method in this study. According to Jacobs, film analysis method is the method to determine how the film actually uses various cinematic techniques and elements of film or narrative form to make a viewer react in a certain way and why it makes viewers come away with certain opinions about it (Jacobs, 2013). Moreover, the researchers also conducted the review of related literature to find the related theories to support the research. These theories are dealing with the standard and non-standard variation found in the book of sociolinguistics.

Research Instruments

To collect the data, the researchers use three instruments. They are *Love Actually* matroska video file, media player classic, and dialogue transcript of the movie.

- *Love Actually* matroska video file
It presents the intended scenes to be analyzed and helps the researchers to obtain the data about the standard and non-standard language variation in the movie.
- Media player classic
It functions to cut and choose the intended scenes to be analyzed in the *Love Actually* matroska video file.
- *Love Actually* script
It helps the researchers to look for the particular dialogue and analyze it in details and authentically.

Research Procedure

There are several steps in conducting the research. First, the researchers choose the topic that will be discussed, then select the problem of language variation which is found in *Love Actually* and formulates it into research problems. Second, the researchers review the related literature of the language variation from several sources. Third, the researchers decide the method and instruments that can be used to support the research. Fourth, with the instruments, the researchers will collect the intended data related to the topic. Fifth, after collecting the data, the researchers analyze it to obtain the intended information. Sixth, the researchers interpret the conclusion of the data. Finally, the researchers report the results into a paper.

Research Findings and Discussion

In the movie, the Prime Minister tends to use standard variation while Natalie mostly uses non-standard variation. Based on the theories reviewed, it is believed that socioeconomic class, gender, and social network take part on the use of the variations in this movie. It is clearly found that the Prime Minister is the upper class while Natalie is the lower middle class. It is proven by the fact that Prime Minister is the highest position in UK government. It makes the one who is in that position considered as one of the honorable people. As an honorable person, the Prime Minister is certainly expected to speak in the correct and good manner. It means that he is supposed to use language variation which is considered as the standard one. On the other hands, Natalie lives in Harris Street, Wandsworth, London which is an area of the lower middle class. Thus, it shows that Natalie is the low middle class. She is not too concerned with the grammatical correctness. Instead, she tends to use language variation that she considers to be correct even though it is the non-standard one.

It can be seen in the dialogue between the Prime Minister and his secretary in the Scene 42. He says, "I'm sure she is a lovely girl but I wonder if you could redistribute her?" The sentence is considered to be the standard one for several reasons. First, it is formed based on the compound-complex sentence rule. Second, the variety is not mixture of other forms, but it is pure English. Third, the sense is considered to be good; it shows diplomatic manner, politeness, gentleness, and respect. These elements are important for the upper class to communicate since once they speak in this manner, they will show the high prestige. While, the example of the way Natalie speaks can be seen in the Scene 8 when she is telling about her day to the Prime Minister: "I was gonna fuck up on my first day". It is considered as the non-standard because 'gonna' is the abbreviation of 'is going to' which is also not a standard variation. Besides, word "fuck" is considered as non-standard because this word is kind of slang which is usually stigmatized as impolite word used in less formal situation in the society (usage (Bergmann, Hall, Ross, 2007: 407)). Moreover, the way she is speaking to the Prime Minister is considered as bad for most of the people in that room – that is why most of them widen their eyes shocked. In conclusion, the Prime Minister tends to use standard variation and Natalie mostly uses the other one because their social class is different.

Moreover, the theory also says that the use of standard and non-standard variation also take gender into

account. It states that a woman has greater use of variants rather than a man, and a man is more consistent in using one variation which is usually the non-standard one. In the movie, Natalie indeed uses two variations. She does not only use the non-standard variation, but she also uses standard variation. For example, it is seen in scene 26 in which she is answering the Prime Minister's question about her life: "I've just split up with my boyfriend actually, so I'm back with my mum and dad for a while". At this time, Natalie uses the proper rule of English even though she uses 'mum' and 'dad' which are indeed informal; these words are considered as usual and proper in British English. Anyway, the Prime Minister also uses both variations. Though he is the Prime Minister of UK who is expected to speak in the high-prestigious manner, the Prime Minister also jokes by using the non-standard variation. The example is found in the scene 67 in which he jokes, "Yes and I'm sorry about all the cock-ups". This is a variation that people do not expect to be used by a Prime Minister. Cock-ups is slang which means something is done badly. Slang is expected not to be said by a Prime Minister since it does not represent his high prestige. This is what makes the way he speaks in the example to be non-standard. Thus, gender factor seems not to affect the use of the variations by the Prime Minister and Natalie in this movie.

Indeed, though the Prime Minister and Natalie are in different social class, both of them use either standard or non-standard variation because of their social network. It is found in the movie that both of them tend to use standard variation when they have to communicate to their colleagues or superior in work. They tend to use non-standard variation to communicate to their inferior in work and their family.

For instance, the Prime Minister uses standard variation in scene 34 to communicate to U.S President: "Right, Thanks, Alex. I don't think we're making progress here". In scene 70, the Prime Minister says to his sister by using non-standard variation: "I'm gonna hide somewhere". From those sayings, it can be compared which is standard and non-standard. The first one is standard since the sentence is formed in the grammar rules of English, while the other one is non-standard because – as discussed before – 'gonna' is not a standard form of English word. On the other hand, Natalie asks her colleague whether she sees Natalie's swearing to the Prime Minister by saying: "Did you see what I did?" (Scene 8). Also, Natalie grumbles to her family while looking for her coat by saying "Oh, where the fuck is my fucking coat?" (Scene 68). Though Natalie seems to be impolite because of unintentional swearing to the Prime Minister, she could manage to use standard variation to communicate to her colleague. She speaks semantically and syntactically correct, and with manner that is accepted by most of the people. Referring to her swearing while searching for her coat, it seems that the family is accustomed to the swearing since they are not disturbed with her swearing. They do not get mad of her. Therefore, it might conclude that the strong relationship between the Prime Minister and his sister, and Natalie and her family take a part on the use of non-standard. Conversely, the colleague relationship tends to affect the use of the standard one.

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

In short, there are two factors that influence the use of standard and non-standard variation found in *Love Actually*: socioeconomic class and social network. The use of language form that is grammatically correct by the Prime Minister shows that he comes from well-educated class or upper class. Nevertheless, he also uses non-standard variation when he communicates with his family and staffs. On the other hand, the use of non-standard variation, particularly in the use of the diction, shows that Natalie comes from lower middle class. However, Natalie uses standard diction in her office. In brief, it is proven that socioeconomic class and social network take a part in the use of language variations in this movie.

Furthermore, since this movie is a kind of omnibus movie which consists of nine couples with their own characteristics, there will be many interesting sociolinguistics topics that can be studied. Thus, the authors suggest to do others research related to sociolinguistics field such as politeness, code switching and code mixing found in this movie.

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Script Source: <http://withmusics.blogspot.com/search/label/Love%20Actually> retrieved on April 6, 2013.



A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF TRANSITION SIGNALS IN THE EDUCATION ARTICLES ON EDARTICLE AND O. HENRY'S SHORT STORIES

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Abstract

This study investigated the transition signals appeared in education articles on Edarticle and O. Henry's short stories. The objectives of the study were to find out the types of transition signals, the frequency of each transition type, the difference of transition signals that were used in education articles on Edarticle and O. Henry's short stories. The samples of this study were all articles and short stories found in education articles of Edarticle and short stories of O. Henry. There were four articles and four short stories selected as the samples. The data were collected by using primary data and the secondary data. Data analysis method used in this study is descriptive qualitative. The data were gathered by identifying the transition signals which are inherent with Oshima and Hogue's theory. The data were classified into three classes following Oshima and Hogue's theory; in which transition signals were classified into connectors, coordinators, and subordinator. The results of the analysis are connectors 30%, coordinators 45%, and subordinators 25% found in short stories and connectors 42%, coordinators 34.5%, subordinators 35.5% found in articles. In conclusion, coordinators in short stories and connectors in articles are predominant. It is concluded that transition signals in any kind of handwriting (fiction or non-fiction) can help the readers to understand and to follow the writer's thought.

Keywords: comparative, transition signal, articles, and short stories

INTRODUCTION

Writing is a way in expressing one's ideas, expression and imagination (Montgomery, 2000). It could be done in fiction or nonfiction thought. Fiction (from the Latin *Fictio*, "a shaping, a counterfeiting") is a name for stories which are not entirely factual, something invented or imagined, contrasted with truth). For example, novel and short story (Horby, 1987). Nonfiction, on the other hand, is a story based on the fact. For example, news, thesis, articles, journal etc.

When people read a text (fiction and nonfiction), their understanding is guided by a sense of the elements which make up the text (its constituent parts) and how they fit together. McMahan and Day (1980) said that mean the thing make the writing hangs together as a coherent. According to Coffey (1987) in *Communication Through Writing*, transition are "special vocabulary words that say to reader, "we're going from one idea to another". The writer investigates, similarities, differences the use of transition signals because transition is important in article and short story.

Based on situation above, the researcher was interested to find out the use of transitional signals especially in the articles of Edarticle and the short stories of O. Henry. It will be difficult if a reader does not know the use of transitional signals in the articles and in the short stories in order to follow the writer's ideas in the text. Therefore, the researcher was interested in doing the research to analyze the kinds of transitional signals used in the education articles of Edarticle and in O. Henry's short stories. Besides, based on this research, the researcher expects that it can help English readers to improve their English skill.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

There are many kinds of transitional signals employed by some authors. Oshima and Hogue (1995: 44) stated that transitional signals can be divided into basic groups according to their function, namely connectors which is joined one independent clause to another form of a compound sentence. Sentence connector can be in the beginning, in the middle, or in the end of a simple sentence. Coordinators (and, but, yet, or, nor, for, so) connect two independent clause to form a compound. Subordinators introduce a dependent clause that is joined to an independent clause to form a complex sentence. According to Reid (1978: 70), there are some functions of transition signals, namely as a chronological, as a spatial, as a comparison, as a contrast, as a exemplification, as a cause-effect, as an additional, as a counterargument and as a conclusion.

METHODOLOGY

This research focuses on a comparative study of transitional signals in the education articles of Edarticle and short stories by O. Henry. Therefore, the method used is descriptive method using qualitative approach. Qualitative research is the research studies which emphasize the investigation on the quality of relationships, activity, situations, or material, (Frankel and Wallen; 1993). Besides, this research emphasizes more on the quality of material as the data of the analysis.

The primary data are the education articles written by Edarticle and short stories written by O. Henry. In the primary data, the researcher read and observed the articles and short stories carefully and then critically. The secondary data of this research are collected from other sources as some books, library and also internet related with transitional signals theories and articles and short stories which help the research comparative study of education articles and short stories.

FINDINGS

This section describes the kinds of transition signals that were tabulated based on Oshima and Hogue's theories. They stated that the signals were divided into three kinds, namely connectors, coordinators and subordinators. The use of transition signals in articles and short stories was analyzed in table below. The table shows the frequency of each transition signals.

The Frequency of Transition Signals in Articles

In this research, the writer finds a lot of transition signals used in the articles. Moreover, the complete finding of transition signals can be found in the appendix. Therefore, the tables below are the list of the transition signals used in all articles of Edarticle. Moreover, the writer does not only list those transitions but also categorize those transition signals based on type of transition signals which are already discussed in the review of related literature.

Table 1. The Frequency of Transition Signals

No	Kinds of Transition	Article first	Article second	Total
I	Connectors			
	At the Beginning	14	5	19
	In the middle	5	4	9
	At the end	-	-	-
II	Coordinators	73	20	93
III	Subordinators	32	3	35

Connectors

At the Beginning

From Table 1, there are several transition signals used to show time, namely, *however, thus, generally, therefore, the first, the second, further, addition, also, next*. The transition signals are found in articles one and two. In other word, there are 14 times and 5 times in articles at all. Therefore, the total number of transition words found in all articles is 19.

For example, at beginning of the articles:

"thus, orthographic coding to refers to ability...." (articles: p. 1)

"However, in her view, dyspraxia is an inability" (articles: p. 3)

In the Middle

From Table 1, there are 9 transition words used to show time, namely, *that is, especially, then, such as*. The transition signals are found in first and second articles. Thus, there are 9 transition words found in all articles.

For example, in the middle in the articles:

"The sensorimotor system, especially kinesthetic...." (articles: p. 2)

"in written form, such as teacher-prepared handouts...." (articles: p. 5)

Coordinators

Coordinators are the most frequently transition signal used in the articles. There are 73 coordinators used in first articles and 20 coordinators used in second articles. Therefore, the total occurrence is 93 items. The coordinators used in the articles are *but, and or, so* and *yet*.

For example, coordinators in the articles:

“in the development and dissemination of research...” (articles: p. 6)

“of the arm so that the fingers the wrist.....” (articles: p.3)

Subordinator

From Table 1 in subordinators section, there are 35 items of transition signals found all articles. Specifically, there are 32 items in first articles and 3 items in second articles, namely, *because, when, as, although, then, if, and after*. The highest frequency in the transition showing subordinator words is *when* which can be seen in the appendix, particularly 10 items in all articles. Subordinator is used 10 times in the articles but it is not found in the second article.

The examples of subordinators in the articles:

Comma is used when the dependent clause comes before the independent clause.

“although, it is the nonvisual or kinesthetic feedback ...” (articles:p. 3)

if the independent clause comes after the independent clause, do not comma.

“more friction on the paper when writing. They complain...” (articles: p. 4)

The Frequency of Transition Signals in Short Stories

In this research, the writer found many transition signals used in the short stories. The complete findings of transition signals can be found in the appendix. The table below shows the list of the transition signals used in all short stories of O. Henry. Moreover, the writer does not only list the transitions but also categorize the transition signals based on type of transition signals which are already discussed in the review of related literature.

Table 2. The Frequency of Transition Signals

No	Kinds of Transition	Short story first	Short story second	Total
I	Connectors			
	At the Beginning	4	1	5
	In the middle	5	4	9
	At the end	2	1	3
II	Coordinators	81	51	132
III	Subordinators	20	18	38

Connectors

At the Beginning

There are 5 items of transition signals found short stories, namely, *then, besides, next*. The transition signals are found in first and second short story. In other word, there are 5 times and 1 times in short stories at all. Therefore, total number of transition words found in all short stories is 6.

The examples of the connectors used at the beginning found in the short stories:

“”said Sue”. “Besides, I don’t want you to keep looking at those...” (short stories: p. 3)

“the next day the docter said to sue:.....” (short stories: p. 11)

In the Middle

Table 2 shows that there are 9 transition words used to show time, namely, *that is, first, then, also*. The transition signals are found in first and second short story. Moreover, it is found that are 5 items and 4 items. Therefore, total number of transition words found in all short stories is 9.

The examples of the connectors used in the middle found in the short stories:

“it is the weakness, then” said the doctor.....” (short stories: p. 2)

“in written form, such as teacher-prepared handouts....” (short stories: p. 5)

At the End

There are two (*the first*), one (*again*) used in all short stories. There are two items in the first short story and one item in the second short story. The most important one is only used once in the second short story. There is also one item of the most important connector found second short story, *again*.

The examples of the connectors used at the end found in the short stories:

“the janitor found him in the morning of the first day in.....” (short stories: p. 6)

“in written form, such as teacher-prepared handouts....” (short stories: p. 5)

Coordinators

The writer discovers that there are 132 items used in the first short story and the second short story. The total frequency of coordinators found in all short stories is 101 items. Besides, *so, or* and *but* found in the first short story and the second short story. Coordinator *yet* is not found in the short stories.

The examples of coordinators in the short stories:

“the gas is here, and you see there ...” (short stories: page 8)

“in the theaters, but Missis Mooney she was.....” (short stories: p. 11)

Subordinators

From Table 2 in subordinator section, there are 38 items of transition signals found in all short stories. Specifically, there are 20 items in the first short story and 18 items in the second short story. The highest frequency of the transition signals which shows subordinator words, for instance *when*, can be seen in the appendix, particularly 10 items in all short stories. Besides, the names of subordinators words are *because*, *when*, *as*, *since*, *although*, *than*, *if*, and *after*.

The examples of subordinators found in the short stories:

Comma is used if the dependent clause comes before the independent clause.

“He left owing me a week. Before him was Missis crowder.....” (short stories: p. 11)

If the independent clause comes after the independent clause, do not comma.

“He smothered his excitement as best he could...” (short stories: p. 10)

The Similarities of Transition Signals Found in the Articles and the Short Stories

Based on the data, the similarities of transition signals found in the articles and the short stories were shown by the rank of each transition signal and the similar signals of coordinators that were found in the articles and the short stories. For more information, the following tables show the similarities of transition signals that were used in articles and short stories.

Table 3. The Number of Transition Signals Found in the Articles and the Short

Transition signals	Articles	Short stories
	F	F
Coordinators	93	132
Subordinators	35	38
Connectors	28	18

The table shows that there were similar ranks of each kind of transition signals in the number of frequency. Coordinators were the most dominant type in the articles and short stories which appeared 93 times and 132 times respectively. The next rank was followed by subordinators which appeared 35 times in articles and 38 times in short stories. While the least dominant was the use of connectors which appeared 28 times in articles and 18 times in short stories.

Table 4. The Signals of Connectors, Coordinator and Subordinators Found in The Articles and The Short Stories

Kinds of transition signals	Articles	Short stories
Coordinator : so, and,or, but.	✓	✓
Subordinators : as, if, after, when, because, than,	✓	✓
Connectors : then, that is, first, the next, also, thus.	✓	✓

The table clearly shows that there were similar signals of coordinators, subordinator and connectors appeared in the articles and in the short stories. All of the signals of coordinators such as *and*, *but*, *or*, and *so* were used not only in the articles but also in the short stories. While some signals of subordinators such as *as*, *if*, *after*, *when*, *because*, and *than* were used both in the articles and in the short stories. The last was the use of signals of connectors, such as *then*, *that is*, *first*, *the next*, *also* and *thus*, that were also used both in the articles and in the short stories.

The Differences of Transition Signals in Articles and Short Stories

Based on the data, the differences of transition signals that were used in the articles and in the short stories were shown by the difference of the use of some transition signals of connectors and one signal of subordinators which were used in articles but not in short stories. On the other hand, some other transition signals were used in the articles and the short stories.

Some transition signals of connectors were used in the articles (9 types of signals: *generally, therefore, however, such as, further, for example, additionally, second, especially*) but not in the short stories. On the other hand, some other transition signals of connectors were not used in articles, but they were used in the short stories (four types of signals: *now, besides, before, again*). One transition signal of subordinators was used in articles (one type of signal: *although*), but not used in the short stories. One transition signal was used in short stories (two type of signals: *before, since*). In addition, there was only one transition signals of coordinators used in articles (one type of signal: *yet*), but it was not used in the short stories.

DISCUSSION

Based on the results of the data, there are some points that can be discussed in this study. The first point of the study shows that the transition signals used both in articles and in short stories are dominated by coordinators (coordinating conjunction). These coordinator signals are *and, but, or, yet* (found only in the articles) and *so* from five signals. The use of *and* is the most dominant in the articles and the short stories. Most of the sentences in articles and short stories use this signals because there are many ideas which add one idea to another idea or similar idea. As stated by Reid (1998) that the use of *and* has the function to show what is additional or supplementary.

The second point is that the transition signals of subordinator are the second frequently used in the articles and the short stories. Subordinators (subordinating conjunctions) are the first words of dependent clauses. A dependent clause must be added with an independent clause to make a complex sentence. The subordinators are *as, if, after, when, because, before* (found only the short stories), *although* (found only the articles), *since* (found only the short stories) and *than* are found both in articles and short stories. Among these subordinators, *when* is the most frequently used. It is because in the articles and short stories, most of the sentences or ideas are telling about time or occasion. The signals of *when* is used to show relationship in time (Reid:1998).

The third point is the uses of connectors. These connectors are the least used in the articles and short stories. Some of the connectors, for instance *then, that is, the next, thus, also, such as, first of all, especially, however, further, additionally, generally, therefore* and *second*, are employed articles. While in the short stories, the connectors *then, that is, now, besides, the first, the next, also, thus, before, and again* are used. The use of *then* is the most frequently used in the articles and short stories. It happens because most of the texts tell about relationship (chronological situation). It means that the ideas are arranged according to time or the order of importance. In addition, *then* is also used for cause and effect and additional ideas.

The next point is there are some similar transition signals of coordinators, subordinators and connectors appeared both in the articles and in the short stories. The coordinators are *and, but, or, and so*. The four signals are the most dominant in the articles and the short stories. The subordinators are *when, because, as, than, after* and *if*. Among these subordinators, the use of *when* frequently appeared in the articles and in the short stories. The connectors are *then, that is, first, next, also, and thus*. The signals of *then* is dominantly used in the articles and in the short stories.

The last point of this study is some signals of connectors which are only found in the articles but not in the short stories, such as *for example, generally, therefore, however, such as, further, additionally, especially, and second*. Besides, there is one signal of subordinators that is only found in the articles but not in the short stories, such as *although*. One signal of coordinators that is only found in the articles but not in the short stories such is *yet*. *Such as* is the most frequently used in the articles. It is because articles as one kind of nonfiction subjects, meaning that most of the ideas written based on fact of what is happening at the time. Therefore, to make it clearer, the description of the issue should be added with an example or illustration. The next signals are used to signal what follows. Besides, there is one signal of subordinator that is only found in the short stories but not in the articles such as *before*. On the other hand, there are also some signals of connectors; *now, besides, before* and *again* which are only found in the short stories but not in the articles. The use of *first* is the most frequently used in the short stories because most of the ideas show signals what follows chronological order of what precedes (Reid, 1998). In addition, this signal enables a writer to pull a line of reasoning together into a single focus.

The Percentage of the Use of Transition signals

In this part, the writer provides the percentage of connectors, coordinators, subordinator of the transition signals in all short stories and articles. The percentage includes each kind of transition signals.

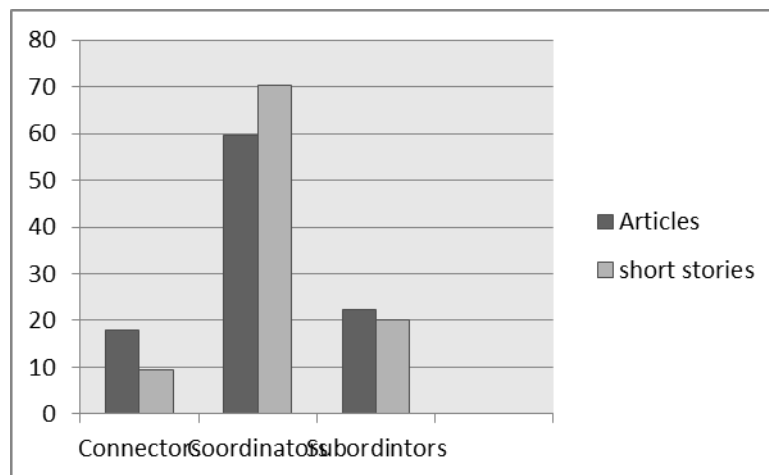


Chart 1
The Percentage of the Use of Each Kind Transition Signal

As we can see in the graphic above, there are kinds of transition signals used in the writing assignment, those:

- Connectors : To join one independent clause with another compound sentence
- Coordinators : To connect two independent clauses to form compound.
- Subordinators : To join an independent clause to form compound.

The total percentage of the use of all transition signals are 100%. Most of the transition signals are used appropriately. Moreover, the graphic above illustrates that the transition shows basic group according to their functions: Connectors 17.94%, coordinators 59.61 %, and subordinators 22.43 % in articles. Besides, the transition showing basic group according to their functions: Connectors 9.57%, coordinators 70.21%, and subordinators 20.2 % in short stories.

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

Conclusion

Based on the analysis of the data gathered during this study, two conclusions were drawn. First, the transition signals that were used both in the articles and in the short stories including all kinds of transition signals based on Oshima and Hogue's theory showed in similar ranks of each kind numbers. The coordinators were the most frequently used. The next type was the use of subordinators and the least was the use of connectors. In addition, there were similar signals of coordinators, subordinators, and connectors used both in the articles and in the short stories. In other words, we may say that the uses of transition signals both in the articles and in the short stories were relatively similar in pattern.

Second, there was just a little difference in using transition signals that were used in the articles, not in the short stories. Some transition signals (connectors, coordinators, subordinators) were found in the articles but not in the short stories and the uses of *such as* were dominantly used. While, the other such as *generally, therefore, however, further, for example, additionally, second, especially, yet, although* were accidentally used. On the other hand, some of them were found in short stories but not articles and the use of *before* was the dominant. While the other signals such as *now, besides, again* and *since* were also accidentally used.

Suggestion

Considering the result obtained in the previous sections, it is suggested that the writers and the readers of English texts need to learn more about the use of transition signals since transition signals are quite important. The writer should be more careful in using transition signals in appropriate position, right punctuation and clear texts in order to make the texts easier to be understood.

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THE INFLUENCE OF GENDER ON ENGLISH FOR DAILY CONVERSATION FOUND IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATION STUDY PROGRAM STUDENTS OF SANATA DHARMA UNIVERSITY

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Abstract

Gender belongs to one of the sociolinguistic issues. It is interesting to analyze gender when it deals with the differences on how men and women use English in their daily conversations. There are some aspects in sociolinguistics that make it different namely the language features, the standardizations of grammar, the characteristics of the speakers and the different powers of men and women. This research discussed a survey, which was done by investigating 12 semester six students of the English Language Education Study Program (ELESP). The result showed that men and women used the language differently. Even though people nowadays are concerning more on gender equality, it only affects a little percentage on the result.

Keywords: gender, language, power, standardization of grammar, gender equality, daily conversation

INTRODUCTION

Men and women are born to be different, physically and mentally. Cameron (1996, in Eckert and McConnell, 2003) states that women and men categorically said to be different. The way they behave is supposed to be different one another as well, including the way they speak in daily conversation. It is now widely accepted that women and men talk differently, women and men make differential use of the linguistic resources available to them (Thorne and Henley, 1975, in Mills 1995). This case has been very common in sociolinguistics issue which always deals with the language aspects. Language is a medium of expressing and reflecting gender identity (Talbot, 1998, in Eckert and McConnell, 2003). Besides, according to Ige and de Kadt (2002, in Boakye, 2007) women's and men's language serves as an important factor in the construction of their identities and is used to maintain relation of power.

The aim of this research is to analyze whether gender still affects a person to speak in daily conversation or not. People used to think that women and men speak differently by using different diction and language features to show their feelings in words but now time has changed. People nowadays are embedding gender equality in other people's minds, so their mindsets about gender in speaking before can be wrong.

This study has one research question, it is how does the gender affect ELESP (English Language Education Study Program) students semester 6 of Sanata Dharma University in speaking in daily conversation?

LITERATURE REVIEW

In analyzing women's and men's language the writer needs a lot of theories to support the result. There are a lot of theories about gender in speaking that are used in this research, such as the forming of gender (West and Zimmerman, 1987, in Eckert and McConnell, 2003), the special vocabulary of women (Lakoff, 1973), the paradox theory about standard grammar for women (Labov, 1991, 2001, Eckert and McConnell, 2003) and nonstandard grammar for men (Peter Trudgill, 1972, in Eckert and McConnell, 2003), the theory why women use standard language and men use non standard language (Bourhis 1975, J. Edwards 1982, in Bergval, Bing, and Freed, 1996).

The other theory used in this research is the theory of women's powerlessness (Tannen, 1990 and Holmes, 1995 in Kuntjara, 2003). This issue belongs to the reason why women and men use different standard for grammar. Talking about power and powerlessness in speaking, it must deal with politeness. It is necessary to measure and prove whether women will always be polite than men, so theory of politeness which focuses on informal context (Brown and Levinson, 1987, in Boakye, 2005) is needed. Lakoff's (1973) theories on gender and language suggest that females use language that is passive, indicating shyness and lower self-confidence (Eckert & McConnell-Ginet, 2003). According to De Klerk (1997, Boakye, 2007), gender identities reflect the material interest of those who have power and who do not.

METHODOLOGY

Subject

The subjects of this research were the 6th semester students of ELESP Sanata Dharma University. The re-

searcher chose them because they had passed all speaking classes (from semesters 1 until 5). They also had experienced speaking English longer than students from lower semester. The most important reason is the 6th semester students are taking sociolinguistics course which has information about gender issue in speaking. Considering this background, the participants have already known the knowledge about how men and women speak differently.

The participants were 12 students. They were all around 20 years old, 6 were males and 6 were females. They were all randomly picked and there were no specific criteria to be the participants. Randomization was necessary in this research. The researcher decided to take 12 students, because the result would be more valid. Besides, by using even number and the same amount of gender it would be easier to compare.

Types of Research

This research used a qualitative method by gathering the data from questionnaire. The researcher also did library study in order to get the theories from any books and journals which were appropriate to support the result.

By using a questionnaire the participants felt free to give their perception because it was self-administered by them, not by the researcher. According to Boakye (2007) questionnaire was used to obtain participants' perceptions and interpretation.

Setting

The researcher gave the questionnaires randomly to 12 ELESP students semester 6. The setting of this research was in Sanata Dharma University. The research was conducted for 2 days. At the first day, the researcher gave questionnaire to 6 male participants and the following day for 6 female participants.

The research was held on students' leisure time. Therefore, they would not be disturbed because it was held outside the class. In order to get a good and valid result, the researcher had the participants' data such as their names, gender, and what semester they were now. Their identities were disclosed and not published.

Data Gathering

The technique of this research was survey through using questionnaire. The questionnaire contained 10 common expressions that were usually used in daily conversation. The type of questions was all close-ended questions which used scaled response. The researcher chose closed-ended because it was a research about language and how a person speaks in daily conversation. If the questionnaire was in form of open-ended and the questions were about expressions commonly used in daily conversation, the result would be difficult to analyse. There would be a lot of different answers so as the result it could become unsure.

In the upper part of questionnaire, the participants were given information or short description about the topic, the aim, the researcher's name and also questions which were going to ask. Therefore, they would not be confused and nervous in answering the questions.

For the scaled response, the researcher used 'Strongly Agree' (SA), 'Agree' (A), 'Disagree' (D), and 'Strongly Disagree' (SD). The researcher did not use neutral scale or 'Not Sure' in order to avoid doubtfulness and bias.

RESULT DISCUSSION

Researchquestion: How does the gender affect ELESP (English Language Education Study Program) students semester 6 of Sanata Dharma University in speaking in daily conversation?

People think that when someone was born, he or she has belonged to a certain gender. Gender is not something we were born with, and not something we have but something we do (West and Zimmerman, 1987, in Eckert and McConnel, 2003). Being a girl or being a boy is not a stable state but an ongoing accomplishment, something that is actively done both by the individual and by those who interact with it in the various communities to which it belongs (Eckert and McConnel, 2003).

Since gender affects all aspects including the way a person speaks, the researcher wants to know how far gender identities go through it. Lakoff's theory (1973) about language features which is used in this research consists of empty adjectives, question tag, hypercorrect grammar, super polite forms, and avoidance of strong swear words. Furthermore, the time has changed, it is possible if nowadays women do not use their language features as stated in Lakoff's research anymore. It is possible for them to be impolite and have more power than men.

According to Lakoff (1973), women have their own vocabulary when they speak. He claimed that women tend to use empty adjectives such as, *adorable*, *charming*, *divine*, *lovely*, etc to show their feeling rather than men. The result is showed in the table (see Appendix Table 1), 50% of female participants answered 'Agree' to question

about empty adjectives (see Appendix Table 1). However, 33.3% of male participants answered 'Disagree' and 16% answer 'Strongly disagree'. It is proved that women use empty adjective more often than men. For question tag (see Appendix Table 1), in the theory states that women more often use question tag. However in the table (see Appendix Table 1) it is proved that between male and female participants answered 'Agree' for the same percentage 33.3%. For option 'Strongly Agree', there are 8.3% females who answered it. It proves that women use it more often, and 8.3% males answer 'Disagree'.

For hypercorrect grammar (see Appendix Table 1), it can be seen for option 'Strongly Agree', among males and females are balance 16.7%, but majority 25% female participants answered 'Agree'. According to Labov (1991, 2001, in Eckert and McConnell 2003) women's grammar is more standard than men. On the other hand, Trudgill (1972, in Eckert and McConnell, 2003), men are more likely use non standard language because of their association with working-class masculinity. On the super polite forms (see Appendix Table 1), the result had many variations, but majority 25% of male participants answered 'Agree'. Brown and Levinson (1987, in Boakye, 2007) state that women show their politeness in order to show their deference. The theory has stated that women are more polite and do not use swear words. In the result, it proves that 41.7% female respondents answered 'Disagree'.

In table 2 (see Appendix), the purpose is to prove which one is more polite, have more power and use more standard language. Women are more likely said as powerless because they always use more standard language rather than men. Brown and Levinson (1987, in Boakye, 2007) state that women's use of language as a face-saving device (Politeness strategy) is a result of their powerlessness. The way women show their anger is slightly different with men. It can be seen on the result (see Appendix Table 2), 41.7 % of female participants answered 'Disagree' to use word *damn* when they are angry. However, 25% of male respondents answered 'Agree'. Men tend to show their power in speaking by using rude words (example of nonstandard language). Actually, individuals with standard language are generally perceived to be more competent than those with nonstandard language (Bourhis 1975, J. Edwards 1982, in Bergval, Bing, and Freed, 1996)

For giving apology (see Appendix Table 2), 41.7% of male participants answered 'Agree' to forgive someone who makes mistakes easily, if it was compared to female participants who only had 25%. On the other hand, 8.3% of female participants answered 'Strongly Agree' for that item. The result of asking for apology, 41.7% of male participants answered 'Disagree' when they have to say *sorry* so many times and beg to be forgiven. Only 16.7 % of female participants answered 'Agree' and 8.3% answered Strongly Agree. By saying *sorry*, sometimes it's always considered as powerless, Tannen (1990, in Kuntjara, 2003) and Holmes (1995, in Kuntjara, 2003) state that someone who says sorry can take a one-down position and also it can be concluded as admission of powerless. That is the reason why men seldom to say *sorry* except they make serious mistakes (Kuntjara, 2003). However, women say *sorry* so many times in order to interact in ways which will maintain and increase solidarity.

On the result, it can be seen for interrupting part, 25% of female participants answered 'Agree' when they had to excuse their friends who were arguing. Even though with their friends, they still chose to excuse them by using a very polite way. Leech (1983, in Kuntjara, 2003) states that indirect request is more polite than direct one, but Blum Kulka (1987, in Kuntjara, 2003) disagrees with Leech's statement. According to him, politeness in asking request cannot be guaranteed by direct or indirect request, because he thought that indirect request is ambiguous and not clear, it makes less polite. Lakoff's (1973) theories on gender and language suggest that females use language that is passive, indicating shyness and lower self-confidence (Eckert & McConnell-Ginet, 2003). That theory is also supported by De Klerk (1997, Boakye, 2007) gender identities reflect the material interest of those who have power and who do not.

After analyzing the data, it seems very obvious that men and women talk differently. Gender issue in speaking seems complicated, because it always deals with language features, standardization of grammar, power and powerless, and also politeness. We cannot always say that women are more polite than men because they are powerless. There must be facts and theories which support the argument. The time may change but in fact the result of how men and women speak in daily conversation does not change, but in only affects on a small percentage.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, after doing a research of English Language Education Study Program (ELESP) students semester 6 in Sanata Dharma University as the subjects, the researcher found that men and women speak differently.

Even though the time has changed but the gender's term for speaking does not. At first, the researcher thought that nowadays women and men will use the same language, because nowadays people are embedding gender equality. However, the research proves that nothing is changed. Even though there are some aspects changed but it is only a small percentage.

This research has showed that gender does affect someone when they speak in daily conversation. From all aspects starting from women's language feature in Lakoff's theory, women still use it and get a very high percentage



Standard language for women and nonstandard from men are still the same. Talking about standard and non standard must deal with power and politeness. Women are likely said to be powerless because they are more polite, but they do it to show their personality (feminine). Men have more power because they are masculine. It really proves that gender plays an important role in the society.

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ACQUIRING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE BY WATCHING DR. OZ TELEVISION PROGRAM

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Abstract

As a language, English is used to get information, to directly interact with others, or to do some indirect interactions such as through phone, internet or television. There are also some difficulties which occur on most people related to the different register of English they find in their job or study, such as the differences between English in economy, medical and law. In this paper, the writer is interested to investigate Dr. Oz television program because the program delivers some information related to medical terms in English presented in simple English that can be understood by all people. The writer decides to choose the television program because it can help people to acquire English. Subtitle was used by the writer to observe the participants' understanding on getting the clear information from television program which is done by watching it. The result shows that by reading the subtitle and watching the visual image, the participant can improve their English. Therefore, English has characteristics and functions related to whom and where it is applied.

Keywords: foreign language acquisition, Dr. Oz television program

INTRODUCTION

Language is a system in speech and writing used by people to communicate and to express their idea (Hornby, 2011). A language learned primarily when a person was born called mother tongue and the other language learned after acquiring mother language called foreign language. There are many foreign languages in the world, depending on country or place where the language is used. English is a foreign language for many countries in the world. Dealing with English for specific purposes, English has many kinds of registers such as English for medical, economy and law.

Developing some tools in technology helps people to communicate without considering place, distance and time such as through telephone, television or internet. Many people can use it by using their own languages. Although many people use different languages, the information can be understood by learning English as an international language.

An easy way to learn English is by watching television. Most of people in the world like to spend their time watching television. Moreover, in UK, watching television has been a popular activity in their leisure time. Based on Euro stat survey (2010), the Europe's statistical office discovers that people in Britain spend about 45% of their free time watching television, 24% of their free time socializing, 22-23% on sport and hobbies, and 10% on other activities. Other popular leisure activities are listening to the radio, listening to pre-recorded music, reading, DIY, gardening, eating out and going to the cinema (resources.woodlands-junior.kent.sch.uk/customs/questions/weekends.htm). Based on the survey, it clearly shows that Britain people really like watching television to spend their time, similar with Indonesian people.

Dr. Oz, which is popular as a television program, shows how to be healthy and how to resolve the diseases by using a simple medical language which is simple and understandable to all people. Dr. Oz became a featured health expert on "The Oprah Winfrey Show" in 2004 and it was not long before he was a household name. After five seasons on Oprah's show, Dr. Oz branched out and started his own. As the foreign language learners, Indonesians need more efforts to understand the description of Dr. Oz about the tips and topics related to language acquisition.

Several authors explicitly point at differences in language acquisition between adults and children (Lambert et.al. 1970; Lambert & Klineberg, 1967; Larsen & Smalley, 1972; Macnamara, 1973) leading to the conclusion that children are successful in acquiring a language by being exposed to the language in an informal context. On the contrary, the effect of an informal contact is usually more limited in adults. Language acquisition is the process of attaining a specific variant of human language. Based on the statement above, this paper would like to deliver foreign language acquisition, as it is conveyed in Dr. Oz television program.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Foreign-Language

According to Wikipedia, foreign language is a language that is indigenous to another country (wikipedia-foreign-language). It is also a language which is not spoken in the native country of the person referred to, i.e. an English speaker living in Japan can say that Japanese is a foreign language to him. Besides, some authors favor adults in foreign-language acquisition by pointing to their higher capacity for planning, coordinating and controlling the learning in an explicit learning/ teaching environment (Ervin-Tripp, 1981; McLaughlin, 1981). Based on definition above, a language that is learned outside of mother tongue called foreign language. There are many foreign languages in this world, such as English, French, Japan, Arabic and Dutch. The foreign language is usually learned to increase the knowledge in specific purposes. Everyone seems to agree that children are more sensitive to foreign-language acquisition in a natural context of implicit learning. In English, there are many branches of linguistics to help people understand more on the context such as semantic, syntax and phonology.

Language Acquisition

Language acquisition is a process when someone tries to learn another language naturally or purposely. The development of language acquisition consists of three types, such as phonological development, semantic development and syntactic development and syntactic categories (Hawkins, 2009). Phonological development related to the sign, sound, and speech organ helps people to acquire the vocabulary heard while semantic development is about position of word in the sentence. It is also related to context because one word can have different meaning in different context. At last, syntactic development and category are about rule of sentence or categories of sentence. This study is interesting because it is related to the process of how we learn another language. Schütz (2007) defines some individual factors affecting second language acquisition, namely age, personality, motivation, experiences and cognition. Age includes the factor to acquire a language because it determines the ability of a person to accept the language and it is also related to the mother tongue. Next personality is related to desirability of a person to learn, their effort to try speak even it will be mistake. Motivation in this concept is divided into two types, such as intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. Besides, there are also experiences and cognition that will be discussed.

The children learn a language by using a mental organ. Some of whose principles of organization are not shared with other cognitive systems such as perception, motor control, and reasoning (Chomsky, 1975, 1991; Fodor, 1983). It means that children learn a language by using their organ like eyes, ears and brain. Children are good imitators because in their golden age, it is easier to get information or to learn. Hence, based on theory above, different character, age and environment are factors that affect our chances of learning L2. One of the ways is by watching television. Nowadays, there are many kinds of programs that are provided in television not only from own country but also from the other countries. Actually, English is used in those programs as an international language.

Dr. Oz Television Program

Dr. Oz as a television program is a kind of medical reality show presented by Dr. Mehmet Oz who explains many topics. The program became a featured health expert on “The Oprah Winfrey Show” in 2004 and it was not long before he was a household name. After five seasons on Oprah’s show, Dr. Oz branched out and started his own. However, even he had owned a show, he still has time to direct the Cardiovascular Institute and Complementary Medicine Program at New York Presbyterian Hospital, perform 100 heart operations a year and have time for his wife and four children. “The Dr. Oz Show” is now an international hit that is broadcasted in 112 countries. Dr. Oz, who has also co-authored six New York Times best-sellers, says it still amazes him at how all of this has become so great, even now it uses an international language, English. Therefore, the show can give more benefits to the audience by providing English in medical and also the important information about health.

METHODOLOGY

The writer applied library research and observation as the methods to find out and investigate the foreign language acquisition by using subtitle, article and video of Dr. Oz. Dr. Oz is also shown in *Metro Tv*. Besides, he also has website to publish his article and video and to answer the questions from his fans. Video and article were used as the objects of this paper by finding and underlining the specific words related to medical English used in the show. There are some steps to analyze the paper, namely (1) make a preparation (2) find the video and article of *The Dr. Oz Show* (3) watch the video (4) read the article (5) underline the word related to the context (6) analyze it and (7) make conclusion.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Some countries import a large number of television programs from other countries. The imported programs are generally either dubbed or subtitled in the local language. The debate about dubbing and subtitling has been settled by some considerations on speed and cost; most countries with a smaller language community typically apply subtitling due to its lower cost and easy translation. In most countries in the world where subtitling is applied, the same rules of thumb are used for timing the subtitles. The rules such as two lines of text and each with a maximum of 32 characters and spaces can be used at a time. If there are two lines with 32 characters and spaces each, the subtitle is displayed for 6 second. Shorter subtitles are time-scheduled proportionally according to this 6-s rule. Nobody seems to know how this 6-rule was made. Besides, eye contact is also needed in the creating of the subtitle. When Dr. Oz show still has relation to Oprah Winfrey show, they give subtitle to help the audience understand well but if you find the video of Dr. Oz from his website or you tube, you will seldom face that. Therefore, to resolve the problem, the audiences need to concern more on the program by closely watching the visual image.

The visual image also helps the audiences to acquire a foreign language. The visual image (not including the subtitle) and the sequence of events in the television show typically provide abundant information which makes sometimes either understanding the spoken language or reading the subtitle more difficult to follow. Moreover, it has been claimed that people unconsciously lipread to a certain extent. On Dr. Oz Show, they show good visual image like the appearance of the doctor with his guest, the discussion related to the topic and sometimes there is a video that serves as an example to elaborate something happens. However, he often uses some tools or provides the guest as the expert of the topic in order to get the attraction.

There are some factors influencing the chance to learn foreign language namely individual, ages, environment of learning, and style of instruction. Those factors also have an important role to help a person acquire a language. Language has a strong relation to a person because it is a system to transfer or to communicate among people. For example, if there are two persons who want to communicate, but one of them wants to go to some places or he does not hear another person. Therefore, the language cannot be acquired because it just engages one person without another speaker. Moreover, it actually cannot be a monologue by the context. The second factor is age. It deals with the effect to learn foreign language because there are some different abilities to acquire a language among child, adolescent and adult. The best age to learn foreign language is when we are child because children have higher ability on memory. They also do not get influence yet from outside because they just pay attention to their parents and family. Next factor is environment of learning. If we want to acquire foreign language, we also must concern the environment because it also determines the decision. For example, if we want learn English language, we must adapt to the English situation and people around us must have good competence in English so that we can follow them. The last factor is style instruction. It also has relation to your acquisition to the language because your style or style of people around you will be sources or model to you.

Those factor above are similar to Schütz but he has more elaborated concept (2007), that is individual factors of second language acquisition, namely age, personality, motivation, experiences and cognition. Age includes the factor to acquire of language because it determines the ability of a person to accept the language and it is also related to the mother tongue. Next personality is related to desirability person to learn, their effort to try speak even it will be mistake. Motivation in this concept is divided into two types, namely intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. Besides, there are also experiences and cognition. Based on Schütz theory, to acquire language of Dr.Oz show can be easier to understand and get because it will be supported to watch television program.

Thought generally refers to any mental or intellectual activity involving an individual's subjective consciousness. It can refer to either the act of thinking or the resulting ideas or arrangements of ideas. Similar concepts include cognition, sentience, consciousness, and imagination. Because thought underlies almost all human actions and interactions, understanding its physical and metaphysical origins, processes, and effects has been a longstanding goal of many academic disciplines including, among others, biology, philosophy, psychology, and sociology. Besides, the brain is the center of the nervous system in all vertebrate and invertebrate animals and only a few invertebrates such as sponges, jellyfish, adult sea squirts and starfish do not have one, even if diffuse neural tissue is present. Brain is the main control of human body . It can control your act, desire, expression, balance, etc. Thought and language are the way you need to acquire the foreign language. Because it must have a process when the audience watches television and find new word of the foreign language. Then, the process will react to brain and arrange to the context then get that mean. The design of this model is as follow:

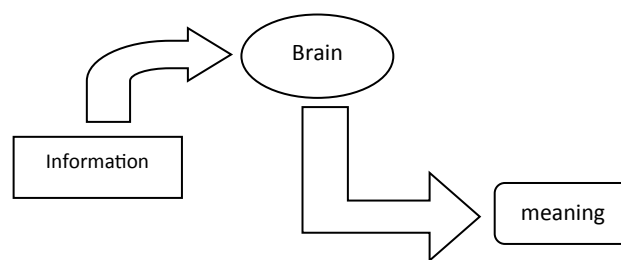


Figure 1. The process to acquire word of foreign-language model.

Although the method and technique of this paper are flexible, it should be emphasized the implementation on paying attention to the teacher or a person who want to increase their foreign language by watching television. They must concern more on the object and how the process to acquire that language. Besides, they also must do more practices, if you often hear the language then thinking the foreignlanguage by using your organ like ears or brain will be familiar.

Dr. Oz show is a television program that we can access by many ways such as through television, internet or video on youtube. He explains about medical topic but with simple word. For example, in Dr. Oz underwear test, he has a guest named Kerri Peterson, MD from Woman Health's Magazine and in the show, she is the expert of the topic. She describes that size of underwear will influence the confidence of a person. Moreover, we also need to concern more on the backside of underwear because if it is less than the front it particularly will be bacteria infection. She explains it with picture of our reproduction with rectum, urethra. She also explains how the bacteria can enter. She explains it more clearly with her own language as expert of medical but without forgetting the norm.

At the next explanation, Dr. Oz asks about the effect if our underwear is too tight, and she describes if it happens it can be a pain like stomachache to us and gives effect to our abdomen. Next is about static sling of underwear. The best way to know that we can test it is by putting the balloon on the underwear and if it slings we can use the softener to resolve that. Next, there is last question left but she has clearly explanation that we can catch without thinking hard.

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

Conclusion

Individual, age, environment of learning, and style of instruction are important factors that effect chance to learn a foreign language because those aspects can be the things to determine desirability of a person to learn the foreign language. Indonesia has many mother tongues depending on place of birth, place to live, friend of environment. Indonesian language is the national language of Indonesia that is seldom used in daily activity and in formal situation. Therefore, before they decide to learn foreign language, they have already been influenced by many languages from their place (original language). However, healthy is an important point to learn because there is someone who said that healthy is expensive. If we can get it by cheaper, simple and attractive way by just turning on your television and watch Dr. Oz program. It can give more benefit too. Beside getting information to be healthy, we can also learn English as foreign language and use it in international. To conclude this paper, thought, language and practice are important things to acquire the foreign language because it is a part of the main process to get that. In addition, we also need to be responsible and confident to learn because without it there is always a reason to make us give up or be bored to learn.

Suggestion

From conclusion above, these findings lend support to the assumption that individual factor, more practice and focus can increase the process to acquire foreign language by watching Dr. Oz Television program.

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A RESEARCH ABOUT LANGUAGE AND GENDER IN THE CONTEXT OF GENDER CONSTRUCTION IN *MISS CONGENIALITY*

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Abstract

This study attempts to expose the relationships, differences and lexico-grammatical items concerned on the gender construction found in dialogues of a male and female speakers in a movie. The methodology used in this study was document analysis, from which the data was interpreted using available theories from the books. The data were obtained by transcribing the movie script and then marking up the sentences from the two characters. Based on the analysis, there were over 40 phrases and sentences from both characters. The results showed that those characters adapt their language perspective to the demand of their workplace. The feminine male character defies the theory which assumes that upper-class men tend to ignore the grammar when speaking. Besides, the way the gendered styles found in the movie does not necessarily differ from that of the standardized English since both characters are educated. Lexico-grammatical items are content-related, depending on the topics discussed by the two characters.

Keywords: language, gender, profession, document analysis, lexico-grammatical

INTRODUCTION

Conducting research is essential in order to participate in English Language Education Study Program (ELESP) of Sanata Dharma University's Undergraduate Conference. It is the first undergraduate conference organized by ELESP of Sanata Dharma University. The conference is held to promote issues of English Language Teaching (ELT), literature and linguistics. For some reasons, we chose to make a group project on gender construction with *Miss Congeniality* as the source.

The reason why we chose this movie is that it is interesting in a way that represents language and gender construction. More specifically, the movie features linguistics aspects representing the relation between profession and language, between the grammar rule and its use in the movie, and so on. It is pretty uncommon that there is a woman who thinks, says, and acts like a man. She is a feminist. She fights for the women's rights. Later on, she must become an undercover agent and becomes a participant of a beauty pageant. She transforms from a masculine lady into a feminine one. It is nice to see the transformation and the changes happened to her.

In the movie, Gracie Hart, a masculine Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) agent thinks, says, and acts like a man. In language, there are the so called 'feminine' and 'masculine' languages. A woman with masculine language as seen in the movie is considered as a phenomenon in gender construction. Sex embodies general characteristics on ways of behaving accordingly to gender performance (Eckert, 2003). According to Eckert, it is implied that a boy would naturally imitate his father's behavior and a girl would naturally imitate her mother's behavior. For example, a boy tends to swagger and stick out his chest to imitate his father, and a little girl sometimes is found using her mother's make up as she sees her mother in make up every day.

In *Language and Gender* by Penelope Eckert (2003), it is stated:

Sex is a biological categorization based primarily on reproductive potential, whereas gender is the social elaboration of biological sex. Gender is not something we are born with, and not something we have, but something we do (West and Zimmerman 1987) –something we perform (Butler 1990).

Since gender is defined as something that one does, it also signals one's language use. Gracie, who was 'tough' as a little girl, grew manlier as the consequence of being an FBI agent. What she does, deals with dangers and laws, which are usually in the field of men. While talking, women tend to be more cooperative and collaborative, while men tend to be competitive (Kalcik 1975; Aries 1976; Coates 1989, 1991, forthcoming). While women tend to speak with appropriate and standardized grammar, men tend to ignore those things.

Through this project, we would like to analyze the gender construction in the *Miss Congeniality* with three research questions:

1. What is the relationship between the language elements used and occupation in the movie?
2. How do the language elements differ from that of the "standardized" rule of gender construction?

3. What are the lexico-grammatical items found in the movie related with the acceptance of gender construction / gender role?

By doing this research, we expect that we can expand and share our knowledge, especially for the ones participating in the first Undergraduate Conference of ELESP of Sanata Dharma University. Therefore, it can be applied in our daily life, especially in our future carrier which is related to using English, as Johann Wolfgang van Goethe said: "Knowing is not enough, we must apply; willing is not enough, we must do."

DATA COLLECTION

In order to answer the research questions, we used document analysis method. Document analysis method is the method of conducting a research by analyzing one or more document and supported by theories so that the result of the research becomes valid. In this research, the documents used are the conversations in the movie. Moreover, the theories used are the definition and things about language and gender, about 'feminine' man and 'masculine' woman.

To construct well-interpreted analysis, we gathered the data using the movie transcript which functions as the primary data. The data shown here is restricted to the most important ones that are worth to be discussed. In total, there are six books used as the references, all of them are specialized in language and gender.

ANALYSIS

The analysis will be divided into two parts. The first part is the elaboration of the feminine language in lines uttered by the character Victor Melling and the second part is the analysis of masculine language in lines spoken by Gracie Hart.

Feminine Language in Sentences Used by Victor Melling

In the movie, when Victor Melling was talking with Gracie in a restaurant, he said, *"I'm sorry? What was the question? I was distracted by a half-masticated cow rolling around in your wide-open trap."* His last sentence, especially the words *"half-masticated cow rolling around in your wide-open trap"*, has the indication of the feminine language since it exposes the use of euphuism. Instead of saying it that way, he might have said *"I was annoyed by your chewing jaws and the meat inside it."* Women tend to explain simple things with lots of detailed –and sometimes exaggerating– words, while masculine talk usually leaves simple and to-the-point words. The same characteristic is also shown in Victor Melling's line when he said, *"I was once the most sought-after, highly paid consultant in pageant history. Every season, girls would plead me to train them. Ten out of 11 years my girls were crowned. The year we lost, the winner was a deaf-mute. You can't beat that. Then in '96 my girl froze like a puddle halfway through her aria from La Boheme. Afterwards, she told a reporter from pageant magazine that I was a perfectionist who had harangued her to within an inch of her sanity. Of course, after that article came out nobody wanted me."* His lines are ultimately too long and too detailed for a masculine talk.

Another characteristic of feminine language is the matter of diction or the choice of words. Victor Melling did not use the everyday language in his sentence, *"That is because I am a miserable, grumpy elitist, and that works for me."*, *"A sniveling, obsequious weasel of a human being."*, *"I've been around this pageant for many years. I could shock you with the intimate details I'm privy to."*, *"There's been an emergency. Somebody found some sort of incendiary device."* And *"Will you desist?"* It is usually the women who use sophisticated and unusual diction in the daily life. The feminine diction is also shown in the word "grotesque" as in his line, *"Both painful and grotesque. Isn't it?"* Moreover, he used the tag question which indicates feminine language. The history is that at the past men tend to be more superior to women in the society. Tag question used by women shows their insecurity and lower position in the society, as proposed by Lakoff. But as time goes by, the perspective has changed. Now it is considered that nowadays women use tag question because they demand an immediate answer, indicating that they are powerful (Harris, 1984).

The line *"Oh, my God. I haven't seen a walk like that since Jurassic park."* uttered by Victor Melling also has feminine tone. It is women's habit to exaggerate something, in this case, the way he describes how Gracie Hart walks. According to Victor, Gracie's way of walking is more or less equal to the way dinosaurs walk in Jurassic Park walk. Any men can think of that, but only men with feminine language spit it out.

As a beauty pageant consultant, Victor is accustomed to training many ladies including their way of walking. There are some lines uttered by him when he was teaching Gracie Hart to walk appropriately. The first one is, *"Well, glide, now. Glide. Don't look down, don't look down. Don't look down, look up. Your chin should be parallel to the floor. Now glide. Glide. It's not the bloody Ice Capades. No, no. Don't pick your feet up."* The second one is, *"Yes. Wear the crown. Be the crown. You are the crown."* The third one is, *"You don't walk, you float. Gently descending, you don't look down. Go back up and do it again. Never, ever look down, okay? Thighs touching. Touching, not*



clenching. There's a gap between knees and calves, your calves and your ankles." The fourth one is, "Don't pick your feet up. Why are you picking your feet up?. No, wait. Wait. Watch me. Glide. Glide. See? Glide. It's all in the buttocks. Don't I look pretty? Roll your hips." The last one is, "Look how she walks. She's floating. Lightly ascending from cloud to cloud, towards heaven." From those five sentences, there are two other characteristics of feminine language shown. The first one is the presence of repeated sentence.

Women's habitual act is repeating what they say over and over, while men normally give their remarks only once. The second characteristic is shown in the last sentence where Victor Melling uses an analogy for the feminine lady's way of walking. He says that it is like she's floating instead of walking, even exaggerated it by saying that she lightly ascends from cloud to cloud towards heaven. He also uses analogy when he is about to leave Gracie as in "Not anymore. The cocoon is open. I've taken a woman without a smidgen of estrogen and made her a lad. I've never been prouder of myself. Or of any girl I have ever coached. You are truly unique. If I ever had a daughter, I imagine that she would be something like you. Which is why I never reproduced."

Another essential part of feminine language is the use of affectionate emphasis. Victor's feminine aspect of using language is seen from his affectionate and friendly mark such as *Zen-like state. Listen to your breathing, feel your heart, think of the Dalai Lama*. Here, he emphasizes his feelings to Gracie because he needs to do so, due to his job as a beauty consultant.

Feminine language can also be indicated by the use of some unusual diction as shown in these lines uttered by Viktor Melling, "One little mistake and I'm a bloody bellhop.", "How dare you, you cupcake!", "It's for the baggies under your eyes", "Come on, muffin." The words bellhop, cupcake, baggies, and muffin are considered as slang language. He substituted the word 'eyelid' with 'baggies' since, as a beauty consultant, he feels comfortable using fancy and slang words. Both 'cupcake' and 'muffin' have sexual connotation, concerning on sexual preference. These two words are normally used by homosexuals to describe a handsome man.

Unstandardized Grammar Lines Uttered by Gracie Hart

1. You in big trouble.
2. Hemorrhoid ointment? You think the judges will look that closely?
3. Moe and Larry in the house.
4. What? You asking me out on a date?
5. Want to join me?
6. Happy, you doughnut Nazi?
7. Those better be candy dishes!
8. You know what? Pull this off. Is it because McDonald hates me? Or is it, like, a woman thing?

There is a close relation between language perspective of a man and a woman with occupation they are enrolled to. There is a research proving that women tend to reject to adapt with androcentric discourse norms. According to Oxford Online Dictionary (oxforddictionaries.com), androcentric is focused or centered on men. In the movie, there is a phenomenon where a woman breaks this habit. She adapts herself in a masculine environment resulted to her masculine way of thinking, saying, and acting. A woman who thinks this way is called a feminist, because she demands the same rights and opportunities with men, thus she adapts with androcentric discourse norms.

As shown in the movie, it is clear that Gracie has been masculine since she was a little girl. When she grows up, she works as an FBI agent, which supports her masculinity, and even makes her more and more masculine. As stated by Jennifer Coates in her book *Language & Gender: A Reader*, as women start to enter the professions in greater number, there are calls for women to adapt to the linguistics norms of the public domain. Thus, the character Gracie develops a more masculine style of thinking, talking, and acting through her career as an FBI agent. Although women are urged to adapt to androcentric discourse norms, they are also in a double-blind state because they are regarded as aggressive and confrontational women when they apply them. This is seen when Gracie, as an agent in undercover, strives to be one of the contestants in the beauty pageant. She withstands against criticisms from her beauty consultant due to her rude speech and acts.

It is believed that women enable variables such as age, education and social class to function, in order to produce a more standardized language, as well as a higher prestige (Trudgill 1983: 161). From *Miss Congeniality* we have watched, there are some attitudes towards the use of masculine language by a woman and feminine language by a man. The first attitude is the masculine language used by a woman showed very apparently by the main character of the movie, Gracie Hart (Sandra Bullock). One of her most noticeable remarks is, *ETA 20 minutes*, when she is asked by his boss to buy donuts. That would mean that she displays a masculine quality since the phrase is uncommon for female speakers. The example of the feminine language is shown by Victor Melling (Michael Caine) who acted as a beauty consultant.

Furthermore, there are speeches like "Moe and Larry in the house", "Here comes curly. The Three Stooges.", which are associated with secret code. Those speeches relate to Gracie's job as an FBI agent. The two speeches are using code which is commonly used by secret agents like FBI, DEA and CIA.

In Fischer's study (1958) about phenomenon of sex differentiation in language in one variety of American English, he found that males used a higher percentage of non-standard forms than females. However, Victor does not put much interest on using non-standard English because as a beauty consultant he needs to maintain his power and position by speaking appropriately. One of the examples is when he tells Gracie that he would leave her, by saying "*Your Agent McDonald insists that I depart, or I won't be compensated.*". He could have said "Your friend says me leaving or I won't get funded" as a sign of grammar deviance to show masculinity. Thus, it means to say that Victor displays a feminine quality as he cannot and probably he does not want to act 'tough' like other masculine males. Edina Eisikovits, in her journal entitled Girl-talk/Boy-talk, confirms that boys usually use non-standard language to prove their masculinity.

Meanwhile, Gracie, who should have been able to function her feminine role in accurate grammar speaking, ignores this rule since she has not been conditioned to do so due to her job as an FBI agent. Working as an FBI agent requires her to perform masculine role. There are some lexico-grammatical items in the movie related with the acceptance of gender construction or gender role. Contrary to Victor who avoided vulgar swearing, Gracie tended to use additional adjective in her sentence. For example: None of your *damn* business, not another *damn* word, *damn* right I do.

CONCLUSION

The analysis has proven that occupation has big impact on someone's talk. As we can see on Gracie's talk, she uses masculine language as her daily talk because her job environment accustoms her to be a masculine female and therefore, use masculine language.

Victor has the opposite condition of Gracie. He is a beauty consultant whose job is very close to women's lives, and because of that he becomes a feminine male who often uses so many words that usually spoken by women. He uses standard language which is more often uttered by women. He does not sound like the other men as said by Edina Eisikovits that boys usually use non-standard language to prove their masculinity. The lexico-grammatical items are content-related, depending on the topics discussed by the two characters. In the movie, Gracie uses many swearing words and uses those words as additional adjective in her sentence while Victor is busy with the beautification of his sentences.

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ANALYSING THE FEMINISM VOICES IN AUDRE LORDE'S SELECTED POEMS

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Abstract

This study, focusing on feminism voices, explores how Audre Lorde portrays women in society and how they improve their own identity. In the analysis, the researcher uses black feminism concepts. The method applied in this study is descriptive qualitative. The purposes of this study are to investigate the black women in selected poetry of Audre Lorde and to analyze how Audre Lorde empowers black women in her era. The selected poems analyzed in this study are *A Woman Speaker* (1968), *For Each of You* (1968), *Now* (1968), *Love Poem* (1973), *Coal* (1976), *The Black Unicorn* (1978), *Who Said It Was Simple* (1978), and *Power* (1982). Audre Lorde demonstrates the portrait of women in the 20th century. The researcher found that white women and black men oppress black women. In the poems, Audre Lorde as a black woman cooperates with others to empower the black women in getting freedom. Consequently, the black women can increase their status in the social life and make an organization called the National Black Feminist Organization (NBFO).

Keywords: feminism, black feminism, women oppression

INTRODUCTION

This paper explores feminism in the twenty century to a Audre Lorde's poems. Audre Lorde as black feminist writer of American wrote the poem based on her experience and stressed the importance of understanding the women struggle against patriarchy society. The description of Lorde's women was treated as the second class, weak and miseducation wife. Mary Wollstonecraft in her book *A Vindication of The Right of Women* (1792) states that women are not naturally inferior to men, but appear to be only because they lack education. Women must not be treated as the second society regarded as human inferior and want to equal from women and men right.

The women oppression as the culture patriarchy acts to race, gender and the root of women's oppression in social condition. Women have written their experiences into poems based on the experience toward the oppression by white women and men. Plain and Sellers (2007:154) black feminist criticism is a body of critical and creative work written by women of African descent in the United States. The black women find the oppression by American people which negative relationship toward white women and men such as race, sex, and social. This paper analyzes how the women voices in Audre Lorde's selected poems and also analyzes the perspective Audre Lorde's empower his women in her time.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Feminism

In eighteen century early of feminism, feminism is the equality of right between women and men. The feminism is done by women to refuse all of things that were subordinated by male dominated in the politic, social, and economic. Feminism is that men and women are inherently until now appears different and the very different occupies in social roles Michael Levin (1994:3). Basically, the movement of feminism causes the equality between women and men. The goal of feminism is for establishing the equality and legal protection for women towards dominant patriarchal. The classifications histories of feminism have talked about the historical appearance of feminist movements with classification are first-wave feminism, second-wave feminism, and third-wave feminism Tandon (2008). The first-wave feminism is in nineteen century until 1960 in the United States and United Kingdom. Second wave-feminism is in the 1960s until 1990s. This focused on experience of women that gives much contribution to literary work such as race, discrimination, political issues, social, black, cultural, and other issue of equality. And third-wave feminism began early 1990s to present.

Black Feminism

In the twenty century black women have increasingly explored by feminist cultural perspective. The generally black feminism creative work written by women of Africa decents in the United State. The contemporary

black feminist came into being in the late 1960s and early 1970s. Plain and Sellers (2007:154) state that black feminist criticism is a body of critical and creative work written by women of African descent in the United States. The black feminist movement grew out to respond the black liberation movement and women's movement. The second wave of American feminism was dominated by white women, and the black power and black arts movements, which were dominated by black men Plain and Sellers (2007:154). The black women have differently experienced oppression from white women. The term of womenism is to distinguish black feminism from white feminism from Lemons (2008). The black women have negative relationship to the American political system which has always been determined by oppression racial and sexual. Black women paid work is organized within intersection oppressions of class, race, and gender Sums (2000). The most important in black feminism is the commitment to struggle against race, sex, and oppression by culture patriarchal in the society.

Women Oppression

The origin of women oppression is as an inherent biological trait of men. Oppression is a type of injustice in any aspect such as physical and social. As known, the first feminism to refuse all oppression toward women is Mary Wollstonecraft (1792), produced *A Vindication of The Right of Women*. She was forced to counter the argument which said women is subordination was inevitable and natural. The oppression of women cause difference of race, sex, and social. Simon (1995) states that the recognition of the situations of oppression may modify freedom itself. The way of women liberation can be divided into two manners. First step is thinking that the relationship between men and women from string biology and functional becomes string human and attitude. Second step is to practice that the important to economic autonomy as door body of women liberation. The liberation of working towards women as a part to struggle for the liberation.

METHODOLOGY

The method that will be used in this research is the descriptive method with qualitative approach. Creswell (1994) states that descriptive method not only arranging and collecting of data but also analyzing and interpreting the meaning of the data. This method will be applied to analyze feminism voices in portrayed Audre Lorde selection poems. The main data for this study is taken from the selection of Audre Lorde's poems such as *A Woman Speaker* (1968), *For Each Of You* (1968), *Now* (1968), *Love Poem* (1973), *Coal* (1976), *The Black Unicorn* (1978), *Who Said It Was Simple* (1978), and *Power* (1982). In these poems, the researcher only focused on the voices feminism from black feminism perspective. Then to explore the analysis in-depth, this analysis will be supported with some sources such as library, book, journal article, and internet. Furthermore, there are several techniques to analysis this paper such as close reading by paraphrasing the whole poetry, re-reading the poetry intensively and carefully, then identifying each line of the poems which supports the main problem of feminism voice in Audre Lorde's selected poems, looking the words which have relation to feminism issue and black women, analyzing these words by using black feminism concept, and making conclusion based on the research question.

FINDING AND DISCUSSION

In accordance with Audre Lorde selected poem, the women oppression and Audre Lorde's the voices empowering women used in this analysis is based on the theory of black feminism concept.

Women Oppression

According to Audre Lorde poems, that case analysis entitled "*A Woman Speaks* (1968)", omen in Lorde's century wants to deliver lamentation through lorde's poem. In the line "Moon marked and touched by sun" describes moon and sun is like a love and hope which is shown by women possession inside herself as woman and to run this life to better life in the society. Women want to get the justice between women and men, even it is very difficult. As far, we know that many discrimination in which women only need to do their duty as wife, do the household, and keep their children. Mary Wollstonecraft in her book entitled *A Vindication of The Right of Women* (1792), she argues that women are not naturally inferior to men, but they appear to be only because they lack of education. In line "but when the sea turns back" sea, shows a beauty that gives the happiness by each women and sorrow that can sink each women. In the line "I am", "woman", "and not white", the expression by Lorde's as woman and other black woman expression shows that as woman she has strength. The black women who have softness as mother, wife, and daughter and mostly from Afro-America, which gets the oppression by American, people because of different race.

In other poem "*For Each of You* (1968)", it describes that each woman can do everything without help of other people. The line "that boisterous black angel that drives you" describes about the women who must become herself and should not depend on other people. Black is as women who can help each women especially women who

get the oppression. Angel brings the shine to give spirit and hope for black women. In fact, the first feminism done to refuse all oppression towards women is Mary Wollstonecraft (1792). Producing vindication of the right of women, she was forced to counter the argument which states that the subordination of women was inevitable and natural. In line “you are offspring of slaves”, “and your mother was”, “a princess”, “in darkness”, the woman was not made as human by men. The justice for women is ignored, because the origin women from African are not regarded as only white women can do everything.

The next poem “*Now (1968)*”, time to each woman for resistance every oppression by dominant. In the line “woman power”, women have strength to persevere their right in the society. In line “black power”, black is stronger than the other, many woman in Afro-African have capacity any aspect which rises their status in social life. According to Joseph (2006), he first heard the word black power in 1966 from Mississippi Delta. Moreover, Joseph says that black power activist brings a new consciousness towards the identity of black as the soul of a new radicalism. The black power activists such as racial justice, job, black studied program university, and community control of school. In line “human power”, every human in the world has strength as part of their lives. Power is always fundamental for each woman to do something since without power it is impossible for woman to do action. The power that is had by women, black women, and each human is a sign that women cannot ignore in this life, even the women can be resistant all thing which can smash the women. Women can do action if they find the oppression by men and white women. The sense of women can response all of thing they feel.

The other poem entitled “*Love Poem (1973)*” contains love that love becomes a symbol of great affection for each human without mutual differences. The picture taken by Lorde’s that in the world we have to be together without differentiating the skin color like black and white. In line “speak earth and bless me with what is richest”, “make sky flow honey out of my hips”, “rigis mountains”, “spread over a valley”, “carved out by the mouth of rain”, describe that women as a creation from God should be loved without seeing the difference of skin color.

Like in the other poem entitled “*Coal (1976)*”, coal as black color have the oppression such as race and sex. Coal is as the darkness which gives the shine in the world. The description of “I”, “is the total black, being spoken”, from the earth’s inside”, that Lorde’s as black feminist, leader, and poet which has relation with her individual and community in the society. Lorde’s as black writer got the oppression from white women and black men due to different skin color. Plain and Sellers (2007:154) state that black feminist criticism is a body of critical and creative work written by women of African descent in the United States. In line “how a diamond comes into a knot of flame”, “how a sound comes into a word coloured”, black women always open for each human without the difference of any aspect. The relationship between black, black women was born in the world are like diamond that be protect by god. In line “like a diamond on glass windows”, found that negative effect between coal and diamond. Coal as fuel which is used by human for the transportation while the diamond is luxury and special. Diamond, everyone want it because it makes someone to become high class without concerning difference of white and black. In the society, it finds that the women do unjust and sometimes brutal action so all the women interact together in any aspect and plait relationship together to every woman.

The other poem with entitled “*The Black Unicorn (1978)*”, describes that black women and feminist poem. The description is about the expression from black women who get the oppression in any aspect such as race and gender. The description lines “the black unicorn is greedy”, “the black unicorn is impatient”, “the black unicorn was mistaken”, the expression of every women, black women, mother, and daughter. The women have been strong for resisting each problem eventhough they are only women. Women get the oppression such as race, sex, gender, and social. In line “the black unicorn is restless”, “the black unicorn is unrelenting”, “the black unicorn is not free”, black women always be patient to look out the dominations. Black women have experienced through domination in race and gender.

In the poem with entitled “*Who Said it Simple (1978)*”, the description of women oppression towards men is in everywhere, like in line discussing the problematic girls, they hire to make them free, the women always get the oppression by dominating and making the unite for looking out all the oppression such as NBFO (The National Black Feminist Organization). Simon (1995) states that recognizing that situations of oppression may modify freedom itself. The black women often talk about their feeling of the concept of sexual politic, patriarchal rule, and practice women use to struggle against oppression. In line , “as well as my bed”, “see causes in color”, “as well as sex”, because difference color, black women it is not regard, only white women that having status even, they find the sex discrimination by patriarchy.

The other poem is “*Power (1982)*”, the description about the victim of people and women life from Africa which is decent in America. The black women lives in the big city are full of many treatment, thief and abuse sex. In the line “the difference between poetry and rhetoric”, black is from Africa and white is from America. Black women and white women are in very different level in the society. Black women get the oppression more than white women do. In line “A policeman who shot down a ten year old in Queens”, “I didn’t notice the size nor nothing else only the color”, A policeman shot a ten years boy because he is a black boy. In the line “today that 37 year old white man”,

“with 13 years of police forcing”, “justice had been done”, the white man or the policeman in the New York which shoot the boy until he died, but in the judgment the police get free while in the fact the police was guilty. The discrimination is not only for the black women but also all the Afro-American. Consequently, black women refuse all the action by American people towards all the Afro-Africa. The oppression of black women is caused by the difference of race.

Audre Lorde's the Voices Empower Women

Audre Lorde writes the poems based on her experience. She describes herself as a black feminist in the twenty century from America. Lorde's said that, “I am a Black Feminist”. Lorde's writes the poem by using many words such as I, black, and women to express herself into poems. She is described as black feminist which finds that oppression done by white women and men in any aspect such as social, work, and family. Moreover, she is the black feminist who wants to get the justice in any aspect between men and women. It can be seen in poem Lorde's with title “*A Woman Speaks (1968)*”, the voices of women for raising their status in the society. In stanza, “I have been woman”, “I am”, “woman”, the expression written by Lorde's as woman and woman from America. In line /and not white/, Lorde said that,

“I am a Black Feminist. I mean I recognize that my power as well as my primary oppressions come as a result of my blackness as well as my womaness, and therefore my struggles on both of these fronts are inseparable”.

It describes that Lorde's as black woman and black feminist Afro-America. According to Plain and Sellers (2007:154), black feminist criticism is a body of critical and creative work written by women of African descent in the United States. The black feminist is from Africa which is decent in the United States.

The other poems entitled “*For Each of You (1968)*”, the expression written by Lorde's for the each woman to appraise women without the difference of color and source of life. In line “that boisterous black angel that drives you”, black women have different experiences and they get more intense of oppression from white women. In line “black angel”, angel as women which gives shine to every black women. The word angel can be described as the roles of angel such as protecting, guiding human beings, and carrying out God's tasks. It describes that Lorde's as an angel who can protect her children who are Jonathon and Elizabeth when she gets to divorce with her husband, Edward Rollins, in 1970.

Next poems entitled “*Now (1968)*”, describes Lorde's as a woman who is strong as black women to against all of the oppression. “Now” is time for Lorde's to find the equality between women and men. Stanza “woman power”, women must not be treated as second class in the society. Therefore, women are expressed as giving protection, spirit, and love. The strength of black women is useful for all resistance and oppression by white women and men. In line “black power”, is slogan for people of Africa decent to America. According to Joseps (2006) the black power first occurred in Mississippi Delta and the famous person is Martin Luther King, Jr in 1966. Plain and Sellers (2007:154) state that contemporary black feminist criticism came in the late 1960s and in the early 1970s. The origins of the feminist movement are found in the nineteenth century in Europe and America. In the line “as my eyes open”, “as my hands move”, “as my mouth speaks” shows that those are the expressions written by Lorde's to raise their status as women.

In the poems “*Love Poem (1973)*”, it can be expressed by Lorde's as love to God, children, and women. Love can give spirit. The expression written by Lorde is when she writes the first poems at age of twelve to thirteen years old to express her feeling. Lorde's studied at Hunter College High School and graduated with a bachelor's degree in 1959. In line “speak earth and bless me with what is richest”, Lorde's expresses that she comes from Africa decent to America. She gets the protection from God and as woman she creates many literary work such as poem, essay, and novel. In line “and I knew when I entered her I was”, Lorde's expresses that she takes a role as a mother for her children.

The other poems is “*Coal (1976)*”, coal which have black color, the expression of women from Africa who get the oppression from America white women. In stanza “I”, “is the total black”, I as the expression written by Lorde that she is a black writer of the poems. Total black to express that Lorde as black women. Lorde as black women wants to raise status in the society and resist all the oppression.

The line “I am black because I come from the earth's inside”, the expression by Lorde as black feminist and leader in the black American poet. Lorde said that,

“I am a Black Feminist. I mean I recognize that my power as well as my primary oppressions come as a result of my blackness as well as my womaness, and therefore my struggles on both of these fronts are inseparable”.

Lorde's is as the black feminist who gets the oppression from men. As the African women who is decent in the United States, Lorde's gets susceptible oppression from American people.

The poems is “*The Black Unicorn (1978)*”, the expression written by Lorde’s as black women, mother, feminist, and daughter which has many challenges in the life. She refused the description that is limited her and other women only on one category. The lines of “the black unicorn is greedy”, “the black unicorn is impatient”, “the black unicorn was mistaken”, the description of Lorde as a woman who is powerful for resisting every oppression. Lorde’s complains against white American thrusting its unnatural culture in black society. In the line “the black unicorn is restless”, “the black unicorn is unrelenting”, “the black unicorn is not free” the description of Lorde’s to overcome the resistance of the oppression.

The next poem is “*Who Said it Was Simple (1978)*”, the expression written by Lorde’s to refuse it if black women are recognized only as the human inferior which only as weak women. In the last poem with title “*Power (1982)*”, the description of Lorde’s for finding the identity to resist oppression.

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

Conclusion

Audre Lorde’s as black feminism in the twenty century has clearly portrayed the women oppression and found the identity in the society in her poems. The selected poems by Audre Lorde’s are *A Woman Speaker (1968)*, *For Each Of You (1968)*, *Now (1968)*, *Love Poem (1973)*, *Coal (1976)*, *The Black Unicorn (1978)*, *Who Said It Was Simple (1978)*, and *Power (1982)*. The patriarchal culture in the society that contains the superiority of men has oppressed the women. Moreover, men dominated social and cultural systems, men have the power, and men have the superiority over women and children. Black women get oppression by culture of men and always weak, as second class and get more oppression than men. Furthermore, Lorde’s empowers herself by refusing the image that she is only one category and also by raising the positive image and refusing negative mind of human in life. Moreover, Lorde’s gest the oppression because of her race and gender. Lorde’s overcomes her oppression, gives the energy for other women to resist the discrimination culture.

Suggestion

This paper aims to gain information about feminism voices in Audre Lorde’s selected poems. Dealing with it, there are certainly aspects that have not investigated yet. The element of poetry in this study was limited on feminism of Audre Lorde. Because of that, the writer would suggest that if any student of Department English Literature get the interest to make a further investigation, then it may take an investigation about the use of symbol and figurative language. Moreover, this paper can be recommended to investigate the feminism from the novel written by Audre Lorde.

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ADDRESSING TERMS IN *THE KING'S SPEECH*

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Abstract

There are many ways to address one another in society. Different terms used to address others depend on many factors, such as social class, sex and age. They can be found in a movie entitled *The King's Speech* directed by Tom Hooper. The different terms depict various social classes that exist in *The King's Speech*. However, addressing terms can also be a way to create equality and a close relationship between one another. The paper aims to analyze what and how the address terms are used in *The King's Speech*. In order to collect the data, the research uses literary research approach. From the data analysis, it is found that the terms used to address others vary from the relationship between the speakers. Status difference is highly regarded in *The King's Speech*. Title, title and last name (TLN), and a name given from a family are used in the movie. Addressing others using certain name given from a family and first name creates equality between one another. Besides, the addressing processes included in the movie are asymmetrical process, which occurs between the King and his people, and symmetrical process, which happens within the family. Nonetheless, a surprising relationship is found between Lionel (the doctor) and Bertie (the King) when both of them use their own names (first name and a name given from the family; without any title) to create equality and a close relationship.

Keywords: *addressing terms, The King's Speech, equality*

INTRODUCTION

Every one has a name to call. There are many ways to address others in society. Discussing how to name or address terms is interesting because we always deal with such things every day. When we meet others, we call them by addressing certain names, such as *Sir*, *Dad*, *Mom*, and so on. The addressing terms we use to call another are different each other, it depends on the social class, age, sex, and so on. A teacher might be called *Sir* or *Mr. Smith* by his students at school. However, he might also be called as *Dear* by his wife or *John* by his brother at home.

The movie chosen to be analyzed regarding addressing terms is *The King's Speech* directed by Tom Hooper. This film is based on the true story of King George VI (King of England). Bertie (King George VI) has suffered from a debilitating speech impediment all his life. He finds it difficult to give a speech in front of his people. Since the country, England is on the war and in the need of a leader, his wife (Elizabeth) gets him to see an eccentric speech therapist, Lionel Logue in order to overcome his suffers. After a few time being trained to give speech properly and with the support of Logue, his family, his government and Winston Churchill, Bertie can overcome his stammer and deliver a radio-address that inspires his people and unites them in battle.

This movie is good to talk about since there are a lot of terms used to name or address others. Politeness is highly regarded in *The King's Speech*. There are many terms used to address the King himself, such as *The Royal Highness*, *Sir*, *Dad* or even his family name (as Bertie). Such terms are distinctively used, depending on some factors, such as the situation where the conversation happens and the social class. In this film, it can be found that there are symmetrical and asymmetrical processes of addressing terms. For instance, a doctor may call the King as *The Royal Highness*, while the King calls the doctor as *Doctor/Sir*. Regarding those reasons, *The King's Speech* is chosen to be analyzed concerning addressing terms.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

There are many ways of addressing someone. It can be by the title (T), first name (FN), last name (LN), a nickname, combination of these, or even nothing at all. A man is called as *Doctor* by his patients, *Dad* by his son or *Dear* by his wife. According to Wardhaugh (2010: 282), in addressing another, the choice of name which is used for addressing others depends both on the knowledge of exactly who the interlocutor is and what the circumstances of the conversation are. In other words, a variety of social factors leads the choice of addressing others: the particular occasion, the social status or rank, gender, age, family relationship, occupational hierarchy, transactional status, race, or degree of intimacy.

The process of addressing others is also varied based on some social factors. It can be symmetrical as *Mr. Jones* leads to *Mr. Smith* or *John* to *Fred* (Wardhaugh, 2010: 281). It can also be asymmetrical as *Mr. Jones* to



Elizabeth. The asymmetrical use of title, last name and first name (TLN/FN) indicates inequality in power (power differential), that mutual TLN shows inequality and unfamiliarity, and that mutual FN shows equality and familiarity (Wardhaugh, 2010: 282). The variation of addressing name can also be Title alone such as *Professor*, *Doctor*, last name alone (LN) such as *Smith*, or multiple naming as *Mr. Smith*. Wardhaugh (2010) also mentions that titles such as *Sir* or *Madam* are generalized variants of the Title category, while forms as *Jack*, *Buddy* or *Mate* are generic first name (FN).

Addressing others by using only title such as *Colonel* and *Doctor* is the least intimate form of addressing someone. However, knowing and using others' first names is considered a sign of intimacy or at least a desire for such intimacy (Wardhaugh, 2010: 283). In addition, Wardhaugh (2010: 283) mentions that calling others using a nickname or pet name shows greater intimacy. Furthermore, related to the kinship system, children address their fathers as *Dad* or *Papa* or *mother* or *Mom*, while parents call the children by *son* or *daughter*.

Related to the hierarchical structure, there is a big difference between the higher level employees and the lower ones. According to Wardhaugh (2010: 288), younger employees tend to choose to use less formal address terms than older employees do because informal situations can create greater familiarity than formal ones when addressing someone. In addition to the hierarchical structure, Holmes (2001: 268) states that there are positive politeness and negative politeness. Positive politeness is solidarity orientated towards emphasis on attitudes and values. When a boss suggests his subordinates should use first name (FN), it shows a positive politeness and it minimizes the status distance among them. However, negative politeness focuses on the respecting status distance. Using title + last name (TLN) to the superiors and to other people who have not been known well is an expression of negative politeness.

METHODOLOGY

This paper is aimed to find the address terms used in "*The King's Speech*" movie and how such address terms are employed among the characters in the movie. The writer used document/content analysis to obtain data for the research. According to Fraenkel and Wallen (2008:472), content analysis is a technique that enables researchers to study human behavior in an indirect way, through analyzing the product of their communications. The analyzed documents are written contents of a communication, such as textbooks, essays, newspapers, and so on. Beside those written forms, Fraenkel and Wallen (2008) add that the documents to be analyzed can also be newspaper editorials, graffiti, musical compositions, magazine articles, advertisements, films, etc. In this research, the analyzed document is a film entitled "*The King's Speech*".

The steps involved in the research were determining the objectives, specifying the unit of analysis, locating the relevant data, developing rationale, formulating categories, and analyzing the data. The general objective of this research is to obtain the descriptive information about a topic: the address terms in "*The King's Speech*" movie. As a result of that, the research focuses upon finding out the address terms and how the terms are used in the movie. The unit of analysis in the research is the address terms particularly words and phrases. During the process of watching the film, the researcher listed the address terms found in the movie, then categorized when and where the terms are used. The researcher also observed the manifest and latent contents of the address terms in the movie. Fraenkel and Wallen (2008:477) mention that manifest content of a communication refers to the obvious, surface content – the words, pictures, images, and so on that are directly accessible to the naked eye or ear. So, the researcher found the terms used to greet or call one another in the movie. Besides, looking at the latent content, the researcher tried to find the meaning underlying what was being said or shown. Finally, the data were analyzed to draw the conclusion.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

This part will discuss what and how the address terms found in the movie are applied. After watching *The King's Speech*, some terms are found related to addressing others. The first part found in the movie is the different addressing terms between the ones used towards the King and others. It is found that the King is addressed with *Your Royal Highness* by his people or others. As an instance, the BBC news reader addresses the King using *His Royal Highness the Duke of York* as in the monologue below:

"The Opening Ceremony was the first occasion his Majesty the King addressed his subjects on the wireless.

The close of the first Season was the initial time His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales had broadcast. And today ***His Royal Highness the Duke of York*** will give his inaugural broadcast to the Nation and the World."

Besides, the King is greeted with the term: *Your Royal Highness* by his people when he meets them. The ministers or the people also show their respect by bowing in front of the King every time they meet. Another formal address is used when Bertie (King George VI) mentions his father in a speech as *his Majesty* shown as: "I have received from *his Majesty* the K-K-K ..." Bertie's doctor (Sir Blandine-Bentham) also does the same when he asks Bertie to do something as in: "If *Your Highness* will be so kind as to open his hand..." and "Fight against those marbles *Your*

Royal Highness. Enunciate!” The term *Your Royal Highness* is frequently used to address the King. Those facts clearly show that formal term or Title is used to address the King. The King is highly respected since he is one of the upper class people in the kingdom.

Another title is also used in *The King’s Speech* movie, such as *Doctor*. It is shown when Elizabeth (Bertie’s wife) thanks the doctor as: “Thank you so much, *Doctor*, it’s been most interesting”. She does not mention the doctor’s first name since she does not know a lot about him. It is the same as Wardhaugh (2010) says that addressing by only Title shows least intimate form of address term. As a result of it, Elizabeth only uses Title to address the doctor (Sir Blandine-Bentham).

A similar issue also happens between Bertie and his doctor, Lionel. The doctor named Lionel Logue calls Bertie as Mr. Johnson. He uses Title and Last Name (TLN) to Bertie. It shows that there is negative politeness between Bertie and Lionel. According to Wardhaugh (2010), Lionel respects the status differences between him and the king since he demonstrates the negative politeness. At the same time, the King (Bertie) calls Lionel as *Doctor* or *Dr. Logue*. Both of them use TLN since they have not known each other well. It is shown as in the dialogue:

- “Lionel : Bloody marvellous. You can stay here and wait for your mum. *Mr. Johnson*, do come in.
- ...
- Lionel : I was also told, speaking with a Royal, one waits for the Royal to choose the topic.
 Bertie : Aren’t you going to start treating me *Dr Logue*?
 I prefer *Doctor*.
 Lionel : I prefer *Lionel*. What’ll I call you?
 Bertie : *Your Royal Highness*, then *Sir* after that.
 Lionel : A bit formal for here. What about your name?
 Bertie : Prince Albert Frederick Arthur George?
 Lionel : How about *Bertie*?
 Bertie : Only my family uses that.
 Lionel : Perfect. In here, it’s better if we’re equals.
 Bertie : If we were equal I wouldn’t be here. I’d be at home with my wife and no-one would give a damn.
 Lionel : Everyone natters occasionally, *Bertie*.
 Bertie : Stop calling me that! Are you charging for this, *Doctor*?
 Lionel : A fortune. So, *Bertie*...when you talk to yourself, do you stammer?”

However, a bit of contrast is shown between the King and his doctor. It is quite surprising that Lionel asks Bertie to let him call Bertie as *Bertie* in order not to be too formal. He wants that both Lionel and Bertie are equal. However, the King (Bertie) refuses because he thinks that he is a King and he should be called *Your Royal Highness*. He assumes that only his family can call him *Bertie*. Nonetheless, Lionel wants to be familiar or more intimate with Bertie. After deep consideration, Bertie agrees to be called *Bertie*. According to Wardhaugh (2010: 288), it shows that “those at the bottom seek to minimize their difference in status from those at the top and those at the top seek to maximize that difference.” In other words, Lionel desires to get the informal situations which can create greater familiarity in address than formal ones by calling *Bertie* instead of *Your Royal Highness*.

Lionel changes the address term of TLN into *Bertie* (a call which is specifically used by the King’s family) in the aim of minimizing the status differences. According to Wardhaugh (2010), it is an expression of positive politeness. Nonetheless, it is quite different from what Wardhaugh (2010) states that using First Name (FN) is to minimize the status distances between two people. Although Lionel shows the familiarity or equality by addressing *Bertie*, he does not use Bertie’s first name which actually is Albert (Bertie’s full name is Prince Albert Frederick Arthur).

The process included in addressing one another also changes: asymmetrical into symmetrical. When Lionel calls *Mr. Johnson* and Bertie calls *Doctor*, it demonstrates the asymmetrical form of addressing term (which is the use of title). It really emphasizes the relationship between a doctor and a King. However it becomes symmetrical when Lionel calls *Bertie* instead of *Mr. Johnson* and Bertie calls *Lionel* instead of *Doctor*. It reduces the differences between those two people and creates more familiar relationship (as friendship).

Beside that fact, symmetrical process happens in the conversation between Elizabeth or David and Bertie. Both Elizabeth and David address Bertie as *Bertie*, while Bertie address them by their own name, *David* or *Elizabeth*. It can be proved from the dialogue between Bertie and David:

- “David : Hello, *Bertie*.
 Bertie : Hello, *David*.
 David : Been waiting long?
 Bertie : Where’ve you been?
 David : Been busy.
 Bertie : So was I.
- ...
- Bertie : Oh for heaven’s sake, *David*. You know how long he’s been ill.



...

(when Bertie waits nervously for David)

Bertie : **David!** Thank God. You look exhausted! How are you bearing up?

David : **Bertie.** I have to go. The decision's been made."

David, who is Bertie's brother, addresses him with the name given from his family, *Bertie*. Another fact is proved in the dialogue between Bertie and his wife, Elizabeth when she reminds him to stop smoking:

"Elizabeth : You can't keep doing this, **Bertie.**

Bertie : I know. Promise me: no more."

This fact shows that the relationship between them is intimate, which is family relationship. In this context, status differences are not really regarded when it is about family. So, they do not use any title or last name. They address one another by using their own names which are only used in the family.

The kinship system is also shown in *The King's Speech* from the address term the children use to call their parents. They call their father as *Papa*. It is found when Bertie's children greet their father after Bertie gives speech through the radio, as in the dialogue:

"Bertie : So how was **Papa?**

Lilibet : Halting at first, but you got much better **Papa.**

Margaret : You were just splendid, **Papa.**"

However, further data about addressing term for kinship system are not found in the movie, such as *sister*, *brother*, *grandpa* and so on.

CONCLUSION

From the explanation above, it can be concluded that status differences are highly regarded in *The King's Speech* movie. Various terms are used to address others, such as *Your Royal Highness*, title, title and last name (TLN), and a name given from the family. Title and TLN are used when two people have not known each other well. Meanwhile, addressing others using the name given from a family (such as *Bertie*) or first name only (such as *Lionel*) creates equality between both people. Most of the addressing process found in *The King's Speech* movie is the asymmetrical process, especially between the King and his people. However, most symmetrical process only happens within a family. Yet, it is particularly happens between Lionel and Bertie since both of them use their own names to address one another. Indeed, to create equality between one person and another, using name which is given from the family or which is usually used in family (without any title added) is needed.

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THE INFLUENCE OF BLITAR JAVANESE PHONEMES [b], [d], [ð] ON ENGLISH SOUND ACQUISITION IN THE PERSPECTIVE OF CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS HYPOTHESIS

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Abstract

Errors mostly occur when learners of first language are acquiring a second language. This research examined the theory of Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) by Lado about prediction of errors. It investigates how EFL learners using Blitar Javanese as the first language produce English speech sounds [b], [d] and [ð]. This qualitative research focused on finding the outcomes of the learners through three kinds of treatments given: pronouncing words, reading text, and doing free English conversation. The performances of those activities were applied to five students with strong Blitar Javanese accent. Then, the data were transcribed and analyzed to distinguish between standardized pronunciation and affected pronunciation due to Blitar Javanese accent and the evidence of the changes. The finding showed that CAH theory was validly proved in this study regarding the result because learners tended to substitute speech sounds [b], [d] and [ð] of English for resemble sounds of Blitar Javanese in certain speech sounds' location of words. Errors occurred due to the existence of inter-language and transferred those occurrences from the first language to the target language.

Keywords: contrastive analysis, errors, first language, sounds, target language

INTRODUCTION

Indonesia is a country in which many indigenous languages exist among its society. This situation may have influence when the people try to acquire a foreign language, for instance English. The influence of indigenous languages in the foreign language acquisition can be seen in the production of its speech sounds. As Guion, Flege, & Loftin (2000) has stated, the first language can have effect on producing target language even though the target language is acquired during childhood or adult age. Those impacts are inevitable. Badudu (in Wahidin, 2008) stated that no one can secede from that effect in acquiring a new foreign language because it has become people's genuine identity.

The indigenous language is used since the speaker is in the childhood and as member of a society. Lyon (in Yuliarti, 2002) declares that incapability in producing certain speech sounds is generally caused by environmental factors in childhood and the main factor is because of acquiring the first language. The accent has been usually applied in daily communication, so it gives significant effects in performing a new language.

In this study, the first language – also stated as the indigenous language– is Blitar Javanese, while the target language is English. The research took place in Blitar, a small town in East Java where the daily language usage is Javanese. The participants of research were taken randomly from student's community of SMA Negeri 1 Blitar. Those students have English as one of their school subjects which is taught twice a week.

This study specifically discusses the influence of local accent, which is Blitar Javanese accent, on the mispronunciation when producing English speech sounds. Accent is defined as a certain form of a spoken language by a subgroup of speakers of that language (Kuthy, 2001). Every indigenous language has an identical accent which is different from other languages.

Typically, in speaking, Javanese people tend to add [h] sound after [d] sound, add [h] sound after [b] sound, when the [b] sound exists in the middle of a word; and insert [m] sound before [b] sound, when the [b] sound exists in the middle of a word. Those phenomena happen because there is infected accent of Blitar Javanese when people are producing English speech sounds. Those errors in pronunciation will be identified through Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) that will be proven whether the difficulty in acquiring target language by learners of Blitar Javanese can be really predicted or not. Beside, this study is mainly focused on finding out how first language affects target language in speech sounds production, especially for [b], [d], and [ð]. Later, first language will be continually termed as L1 and target language will be continually termed as LT. However there is contrast between first language (L1) and target language (LT). Later in this study, first language will be continually written as L1 and target language as L2.

LITERATURE REVIEW

In 1960s, there was a popular theory in the field of linguistics and second language acquisition named Contrastive Analysis (CA). Charles C. Fries and Lado have the same view on strong version of the contrastive hypothesis. Contrastive analysis is a belief that difficulties in learning a language can be predicted on the related features to compare the system of the learner's first language (its grammar, phonology and lexicon) with the system of a second language. CA is practically used to predict errors. Fries (1945) names the term of it as Contrastive Linguistic Analysis (CLA). The theoretical foundation of Contrastive analysis was popularly formulated by Robert Lado in 1957 as he has written on his book titled "Language across Cultures". Then it has become well known as Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH). He states that individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings, and distribution of forms and meanings of their first language and culture to the target language and culture (p.2). It is a theory about errors production in one language as an influence of another language. He defined CAH as errors that occur as interferences output when the learners do negative transfer from L1 to L2. That is committed when there is a gap or differences that influence the performance of errors between two sources of languages.

In his book entitled "Contrastive Analysis", James (1980) defines, "CA is a linguistic enterprise aimed at producing inverted (i.e contrastive, not comparative) two-valued typologies (a CA is always concerned with a pair of languages), and founded on the assumption that languages can be compared,". CA deals with two languages to be contrasted. The term contrastive is quite different from comparative. Contrastive means finding out the differences between two or more things, while comparative is aimed to find out the similarities between two or more things. James also points out that in the study of second-language or foreign-language, CA deals with bilingualism instead of monolinguals, which means two languages (L1 and LT) are involved. L1 in this context is the first language and LT is the target language. The objective of CA is actually to analyze the effects caused by native languages on the target language being learnt by the native of L1. CA is not a theory that generalizes the effects by conducting analysis to all of aspects of learners as general. As James states, CA is only concerned on how the first language affects the acquisition of the target language.

METHODOLOGY

A. Research Questions

Based on the background above, this study is mainly focused on answering the questions of:

1. Can errors on English production by Blitar Javanese learners be predicted regarding to Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis?
2. What errors that can be proved by this research?

B. Participants

Participants of this study were five students of SMA Negeri 1 Blitar with the average age level of 16 up to 18 years old. Participants were chosen randomly. Participants used Javanese as their first language in daily life conversation. They also get English lesson (EFL) twice a week. Each meeting of English lesson spends two lesson hours. Each of lesson hours consists of 45 minutes, so in a week they get English lesson for 180 minutes.

C. Research design

This study belongs to a qualitative research to prove a theory. The objective of the study is to find out the effect of Blitar Javanese accent in producing English speech sounds of [b], [d], and [ð]. The study uses first hand approach, because the way to find out the data is directly obtained from participants without any other intermediary (Ethnographic approach).

D. Data collection

Each participant was given three kinds of tasks. The first task was asking them to do a free conversation with the data taker. Second, they were asked to read a text that consisting of some paragraphs with possible words where speech sounds of [b], [d], and [ð] are dominant within the text. The last task was asking the participants to read a list of words having sounds of [b], [d], or [ð] in the placements of beginning, middle, and end of words. The amount of paragraphs in the second task was fourteen and the total of words in third task was 210. All features on all treatments were in English. The reasons why it needed many instruments (a lot of paragraphs and words) because it was aimed to see the consistency of errors that participants may produce and also to avoid intentional non-

errors productions by participants so the performance is truly natural.

While each participant was doing each performance, the researcher recorded every single action through video output. The researcher chose to use video feature rather than audio because it would be easier to see the speech sounds production through participants' movement of their mouth so it would strengthen the audio output. The time to collect the data was after school time, taken around July 2012. The place was at school area of SMA Negeri 1 Blitar.

E. Data Analysis

All of data findings from all treatments would be concerned to analyze the errors of English speech sounds spoken by participants as the effect of their Blitar Javanese accent involvement. The researcher will focus on the particular words that have speech sounds of [b], [d], and [ð] within conversation, text, and words list; focusing on audio output and the way how the participants speak the sounds (by watching the video output).

The audio of reading paragraphs would be concerned into certain mispronouncing words then it would be transcribed into phonetics symbols to see the differences between Blitar Javanese speech sounds and English received speech sounds in detail.

All outputs from all participants were transcribed through three steps of transcriptions which were transcription to sentences/words, transcription to English received phonetics symbols based on Oxford Dictionary, and the last transcription to the errors phonetics symbols as the effect of Blitar Javanese accent.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

A. Findings

Error Identification and Description

From the finding, it can be found that there are findings on errors identification that occurs on three tasks given; free conversation, reading text, and reading list of words, in case of sounds production [b], [d] and [ð]. Here some brief sample of errors production through three classified treatments:

(a) Free conversation

• Transcription:

"emm.. actually I have a hobby playing chess but aa.. it now I don't I don't I don't em.. yes I don't practice that so a.. I don't know a.. what I.. I can I can.. I can play the chess again I don't know."

• Received phonetics transcription:

"emm.. /'aktʃʊəli/ /aɪ/ /hav/ /ə/ /'hɒbi/ /pleɪ/ /tʃes/ /bʌt/ aa.. /ɪt/ /naʊ/ /aɪ/ /dəʊ nt/ /aɪ/ /dəʊ nt/ /aɪ/ /dəʊ nt/ em.. /yes/ /aɪ/ /dəʊ nt/ /'praktɪs/ /ðæt/ /səʊ/ a.. /aɪ/ /dəʊ nt/ /nəʊ/ a.. /wɒt/ /aɪ/.. /aɪ/ /kən/ /aɪ/ /kən/.. /aɪ/ /kən/ /pleɪ/ /ðə/ /tʃes/ /ə'geɪn/ /aɪ/ /dəʊ nt/ /nəʊ/."

• Errors transcription:

"emm.. /'aktʃʊəli/ /aɪ/ /hav/ /ə/ /'hɒbi/ /pleɪ/ /tʃes/ /bʰʌt/ aa.. /ɪt/ /naʊ/ /aɪ/ /dəʊ nt/ /aɪ/ /dhəʊnt/ /aɪ/ /dhəʊnt/ em.. /yes/ /aɪ/ /dhəʊnt/ /'praktɪs/ /ðet/ /səʊ/ a.. /aɪ/ /dhəʊnt/ /nəʊ/ a.. /whot/ /aɪ/.. /aɪ/ /kən/ /aɪ/ /kən/.. /aɪ/ /kən/ /pleɪ/ /də/ /tʃes/ /ə'geɪn/ /aɪ/ /dəʊ nt/ /nəʊ/."

(Italic : fellar)

(blue: received English phonetic symbols)

(Underlined : pointed words)

(red: error phonetics symbols)

[b] : but → /bʌt/ (English) → /bʰʌt/ (Blitar Javanese)
[d] : don't → /dəʊnt/ (English) → /dhəʊnt/ (Blitar Javanese)
[ð] : the → /ðə/ (English) → /də/ (Blitar Javanese)



(b) Reading text

• Text:

"It's not easy to reconcile this with the young Goss, who was anything but Sinatra-ish, but the point is: for a former boyband star, he's certainly doing well."

• Received phonetics transcription:

"It's not easy to reconcile /ðɪs/with /ðə/ young Goss, who was /'enɪθɪŋ/ /bʌt/ Sinatra-ish, /bʌt/ /ðə/ point is: for a former /bɔɪbænd/ star, he's certainly /'duːɪŋ/ well."

• Errors transcription:

"It's not easy to reconcile /ðɪs/with /də/ young Goss, who was /'enɪθɪŋ/ /bʌt/ Sinatra-ish, /bhʌt/ /ndə/ point is: for a former /bhɔɪbhand/ star, he's certainly/'dhɔːɪŋ/ well."

(Italic : fellar)

(blue: received English phonetic symbols)

(Underlined : pointed words)

(red: error phonetics symbols)

[b] : but → /bʌt/ (English) → /bhʌt/ (Blitar Javanese)
 boyband → /bɔɪbænd/ (English) → /bhɔɪbhand/ (Blitar Javanese)
 [d] : doing → /'duːɪŋ/ (English) → /'dhɔːɪŋ/ (Blitar Javanese)
 [ð] : the → /ðə/ (English) → /də/ (Blitar Javanese)

(c) Reading list of words

Table 1. Sample of [b] production in reading English words

Position of [b] in word	Word	English	Blitar Javanese
beginning (one syllable)	<u>Blue</u>	/bluː/	/bhluː/
beginning stop (one syllable)	<u>Base</u>	/beɪs/	/bheɪs/
beginning (more than one syllable)	<u>brochure</u>	/'brəʊʃə(r)/	/'bhrəʊʃə(r)/
middle	<u>Zombie</u>	/'zɒmbi/	/'zɒmbhi/
middle stop	<u>bombastic</u>	/bɒm'bæstɪk/	/'bhrəʊʃə(r)/
end	<u>Club</u>	/klʌb/	/kleb/

Table 2. Sample of [d] production in reading English words

Position of [d] in word	Word	English	Blitar Javanese
beginning (one syllable)	<u>Do</u>	/duː/	/dhuː/
beginning stop (one syllable)	<u>Disk</u>	/dɪsk/	/dhis/
beginning (more than one syllable)	<u>Disagree</u>	/dɪsə'griː/	/dhisə'griː/
middle	<u>degradation</u>	/'degrə'deɪʃn/	/'dhegrə'dheɪʃn/
middle stop	<u>Sending</u>	/sendɪŋ/	/sendhɪŋ/
end	<u>Bold</u>	/bɔld/	/bəʊld/

Table 3. Sample of [ð] production in reading English words

Position of [ð] in word	Word	English	Blitar Javanese
beginning (one syllable)	<u>they</u>	/ðeɪ/	/dei/
beginning stop (one syllable)	<u>them</u>	/ðəm/	/ndəm/
beginning (more than one syllable)	-	-	-
middle	-	-	-
middle stop	<u>together</u>	/tə'geðə(r)/	/tə'gedər/
end	<u>wreath</u>	/riːð/	/wrəd/

In number, frequency of errors briefly can be seen through table below.

Table 4. Frequency of errors production on all treatments

Participant	Received	Errors	(%) Errors	Received	Errors	(%) Errors	Received	Errors	(%) Errors
Participant 1	15	10	66.7 %	482	138	28.6 %	210	157	74.8 %
Participant 2	18	1	5.6 %	482	131	27.2 %	210	118	56.2 %
Participant 3	22	2	9.1 %	482	104	21.6 %	210	134	63.8 %
Participant 4	8	7	87.5 %	482	133	27.6 %	210	134	63.8 %
Participant 5	18	6	33.3 %	482	122	25.3 %	210	113	53.8 %

In conversation session, they were more likely to be not fluent in speaking English production because they were accustomed to practice English pronunciation frequently. Still the errors can be produced even though the variation of errors is not as many as compared to the other two treatments. Each participant had different number of words productions in conversation, so each participant had different number of errors production. This was also affected on how often the selected accent was applied on speech sounds of [b], [d], and [ð], so it affects the result of errors.

Table 5. Frequency of errors production on free conversation

Participant	[b]			[d]			[ð]		
	Received	Errors	(%) Errors	Received	Errors	(%) Errors	Received	Errors	(%) Errors
Participant 1	6	5	83.3 %	7	4	57.1 %	2	1	50 %
Participant 2	5	0	0 %	7	1	14.3 %	6	0	0 %
Participant 3	13	1	7.7 %	8	1	12.5 %	1	0	0 %
Participant 4	2	2	100 %	6	5	83.3 %	0	0	0 %
Participant 5	9	6	66.7 %	6	0	0 %	3	0	0 %

In the third treatment, which was reading text, the focus was only on words having [b], [d], or [ð] speech sounds. Although there were errors occurring on other words, those were ignored and were not analyzed. The frequency of errors on reading paragraph can be seen on the table below.

Table 6. Frequency of errors production on reading text

Participant	Reading text								
	[b]			[d]			[ð]		
	Received	Errors	(%) Errors	Received	Errors	(%) Errors	Received	Errors	(%) Errors
Participant 1	130	97	74.6 %	196	41	20.9 %	156	100	64.1 %
Participant 2	130	57	43.8 %	196	24	12.2 %	156	50	32.1 %
Participant 3	130	34	26.2 %	196	16	8.2 %	156	54	34.6 %
Participant 4	130	69	53.1 %	196	29	14.8 %	156	35	22.4 %
Participant 5	130	77	59.2 %	196	32	16.3 %	156	13	8.3 %

In the third task, which was reading a list of words, speech sounds [b], [d], or [ð] in each word were possibly placed in the beginning, middle, or end of each word. There were found more errors because all of words were set to have those requested speech sounds. In this part, the errors quantity comparison among participants can be calculated accurately because all participants must read the same number of words; 210 words.

Table 7. Frequency of errors production on reading list of words

Participant	[b]			[d]			[ð]		
	Received	Errors	(%) Errors	Received	Errors	(%) Errors	Received	Errors	(%) Errors
Participant 1	122	101	82.8 %	86	46	53.5 %	24	10	41.7 %
Participant 2	122	71	58.2 %	86	39	45.3 %	24	8	33.3 %
Participant 3	122	79	64.8 %	86	45	52.3 %	24	10	41.7 %
Participant 4	122	83	68 %	86	43	50 %	24	8	33.3 %
Participant 5	122	65	53.3 %	86	43	50 %	24	5	20.8 %



Each participant applied the accent in different target of performance even though all of participants drew similar outputs on the errors as general. Through those three tasks, errors can be seen clearly in series though every participant shows various quantities of errors.

The errors were analyzed through contrasting the received phonetics symbols that has been acknowledged universally with the phonetics symbols after those are transcribed into written symbols.

B. Discussion

1. Predictability of errors

From the result, it can be seen that errors of Blitar Javanese learners in pronouncing English speech sounds [b], [d], and [ð] can be predicted regarding to theory of Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH). This is regarding to the frequency evidence of errors especially in part of reading list of words that shows all participants experienced more than 50 % errors on pronouncing words with selected sounds of [b], [d], and [ð].

Huang in his review studies paper or error analysis states, "Absolute frequencies are those which indicate occurrences of errors, usually expressed by natural numbers such as "Verb errors: 838". As reviewed in the tables about the frequency of errors both in numbers and percentage through three kinds of tasks: conducting free conversation, reading text and reading list of words, the evidences of predictable errors for speech sound [b], [d], and [ð] in English by Blitar Javanese learners have already detected.

2. Types of errors

The errors on pronunciation that the learners made were the result of their lack of knowledge of the standard phonemes and phonetics symbols. As Maicusi & Lopez (2000) said that errors that take place can be as result of learners experiencing lack of knowledge.

Selinker (1972) has observed, interlanguage that happens on second language learners is something persisted on psychological structure in the brain which is being active when learners do experience target language acquisition. In this study, there is latent structure for learners that sound of [b], [d], and [ð] sounds in English are often being substituted by [b], [d], [ð] sounds in Blitar Javanese because those are what they have acquired naturally when pronouncing L1 in daily life. The resemble sounds of Blitar Javanese that are not existed in English related to the results are [bh] and [dh]. For the other sounds, there is no [ð] sound in Blitar Javanese so English learners that have Blitar Javanese as their L1 substituted it by the sound [d] or [ndh].

Based on O'Connor's phonetics classification (1973), the phonetics application in the findings is involved into articulatory phonetics because learners play on the air productions in pronouncing [h] sound together with [b], [d], or even [ð] in the movement of speech sounds. Acoustic phonetics is also applied through the way of correlation about air vibrates from the mouth of speaker of the learners and the ear of the listener of analyst.

The errors are caused by interference errors because learners bring the features on L1 to L2 in pronunciation English speech sounds. Those errors are classified as misselection errors (based on Legenhausen, 1975) because participants take incorrect item of sounds [b], [d], and [ð] sound when [b] or [d] is located in the beginning or in the middle of a word, especially it happens a lot when [b] or [d] sound is placed in the beginning with one syllable word. While, errors do not happen on the [ð] that is place in the end of word.

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

Based on the research findings, theory of Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis is still relevant to predict the difficulties of learners in producing target language especially in pronouncing selected speech sounds. The first language of the learners is Blitar Javanese, while in Blitar Javanese the sounds of [b], [d], and [ð] sound differently. Moreover, sound [ð] in Blitar Javanese does not exist. As the result, the learners substitute those sounds of English with resemble sounds that they are accustomed to perform in Blitar Javanese.

However, eventough learners do errors when acquiring L2, this case is not included into negative effect at all. Chomsky as behaviorist applies opinion that errors are parts of a learning process. As the result, it gives positive view and not a totally problem. Without making errors, there are no identifications sources found to be part of learning improvement. There will be no progress instead of statics learning development. That learning is included into mentally formed by cases of trials and error.

As the suggestion, the way of transcription will be more valid if there is a specific tool for measuring the aspiration level of speech sound productions. However, the device of transcription which is used auditory device by human is sometimes not 100% valid.

Human errors that based on level of auditory sensitivity will affect the judgment of errors and the frequency of errors calculation.

It is suggested that it is better to conduct further research on how to decrease errors frequencies in [b], [d], and [ð] sounds for Blitar Javanese learners with related teaching and learning methodologies as resources for teachers to help improving learners in acquiring L2's speech sound successfully.

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CODE SWITCHING AND CODE MIXING IN SELECTED FANPAGES ON FACEBOOK

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Abstract

This paper underlies in what context and what is the dominant type used by the member of the object of this paper in using code switching and code mixing. This paper intends to determine the focus of the study in selected fanpages on Facebook. Fanpage is one of the features on Facebook that promotes a brand, a product, and in the fanpage on Facebook the phenomena of code switching and code mixing often occur.

Code switching and code mixing have two types. Each type of these codes is established by the use of each type in an utterance. The analysis focuses on figuring out in what context that code switching and code mixing are usually used. The frequency in using each type is the way in determining what kind of code that is dominantly used. The collecting data method is analyzed by using descriptive qualitative method.

The result of the analysis shows that there are 57 utterances of code switching and code mixing. The result of the presentation is internal code switching 21.12%, external code switching 30.10%, inner code mixing 34.21%, outer code mixing 14.57%. Besides, the contexts that usually apply code switching and code mixing are bilingualism, prestige, habit and when there is no other exact word to express the idea.

Keywords: code switching, code mixing, fanpage on Facebook

INTRODUCTION

Fanpage is a public profile facebook meant to promote a brand, a product, an artist, a website, and an organization. A facebook fanpage is similar to a profile. It is used as well as a website. It gives them an additional yet free way to advertise and interact with the people interested in them, their product or their problem. Facebook fanpage grows and gets new traffic when fans “like,” “share” and “comment” on items, thus they promote the page on their walls and their friends’ news feeds (Clifton :2011).

Fanpage is one of many social networking phenomena that contain many aspects that can be analyzed. The writer interested in analyzing the phenomenon of the fanpages’ user in using code when they write a post or give comment towards a post.

In this paper, the writer is interested in investigating what type and in what context that code switching and code mixing are usually used in selected fanpages on facebook. The selected fanpages are “*Sahabat PCMI Bengkulu*” and “*The Corner of Conversation Sponsored by KITA*”. In these fanpages, the members are accustomed to use code switching and code mixing when they post some posts and when they give some comments. The first is “*Sahabat PCMI Bengkulu*”s containing the people who have ever been joining the selection of international exchange program that is committed by DISPORA of Bengkulu. The second fanpage is “*The Corner of Conversation Sponsored by KITA*”, a kind of community that always uses English language in their community. The special thing of this community is that it is always guided by native speaker during their study.

Therefore, in this paper, the writer will discuss and explain about the types of code switching and code mixing that are dominantly used in the selected fanpages. Then, the writer will try to figure out in what context code switching and code mixing are usually used. In supporting the researcher to find the classification and to decide what context of code switching and code mixing, the writer uses Thelander and Suwito’s theory.

REVIEW OR RELATED LITERATURE

Code Switching

Code switching is a situation when the speaker changes the code of the conversation that is used. Generally, code switching is a phenomenon that usually happens in bilingual or multilingual society, but it does not close the chance that code switching is happening in monolingual society in order to increase prestige or just to make the conversation more attractive.

Thelander in Chair and Agustina (2004) says that when there is a switching from one clause of language in a conversation, it is called switching. Pietro in Jendra (1977:74) says that code switching is the use of more than one language done by speakers in speech act. In addition, Hugen (1973:521) also says that code switching is the alternative use of two languages including everything from the introduction of a single, unassimilated word up to a com-

plete sentence or more into the context of another language. In accordance with Suwito in Chaer and Agustina, (2004:114), code switching is divided by two types, namely Intern Code Switching and Extern Code Switching. Intern code switching is the phenomenon when the speaker changes language to another language in which both are in the same group of language. The used language is switched into another variant. For instance, in Bengkulu, urban language is changed into Bengkulu rural language. Extern code switching is a phenomenon when in a conversation the speaker switches the language that is used into another language. For example, Bahasa Indonesia is switched into French or vice versa. Therefore, we can state that code switching is the use of more than one language by speakers of two languages in a conversation.

Code Mixing

Basically, code mixing is the way of speakers in increasing their prestige of their conversation by putting some codes of another language into their conversation. As stated at Thelander (2004 :115), if in the single utterance the clauses and the phrases that are used are hybrid clause or hybrid phrase and each clause or phrase does not support the function of clause and phrase, it is called code mixing. In accordance with Suwito (1983:76), the traits of code mixing is the elements to insert language or variations in other languages which are no longer having its own function. Wardaugh (1998:103) says that code mixing occurs when the conversant use both languages together to the extent that they change from one language to the other in the course of single utterance. Suwito in Chair and Agustina (2004:114) says that code mixing is divided by two types, they are inner code mixing and outer code mixing. Inner code mixing occurs when the speakers insert their own language code into their conversation in which they put only a code of their variant language, or they put a national language into their conversation that uses traditional language. On the other hand, outer code mixing happens when the speakers insert the element of foreign language into their conversation that uses Indonesian language or vice versa.

METHODOLOGY

This study applies qualitative method that deals with the non-numerical linguistics units in the forms of words, phrase, clauses, or sentences (Dornyei, 2007: 38, 243.; Creswell, 2003: 182, 184), by means of which this research attempts to identify and interpret the use of code switching and code mixing as found in selected fanpage on facebook. The data for this study are the posts and comments of the members of the selected fanpage in “*Sahabat PCMI Bengkulu*” and “*The Corner of Conversation Sponsored by KITA*”.

FINDING AND DICUSSION

In accordance with the data sources, the case found in the use of code switching and code mixing is 118 cases in two selected fanpages. At the first fanpage, “*Sahabat PCMI Bengkulu*” the cases that are found are about 92 cases about the use of code switching and code mixing. Code switching consists of two kinds, namely extern code switching and intern code switching. The case of code switching found in the first fanpage is 29 cases and there are only 2 cases of the use of intern code mixing in the first fanpage. Meanwhile, the use of code mixing is obviously different with the case of code switching. There also two kinds of code mixing, namely inner and outer code mixing. In inner code mixing, there are only 7 cases that is found, but the bigger amount is found in the use of outer code mixing. There are 54 cases that is found.

On the other side, the smaller amount is found in the second fanpage “*The Corner of Conversation Sponsored by KITA*”, the cases that are found are only about 26 cases of the use of code switching and code mixing. 13 cases are found in the use of code switching consisting of 11 cases of extern code switching; and there are only 2 cases of intern code switching usage. Meanwhile, the cases of code mixing are 13 cases which consists of 12 outer code mixing and 1 case of inner code mixing.

a. Sahabat PCMI Bengkulu

Code switching

There are 31 cases of the use of code switching, consist of 29 cases of extern code switching and 2 cases of intern code switching. The following explanation will show some examples of the use of both extern code switching and code mixing.

1. Extern code switching

In accordance with Suwito (2004:114), extern code switching is a phenomenon when in a conversation the speaker switches the language that is being used into another language. For example, Bahasa Indonesia is switched into French or vice versa.

Kabarnya surat resmi pemberitahuan kuota akan dikirimkan ke DISPORA tia provinsi



dalam minggu ini, as we get the letter, we'll open the registration and announce the date of the selection, be ready folks!! (P.9).

Hello sahabat PCMI Bengkulu, bagaimana kabar minggu pertama di 2013 ini? Any new changes? Has it been great? Hopefully so... (P.29).

In that post, the official of the fanpage emphasizes the information by switching Indonesian into English. They use English codes after using Indonesian to add an information about the event that will be held by them in the day.

It also means that we're gonna find new brilliant talent (I prefer to call it "blessed", hehehe) to be the next youth ambassador representing Bengkulu province, wohooooo, we know you are excited... apalagi yang tahun lalu udah mencoba ikutan seleksi, pasti udah nunggu-nunggu waktu seleksi (P. 29).

Untuk kuota memang belum ada konfirmasi dari kemenpora wid, biasanya Maret baru ketahuan Bengkulu dapat apa, so just keep your finger crossed semoga tahun ini Bengkulu tetap banyak kuotanya (P. 30).

In this post, someone writing this post is providing such information about some topic at the beginning by using English then the person switches it into Indonesian to add the information and attract all of the members to join with the program.

2. Intern Code Switching

In accordance with Suwito (2004:114), Intern code switching is the phenomenon when the speaker changes language that is being used into another language but still in the same group of language. The used language is switched into another variant. For instance, Bengkulu urban language is changed into Bengkulu rural language.

Sekarang pada berbenah ajo dulu, pengenyo sih balik, pengen ngobrol-ngobrol lagi dan nengok modalnyo kalian (P. 5).

Umur aku ni baru 20, minimal 23, tepeladak la itu (P. 4).

That post shows the use of a code of another style of a language in an utterance which indicates intern code switching. Using Bengkuluese code in the utterance that almost uses Bahasa Indonesia in all of the words in the utterance means that the speakers that are involved in the utterance are Bengkuluese.

Code Mixing

The lander in Chaer and Agustina (2004:115) says, "if in the single utterance the clauses and the phrases used are hybrid clause or hybrid phrases and each clause or phrase doesn't support the function of clause and phrase, it is called code mixing." But, in this paper the theory about the types of code mixing will be conducted by the theory of Suwito (2004:114).

There are 61 cases of the use of code mixing that are found in selected fanpages, consisting of 7 cases of inner code mixing and 54 cases of outer code mixing. According with Suwito in Chair and Agustina (2004:114), code mixing is divided into two types, namely:

1. Inner Code Mixing

Inner code mixing occurs when the speakers insert their own language code into their conversation, they put only a code of their variant languages, or they put a national language into their conversation that uses traditional language.

UNIB tu kan kampus kakak juga dx, dan apalagi selagi iko kegiatan positif kakak dukung (P. 14).

Paling iadaknya biso la dasarnya, ambo dasar bae dak biso, modal gelak bae malah (P. 3).

In that utterance, someone who posts the comment use a code of Bengkuluese as part of the utterance. Emphasizing the utterance to the point that will be held is shown, and also the person is impressing the modesty of someone.

Outer Code Mixing

In accordance with Suwito (2004:114), outer code mixing happens when the speakers insert the element of foreign language into their conversation that uses Indonesian language or vice versa.

Setiap program memiliki tema masing-masing, seperti yang dijelaskan pada open presentation kemaren (P. 1).

Iya mbak, modal insyaallah ada, kalau nggak ada halangan ikut seleksi lagi, atleast ngukur apa kemajuan dari tahun kemaren. (P. 5).

In that utterance, the code of another language is shown as part of the utterance in showing an activity that is scheduled and in supporting the entire members in joining the event that will be held whatever it will be.

b. The Corner of Conversation Sponsored by KITA

It is some kinds of community that always use English in their community. The special thing of this community is always be guided by native speaker during their study. The use of code switching and code mixing often happens on posts and comments of the members of the fanpage.

Code Switching

There are only 13 cases that are found in the use of code switching in the second fanpage, consisting of 11 cases of extern code switching, and 2 cases of intern code switching.

1. Extern Code Switching

In accordance with Suwito (2004:114), extern code switching is a phenomenon when in a conversation the speaker switches the language that is being used into another language. For example, Bahasa Indonesia into French or vice versa.

Ciyeee ciyeee, 27 currencies from all over the world untuk emas kawin melamar blablabla...(ayo tebak siapa..?) (P. 1).

Sebenarnya biso galo man, "what on earth, how on earth, who on earth, where on earth," itu tuh menunjukkan kalo kito menanyakan sesuatu dengan antusias (P. 5).

The utterance provides the use of extern code switching from Indonesian into English then it switches into Indonesian. The switching code is shown to emphasize some topics before and after the switching code and to increase prestige of someone who posts the utterance.

2. Intern Code Switching

In accordance with Suwito (2004:114), intern code switching is the phenomenon when the speaker changes language that is being used into another language but still in the same group of language. The used language is switched into another variant. For instance, Bengkulu urban language is changed into Bengkulu rural language.

Semua alumni program akan mempresentasikan program-programny masing-masing, jadi kalian bisa bertanya apa-apa saja yang perlu dipersiapkan dan seperti apa programnya, kalo misalnya Bengkulu dak dapek AIYEP cakmano ris? (P. 6).

Teman-teman kita, saya mensupport kalian untuk mengikuti acara-acra yang ada kaitannya dengan bahasa inggris, karena dengan begitu akan membantu melatih bahasa inggris kalian. Bahasa bengkulunya, "mangko pacak cakap inggris" (P. 7).

The utterance that is switched seems to support the information and the topic that is shown before the switched codes. Emphasizing the probability in expecting some expectations and in supporting friends in doing some positive things.

Code Mixing

There are 13 cases that are found in the use of code mixing in the second fanpage, consisting of a case of inner code mixing and 12 cases of the use of outer code mixing.



1. Inner Code Mixing

In accordance with Suwito (2004:114), inner code mixing occurs when the speakers insert their own language code into their conversation. They put only a code of their variant language, or they put a national language into their conversation that uses traditional language.

Mbak Valisneria Utami lagi di Jakarta yo? Gimana interviewnya? (P. 9).

In this utterance, the switched code seems to emphasize or support the information that is given before. It means that the addresser is knowing well about the addressee.

2. Outer Code Mixing

In accordance with Suwito (2004:114), outer code mixing happens when the speakers insert the element of foreign language into their conversation that uses Indonesian language or vice versa.

1 more day to go, be ready for the open presentation of international youth exchange program 2013. Keep update for the informations about open presentation and selection in our group on facebook, SAHABAT PCMI BENGKULU, follow our twitter @pcmibengkulu, and take a look at our blog at pcmi.bengkulu.blogspot.com (P. 3).

Anywa, tolong dukungannya untuk my lovely sister Nursita Mardiah yang sekarang lagi mengikuti pemilihan putra-putri sekolah di provinsi Bengkulu (P. 10).

The code that is mixed is showing the topic that is being talked, hoping some supports from other members are also raised on that example shown in getting friends in joining a competition.

Factors of Code Switching

Figuring out the intensity of the factor behind the use of code switching means that mentioning the factors of code switching first. Following Suwito's idea in Chaer and Agustina (2004), there are some factors that influence the use of code switching, namely:

1. Speaker

The actors of a conversation usually switch the code with another code when they are involved in a conversation. It is because of increasing prestige or they want to make the conversation more attractive.

When you knew you're doing right thing, and for some reasons someone told you to stop doing that. You loved that thing, yet that someone forbade you to do so. What would you do if you were in that situation?

#perhatikan kalimatnya dengan menggunakan conditional if type II (P. 10).

Agre, apo arti "what on earth I'm supposed to do?" baru dengar, hehe... ado dengar "where on earth did you meet your friend?" (P. 5).

The utterance seems that someone who posts that post is supposed to increase the prestige of him / her when the post was posted. Switching the code means that he wants to tell other members that they should use current formula in understanding that utterance. Furthermore, increasing prestige of someone else who posts an utterance because of the lack of understanding is also shown in the following utterance.

2. Background of Language

The background of language of the speakers is influencing the use of code mixing. When the speakers have the same background of language, they will switch the language into their variant language, but when the speakers have different background, they will switch the code in language switching form.

Sekarang pada berbenah ajo dulu, pengennyo sih balik, pengen ngobrol-ngobrol lagi dan nengok modalnya kalian (pg. 6).

Semua alumni program akan mempresentasikan program-programnya masing-masing, jadi kalian bias bertanya apa-apa saja yang perlu dipersiapkan dan seperti apa programnya, kalo misalno Bengkulu dak dapek AIYEP cakmano ris? (P. 6).

In that utterance, the use of Indonesian language is shown at the beginning of the utterance, then the codes are switched into Bengkuluese. It can only happen when the respondent of the post or comment is having the same background of language. That is why the use of both Indonesian and Bengkuluese can be used.

3. Topic

The topic of conversation is the factor that makes speakers determine to switch their language into another code. For instance, two persons start their conversation with a joke. Then, they change their topic into formal form. Automatically, the code of language will switch into serious style or vice versa.

Could you give me some chocolate milk shake please? Berbincang dengan pelayan baru Andrew, hahaha (P. 9).

Buat yang baru mau ikutan seleksi tahun ini, tenaang, kesempatan kalian sama, we will gladly welcome you guys (P. 29).

The utterance gives us an understanding that the speakers involved are closely related. That is why the joke sometimes happens and the created atmosphere is so intimate.

Factors of Code Mixing

Following Suwito's theory (in Chaer and Agustina (2004), there are some factors that influence the use of code mixing. Some of them are:

1. There is an impress when using foreign terminology. It seems intellect and it increases prestige.

Oh ya, untuk debate kita pakai open presentation, jadi jangan worry, siapa saja boleh ikut tanpa membawa nama institusi (P. 1).

#STC |kedatangan siswa berprestasi, Edo Riki Putra dari home schooling ULI. Penger denger ceritanya, yuk stay tune di 99.2 FM (P. 34).

2. In Indonesia there are many foreign terminologies. If the terminology is put in Indonesian, the meaning will be unclear enough to be understood.

Ayo mulai bikin program pribadi, "80 hari menuju Jepang maybe? Atau Kanada? Malaysia? Korea Selatan? (P. 9).

3. The compulsion of technology might be mentioned as a need feeling motive

Anak UNPAD mano galak, biasonyo Rehan teammate ambo, mano galak nyo balik (P.13).

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

Conclusion

After analyzing both of the sources, the writer would like to conclude that the use of code switching and code mixing found are 44 cases of code switching and 74 cases of code mixing. It consists of 29 cases of extern code switching, 2 cases of intern code switching, 7 cases of inner code mixing, and 54 cases of outer code mixing in the first fanpage "*Sahabat PCMI Bengkulu*". In the second fanpage "*The Corner of Conversation Sponsored by KITA*" there are 11 cases of extern code switching, 2 cases of intern code switching, 12 cases of outer code mixing, and there is only 1 case of inner code mixing.

The factors that influence the use of code switching are topic, speaker, and the background of language of the member of the selected fanpages. Meanwhile, the factors that influence the use of code mixing consist of:



1. There is an impress when using foreign terminology. It seems intellect and it increases prestige.
2. In Indonesia, there are many foreign terminologies. If the terminology is put in Indonesian, the meaning will be unclear enough to be understood.
3. The compulsion of technology might be mentioned as a need of getting the motive.

Suggestion

Code switching and code mixing are such interesting objects to be analyzed. It is because of the development of technology and human thought that force us to increase our understanding about it. It also happens in selected fanpages, “*Sahabat PCMI Bengkulu*” and “*The Corner of Conversation Sponsored by KITA*”. From these fanpage, we know that the members want to express their thought in a smart way by using many switching and mixing code. From this case, it is suggested to the student of English literature to analyze code switching and code mixing that become phenomena in Indonesia. It is because code switching and code mixing are varieties and they are shown in many aspects. Hence, by making analysis in another object, hopefully the vocabularies of the readers can be increased.

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A SYNTACTIC ANALYSIS OF IMPERATIVE SENTENCES IN JODI PICOULT'S *MY SISTER'S KEEPER*

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Abstract

This research aims to find out the characteristics, functions, and patterns of imperative sentences in *My Sister's Keeper*. It uses qualitative analysis. The writer obtains data from the subtitles of *My Sister's Keeper*. The data are the utterances by characters in the movie. The writer finds out and notes the imperative sentences applied in the movie. The writer identifies the classification of imperative sentences, determines the functions of imperative sentences, and analyzes the patterns of imperative sentences used in the movie. The results show that there are many classifications, functions, and patterns of imperatives found in *My Sister's Keeper* movie. The classifications of imperatives found in the movie are imperatives without subjects, imperatives with subjects, negative imperatives, *let's* imperatives, idiomatic *I need you* imperatives, and imperatives with a conditional force. The functions of imperatives found in the movie are to express commands, orders, and demands; to express suggestions; to express request and polite request; to express instructions; to express invitations; to express permissions; to express wishes; and to express prohibitions. The patterns of imperatives found in the movie are *V*, *V O*, *V O A*, *V O O*, *V A*, *Let (us/me) V*, *Let (us/me) V O*, *Let (us/me) V O A*, *Would you V O please*, *Don't V*, *Don't V C*, *Don't V O*, and *No O Please*.

Keywords: imperatives, characteristics, functions, patterns

INTRODUCTION

Sentences are compounded and are arranged to give the information to the hearer. Without sentences, it is impossible that people can understand the information carried by language. Sentences which bring the meaning should consist of subject and predicate. According to Obrecht (1999:20), "A sentence is a group of words with a subject and a predicate expressing one complete thought". The subject can be a noun, a noun phrase or a pronoun. The Predicate can be a verb in the sentence.

An imperative sentence is one kind of sentences that is interesting to discuss. Huddleston (2005:8) states, "The typical definition of "imperative" is a form or construction used to issue a command". For example:

- 1) Stop!
- 2) Everyone be quite.
- 3) Please, sit down.
- 4) Let's go!

We can see that there are many characteristics of imperative sentences. Example (1) shows that the imperative sentence uses a predicate to express a command. Example (2) puts subject "Everyone" and predicate "Quite" to express command. Example (3) uses word "Please" to show politeness and example (4) puts word "Let" to express command to the first person.

According to Moravcsik (2006:13), "Imperative sentences consist of a verb and its complement (s), they do not include the subject". If we look at the previous examples, not all imperative sentences just use verb as the predicate in the sentence, imperative sentences not only use a verb in the sentence but also use other elements. From the examples above, the writer wants to know various characteristics of imperative sentences.

The study which discusses a sentence structure is syntax. According to Kroeger, "Syntax is the branch of linguistics which seeks to describe and account for the arrangement of words in a sentence" (2004:4). By using syntactic study, we can get the answers of the imperative sentences problems.

Imperative sentences are commonly used in daily conversation. People commonly use imperative sentences because imperative sentences have many functions. Schoenbergh (2000:187) assumed, "The functions of imperative sentences are to give order or commands, advices, warnings, or to make a polite request". The variety of imperative sentence functions causes the different pattern of imperative sentence structure. The variation of imperative sentence structure can also be studied by using syntactic study.

Various characteristics of imperative sentences also found in Jodi Picoult's *My Sister's Keeper*. Thus, it is interesting to conduct the research by using syntactic analysis of imperative sentences of this movie.



REVIEWS OF RELATED LITERATURE

Imperative Sentences

Imperative sentences usually do not include subject in the sentence. It can be happened because it is already understood that the subject of the sentence is the second person. According to Baker (1989:455) there are three special sentence types, they are direct questions, exclamative constructions, and imperatives. Cowan (2008) states "Imperatives are used to convey commands, orders, instructions, and request" (p.110). Some people usually get confused about the differences between declaratives and imperatives. In order to differentiate them, it is necessary to identify the major characteristics which syntactically show imperatives. According to Davies (1986:7) "...three major characteristics by means of which a syntactic class of imperatives can be defined: optionality of subject, along with restriction on what subjects are possible, lack of tense inflection, and the necessity for *do* with negation or emphasis, even with *be* or auxiliary *have*."

- 1) You are ready.
- 2) *Are ready.
- 3) You be ready.
- 4) Be ready.

Example (1) is a declarative sentence. Example (2) shows the omission of the subject in (1) but it results in a non grammatical sentence. In the other hand, example (4) shows that the omission of the subject (3) is possible if becomes an imperative, it is already understood that the subject of the sentence is the second person *you*.

Classifications of Imperative Sentences

Imperatives can be classified into some classifications. Many researchers have different idea about the classifications of imperative. According to Cowan (2008:115) there are six classifications of imperatives; basic imperatives, imperatives with tag, emphatic imperatives, imperatives with visible subjects, vocative imperatives, idiomatic *I need you* imperatives, and *let's* imperatives. Davies (1986:67) states that there are two kinds of imperatives negative imperatives and emphatic imperatives. Baker (1995:398) stated that imperative can be classified into three; second-person imperatives, first-person imperatives, and imperatives with a conditional force. Based on those ideas, the writer concludes the classifications of imperatives into eight classifications.

Imperatives without Subject

The classifications begin with the most common category of imperatives which are different from a statement. For example mentioned in Davies (1986:28)

- 5) Look who's here! It's Allan!

Imperative sentences usually do not put "You" subject in the sentence because it has an understood second person null subject. Radford (1997:160) states that "Empirical evidence in support of posting a null second person subject in imperatives comes from tag sentences..... tags typically contain a pronominal copy of the subject of the tagged clause..." For example:

- 6) Shut the window. Could you!

Imperatives with Subject

The subject of the imperative sentence is usually not mentioned, but in some cases, to get a person attention to do something, we can put a subject in front or at the end of the sentence. According to Thomson and Martinet (1986:245) "The person addressed is very often not mentioned, but can be expressed by a noun placed at the end of phrase." The nouns can also be placed before the verb, but it is less usual. For example:

- 7) Eat your dinner, boys.

According Cowan (2008:112) there are other cases when subjects can occur in imperatives. First, when the speaker is addressing a particular group of people, for example taken from Cowan (2008:112)

- 8) Passengers going to Dayton, form a line over here.

Second, the in-definite pronouns, namely someone, somebody, and nobody often occurs as subjects when the speaker is uttering a directive to everyone who may be present. For example taken from Cowan (2008:112)

- 9) Somebody please go find a doctor.

Thomson and Martinet (1986:245) state that "The pronoun *you* is rarely used unless the speaker wishes to be rude or wishes to make a distinction." For example:

- 10) You go on; I'll wait

Another imperative classification is vocative imperative. According to Cowan (2008:112) "The term vocative refers to utterances that contain a noun phrase that is a proper name or some kind of address form." for example, *ma'am*, *sir*, *dear*, *sweetheart*, *dad*, etc.

- 11) Dear, look what I found under the couch.

Emphatic Imperatives

Do which occurs in front of imperative sentence is called emphatic imperative. According to Davies (1986:76) emphatic imperative remains to consider the interpretation of those affirmative imperatives which are marked as peculiarly emphatic by the present of stressed *do*. These examples of emphatic imperative are taken from Davies (1986:83)

12) Do be happy that she is here.

13) Do be happier that she is here than you were last time.

Do before the bare infinitive indicates that the speaker is showing urgency to the command. Emphatic imperatives can also be used to show comparative, as we can see in example (13) the speaker wants the hearer to be happy than the last time she weren't here. According to Davies (1986:83) "Bolinger goes on to suggest that *do* is often possible in an imperative containing a comparative or *at least*, where it would be odd in the corresponding sentence without comparative."

There is a widespread agreement that emphatic *do* cannot co-occur with a *you* subject. According to Davies (1986:89) "A quantified noun phrase containing *you* may be quite acceptable as the subject of a *do*-imperative." However, there is a special case where a *you* subject can be co-occurring after *do* in emphatic imperatives. Davies (1986:90) stated that a *you* subject can be acceptable in emphatic imperatives when it is clear from the context that *you* is being used contrastively.

14) Please, James, I beg you, do you believe me! If you don't, then I've no hope of convincing the others.

Negative Imperatives

The word *Don't* comes before the base form for the negative imperatives. According to Baker (1989:399) "A negative imperative can consist of *don't* followed by an overt or understood subject followed by a bare-stem verb phrase."

15) Don't go away.

16) Don't be impatient.

Let Imperatives

Let can be followed by first person *us* or *me*. Let imperatives are usually spoken to make the hearers involve in a certain situation. Thomson and Martinet (1986:281) stated that "By let us (let's) the speaker can urge his hearers to act in a certain way, or express a decision which they are expected to accept, or express a suggestion." For example in Cowan (2008:113)

17) Let's eat breakfast.

18) Let us bow our heads in prayer.

19) You all have something to do for Ms. Johnson. Let's do it, please.

Examples (20) and (21) shows the polite way of using *Let* imperatives as a command or an instruction. Cowan (2008:113) stated "*Let's* imperatives can also have a meaning that is closer to an order or an instruction." We can also put an overt subject after *let's*. For example taken from Baker (1989:400):

20) Let's everybody take a deep breath.

Let imperatives sometimes occur with tags. According to Cowan (2008:113) "The tag *shall we*, appears to be more common in British English, whereas English tends to use the tag *OK*." The tags are put after coma and are ended by question mark. *Let's* imperatives are negated by adding *not* after *let's*.

21) OK, let's keep that on, shall we? (British English)

22) Let's take turns, OK? (American English)

23) Let's not talk about what happened anymore, please?

Idiomatic I Need You Imperatives

It is a kind of softened command of imperatives which begins with *I need you*. Cowan (2008:113) stated that the word *I need you* in imperative sentences is always followed by infinitive complement that describes what the speaker wants the addressee to do.

24) I need you to fill out this form.

Imperatives with a Conditional Force

This type of imperatives is combined with declarative sentences by a conjunction. For example taken from Baker (1995:400):

25) *Eat your spinach*, and you can have some cake.

The Functions of Imperatives

Many researchers have different idea about imperative functions. According to Schoenbergh (2000:187), the functions of imperative are to give orders or commands, to give advices or to make suggestions, to give warnings, and to make polite requests. Related to Cowan (2008:110) "Imperatives are used to convey commands, orders, instructions, and request."



Commands, Orders, Demands

The definition of commands or command verbs according to R.I.C Publication (2008:8) is to give orders, commands, or instructions. Cowan (2008:115) stated that the speaker expects the hearer to do what he or she has said. If the hearer does not want to do it, the speaker may give the hearer some retaliation. It means that commands are used to give orders and instructions to someone. For example in Cowan (2008:115):

26) Get out of my way!

27) Let the games begin!

Advices, Suggestions, Warnings

Warning refers to "A statement, an event, etc telling someone that something bad or unpleasant may happen in the future so that they can try to avoid it." (Hornby 2006: 1657) a warning is usually used in a danger situation. The speaker warns the hearer to be careful. Suggestion is "An idea or a plan that you mention for someone else to think about." (Hornby 2006: 1480) In the other hand, a suggestion is utterances that make other people give the opinions as to what they should not do. Here, the hearer is directed by the speaker to do something for his or her benefit. It is up to the hearer whether will do the warnings, advice or recommendations or not. We can also use *never + infinitive* form to express advice. For example in Cowan (2008:115):

28) Keep your options open.

29) Remember, always buy low and sell high.

30) Watch your head. That doorjamb is a little low.

31) Never run in fog.

Some of suggestion function in imperatives use *let's* imperatives. E.g from Funchs (2000:151):

32) Let's take some ferry.

Requests and Polite Requests

"Request, refers inclusively to an utterance that is intended to indicate the speaker's desire to regulate the behavior of the listener-that is, to get the listener to do something." (Machiko Achiba, 2003:6 (Becker, 1982:1)) in the other word we can say request as asking someone to respond and do something. However, the hearer is not expected to comply with request. For example:

33) Close the door

"Request, have the same subjectless as command imperatives. ... and since the speaker is asking for help, this type of imperative is often accompanied by please or a will you/would you tag..." Cowan (2008:115) to make a request more polite, speakers usually use "Please" or "will you/would you" before or after the sentences for example in Cowan (2008:115):

34) Please help me finish this.

35) Shut the window, will you?

To make a polite request, the speaker also can use *will, would, could, can, and would you mind*. *Will, would, could, and can* are followed by a subject and an infinitive. *Would you mind* is followed by gerund. E.g from Funchs (2000:135):

36) Will you mail this letter for me?

37) Would you mind driving me to the doctor?

Instructions and Expository Directives

According to Hornby (1989:774) instructions are "Something that someone tells you to do." The purpose of instructions is to order someone to do something. Cowan (2008:116) stated that "The purpose of instructions is to enable the person addressed to accomplish some goals. The expository directives are often used in expository prose and are framed in a manner that attempts to get the reader to actively participate in the discussion or argument at hand." Example from Cowan (2008:116):

38) Remove all the tape and the packing material from the printer.

39) Compare example (4a) with (4b).

Example (40) is the example of an instruction. Example (41) is the example of an expository directive.

Invitations

The next function of imperatives is to give invitation. It may give benefit for both speaker and the hearer, or for one of them. Examples taken from Cowan (2008:116):

40) Have another piece of cake.

Permissions

To express permissions in imperative sentence, speakers usually use subjectless imperatives. According to Cowan (2008:116) "The granting of permission may not be something that the speaker is happy with; it only signals that he or she has the power to grant it."

41) OK, go ahead and do it.

Acceptance

Another function of imperatives is acceptance. According to Hornby (1989:8) acceptance is “The act of agreeing with something and approving of it.” These are examples taken from Cowan (2008:116):

42) Since you feel strong about it, go ahead and tell him.

Wishes

Wishes in imperatives are usually used to extend blessing or to terminate a conversation. According to Cowan (2008:116) “Wishes are in effect a stylized form of imperative that occurs with *have*, the modal *may*, or *let*.”

43) Have a nice day.

Prohibitions

Prohibition is usually a negation of a command. Prohibition is ended by an exclamatory mark. For example in Cowan (2008:126):

44) Stop!

45) Don't do that!

Gerund also can be used in a short prohibition. Eg:

46) No smoking.

METHODOLOGY

This study is a qualitative research since the object of the research is in the form of a sentence. The writer uses qualitative method to describe and analyze imperative sentences in Jodi Picoult's *My Sister's Keeper* the movie. In this study, the research object is the imperative sentences used in Jodi Picoult's *My Sister's Keeper* movie. The data is the utterances spoken by characters of *My Sister's Keeper* movie. Researcher used *simak* method in this research, because the researcher used transcript, field note, and description in this research.

There are four further techniques in using *Simak* method, they are; *simak libat cakap* Method, *simak bebas cakap* method, recording technique, and noting technique (Sudaryanto in Muhammad, 2011:196). The most appropriate technique in this study was noting technique, since the writer collected the data by using books, movies, and other instruments.

The researcher used purposes sampling as the sampling technique in this thesis. According to Hadi (2004:186) in purposive sampling, the sample is taken based on characteristics which have close connection to the characteristics of population which have been known in advance. Since the data populations of this study were the imperative classifications, functions, and patterns, the samples used were some imperative classifications, functions, and patterns in Jodi Picoult's *My Sister's Keeper* which represented the whole population.

To analyze the pattern of imperative sentences in this study, the writer used substitution technique. According to Bonjars and Kate (2010:25) “One thing we can be sure of is that a string of only one word forms a constituent. A word certainly does act as a unit in terms of sentence structure; i.e. in terms of the syntax. This means that if the string we are investigating can be substituted by a single word, then this is an indication that the string is indeed a constituent.” By using substitution technique, the writer can prove that the strings of imperative sentences found in Jodi Picoult's *My Sister's Keeper* are constituent. This technique also facilitated the writer to find the patterns of imperative sentences found in the movie.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Classifications of Imperative Sentences in My Sister's Keeper Movie

There are six classifications of imperative sentences found in *My Sister's keeper* movie; imperatives without subject, imperatives with subject, negative imperatives, *let's* imperatives, idiomatic *I need you* imperatives, and imperatives with a conditional force. Here are the explanations of imperative sentence classifications found in the movie.

Imperatives without Subject in My Sister's Keeper Movie

Here are imperative sentences which are included in imperatives without subject classification found in the movie.

1) Mr. Alexander: Please, sit down. (00:07:19)

2) Jesse: Tell them! (01:23:07)

Sentence (1) is an imperative sentence held in the movie when Anna Fitzgerald comes to Mr. Alexander office to rent a lawyer. This sentence is spoken by Mr. Alexander, a lawyer to request Anna Fitzgerald to take a sit and explain her problem. Mr. Alexander uses a word *please* before the imperative sentence to make it polite. Sentence (2) is an imperative sentence spoken by Jesse, Anna's elder brother in the middle of court process. Jesse uses an imperative sentence in this scene to command Anna to tell the truth about the real reason she sues her parent.



Imperatives with Subject in *My Sister's Keeper* Movie

Here are sentences found in the movie which included in imperative with subject classification.

- 3) Brian: Everyone, be quiet. (00:18:10)
- 4) Nurse: Listen to me, young lady. (00:34:14)

Sentence (3) is spoken by Brian in a family conflict situation. Every member of his family yells one each other and nobody wants to give in. Brian uses imperative sentence to command the whole family to be silent. Brian also wants to solve the problem in a good term. Brian uses the subject *everyone* to get his whole family attention to his command.

Sentence (4) is spoken in a hospital when the nurse asks Kate to give her urine sample. Kate refuses to give the nurse her urine sample, thus the nurse uses an imperative sentence with a noun phrase *young lady* to get Kate attention to do what the nurse asked.

Negative Imperatives in *My Sister's Keeper* Movie

There are some negative imperatives found in the movie, they are:

- 5) Sara: Don't be dramatic. (00:20:54)
- 6) Kelly: They look wonderful, don't touch them. (00:41:44)

Sentence (5) is spoken by Sara to Brian. Sara is talking about what they should do to persuade Anna to donate her kidney to save Kate. Brian tries to save Anna, because Anna is not a baby anymore, she has the right not to donate her organ. Hearing Brian's argument, Sara feels ignored and prohibits him not to be dramatic of the family's problem. Sentence (5) can be categorized to negative imperatives by the use of *don't* which is the negation of a command.

Sentence (6) is spoken by Kelly, Anna and Kate's aunt. Kelly paints Kate's nails before she goes to work. Kelly asks Kate not to touch her nails because they just have been painted yet those are still wet. Sentence (6) can be categorized to negative imperatives by the use of *don't* which is the negation of a command.

Let Imperatives in *My Sister's Keeper* Movie

Here are *let's* imperatives found in the movie:

- 7) Anna: Let me go! (00:18:34)
- 8) Dr. Chance: All right, let's take care of that. (00:38:57)

Sentence (7) is spoken by Anna when her father tries to calm her down. Anna does not want to hear her mom responses of what she has done anymore. Anna wants her right to be recognized. In this imperative sentence, Anna uses *let* followed by first person *me* to ask her father to let her go.

Sentence (8) is spoken by Dr. Chance to Kate. Dr. Chance is asking Kate about what she feels. Dr. Chance asks Kate to measure her pain, from one to ten how much she feels. Kate rates six for her pain. Dr. Chance finally uses *let* followed by first person *us* to ask Kate to get involved in taking care of her disease to get better.

Idiomatic *I Need You* Imperatives in *My Sister's Keeper* Movie

This is an idiomatic *I need you* imperative found in the movie:

- 9) Kate: I need you to do me a favor, Sissy. (01:26:05)

Sentence (9) is spoken by Kate to Anna. In this scene, Kate's disease is being serious. Kate uses an idiomatic *I need you* imperative to request Anna a favor to end her pain.

Imperatives with a Conditional Force in *My Sister's Keeper* Movie

This is an imperative with conditional force found in the movie:

- 10) Brian: Come, if you don't, I want a divorce. (01:08:57)

Sentence (10) is spoken by Brian to Sara. In this scene, Brian wants to take Kate who is ill to the beach. Brian also asks Sara to follow them. Sara refuses to come with Brian to the beach because she argues that it is risky to take Kate to the beach. Brian uses an imperative sentence with conditional force to warn Sara if she does not want to go together.

Functions of Imperative Sentences Used in *My Sister's Keeper* Movie

There are eight functions of imperative sentences found in *My Sister's keeper* movie, to express commands, suggestions, request, polite request, instructions, invitations, permissions, wishes, and prohibitions. Here are the explanations of imperative sentence functions found in the movie.

To Express Commands

Here are imperative sentences found in My Sister's Keeper Movie which express commands, orders, and demands:

11) Man: Let's hit it now. Go! (00:16:54)

12) Brian: Get your stuff. (01:08:03)

Sentence (11) is spoken by a man who is a friend of Brian. This imperative sentence is spoken when he is working as a fire rescuer. There was a fire in a house, then the man uses an imperative sentences to command his friends to put out the fire. This imperative sentence can be classified into a command function which uses first person imperatives. Sentence (11) can be classified into a command function because there will be a compensation or a retaliation if the hearer does not want to do the command.

Sentence (12) is spoken by Brian to Anna and Jesse. In this movie, Brian uses imperative sentences to express command to his children. Brian commands Anna and Jesse to get their stuff and be ready to take vacation to the beach. This imperative sentence can be classified as a command function of imperatives. Since it is spoken by a second person so, this sentence is classified into a second person imperative.

To Express Suggestions and Advices

There are some imperative sentences which express suggestion and advice they are:

13) Dr. Chance: Sara, let's take a walk. (00:40:26)

14) Pervis: Tell your brain to heal yourself and work on it while you're sleeping. (01:30:54)

Sentence (13) is spoken to Sara. Dr. Chance uses an imperative sentence to suggest Sara to discuss Kate's disease which is getting worse. Dr. Chance uses word *let's* in his sentence to involve Sara to take a walk with him. He also uses the proper name, *Sara* to get her attention to his suggestion.

Sentence (14) is spoken by Pelvis, Kate's uncle. Fitzgerald family is in the hospital, visiting Kate when this sentence spoken. The condition of Kate's health is getting bad, so the whole family tries to amuse and suggest her to survive. In this scene, Pelvis uses imperative sentence to advise Kate. Pelvis advises Kate to tell her brain to heal herself, and when she falls asleep, it will be better. Sentence (13) can be classified to advice function of imperatives because Kate is directed to do something for her benefit. Kate also can choose whether she wants to do the advice or not.

To Express Requests and Polite Requests

There are some imperative sentences in My Sister's Keeper movie which express request or polite request, they are:

15) Mr. Alexander: Please, sit down. (00:07:19)

16) Mr. Alexander: Would you repeat that, please? (00:07:36)

17) Sara: Wait a second. (01:08:16)

Sentences (15) and (16) are imperative sentences which express polite request. Sentence (15) is spoken by Mr. Alexander to Anna. Here, Mr. Alexander uses imperative sentences which express a polite request. It is indicated in the word *please* he uses in front of an imperative sentence.

Sentence (16) is spoken by Mr. Alexander to request Anna to repeat her statement. Anna is going to sue her parents for the right to her body and asks Mr. Alexander to be her lawyer. In this scene, Mr. Alexander uses a polite request in an imperative sentence to ask Anna to repeat her statement. It is indicated by a sentence *would you* in front of an imperative sentence.

Sentence (17) belongs to a request function of imperative sentence. It may be confusing to distinguish a command and a request function of imperatives. The difference is a request function, a hearer can choose whether he/she wants to do the request or not since a request function is to ask someone to do something.

Sentence (17) is spoken by Sara to Brian. In this scene, Brian says that he and his children are going to the beach. Here, Sara requests Brian to wait a second and think about what happens there. Sara uses an imperative sentence which shows a request function. It can be indicated by the use of bare infinite in the sentence. Since Sara asks Brian to wait, this imperative sentence is included in a request function of imperative sentence.

To Express Instructions

Here is an instruction in imperative sentences form found in the movie:

18) De Salvo: Please clear my calendar and schedule a hearing for first thing Friday morning. (00:37:10)

Sentence (18) is spoken by De Salvo to instruct Bailiff to clear her schedule in Friday morning for preceding the family court. De Salvo uses an imperative sentence to instruct Bailiff. This sentence can be classified to an instruction function of imperative because this sentence is given to accomplish some goals. The goal of sentence (30) is to make De Salvo's agenda in Friday morning free thus; they can continue the family court in Friday morning.



To Express Invitations

There is an invitation in an imperative sentence form in the movie:

19) Brian: Come here. (00:24:10)

Sentence (19) is spoken to Kate who felt upset because of her ill. Brian uses an imperative sentence to invite Kate to come to him, so Kate can feel being loved by her parent. From the structure of the sentence which uses a bare infinitive, sentence (31) is an imperative sentence. Sentence (19) can be classified to invitation function of imperatives because it may give benefit for both speaker and hearer.

To Express Permissions

Here is an imperative sentence which expresses permission in the movie:

20) De Salvo: fair enough, proceed. (01:17:41)

Sentence (20) is spoken to Mr. Alexander to continue the court. Before, Mr. Alexander discusses the medical history of Fitzgerald family. De Salvo hears it as something not to discuss in a court. However, since the medical history is about Anna, Kate's medical history cannot be accepted. Thus, De Salvo gives permission to Mr. Alexander to continue the court. In this scene, De Salvo uses an imperative sentence to express permission. It can be indicated by a bare-infinitive used in the sentence. Sentence (20) can be classified to a permission function of imperative sentence because the speaker has the power to grant the process of the court.

To Express Wishes

Here is an imperative sentence which expresses wishes in the movie:

21) Brian: Have some fun. (00:57:13)

Sentence (21) is spoken by Brian to Kate who will go for her first date with her new boyfriend. Brian uses imperative sentence to express wishes and extend blessing in this scene. It can be indicated by the word *have* in front of the sentence. as mentioned in chapter two that "Wishes are in effect a stylized form of imperative that occurs with *have*, the modal *may*, or *let*."

To Express Prohibitions

The last function of imperative sentences found in *My Sister's keeper* movie is prohibition. There are some imperative sentences which express prohibition in the movie, they are:

22) Jesse: Stop yelling! (00:18:08)

23) Sara: Don't be dramatic! (00:20:54)

24) De Salvo: Mr. Alexander, it's just us chickens. No showboating, please. (01:16:02)

Sentence (22) is spoken by Jesse to Sara and Anna. Sara and Anna yells each other to keep their argumentation. Jesse uses imperative sentence to express prohibition to stop them yelling. It is characterized by the use of an exclamatory mark in an imperative sentence.

Sentence (23) is spoken by Sara who warns Brian not to be dramatic in responding his family problem. Sara uses imperative sentences to prohibit Brian. It is characterized by the use of *Don't* in an imperative sentence.

Sentence (24) is spoken by De salvo to Mr. Alexander to not to go overboard. Mr. Alexander continuously asks Sara about whether or not she asks Anna permission to donate her organ. De Salvo sees it is uneasy to listen and prohibits him not to go overboard. Sentence (24) is classified to prohibition function of imperative sentences. It is indicated by the use of *no + gerund* to express prohibition.

Patterns of Imperative Sentences Used in *My Sister's Keeper* Movie

Imperative sentences are usually marked by a *bare infinitive* in the beginning of the sentence. However, not all imperative sentences are formed by just a bare infinitive in a sentence, based on the classifications and functions of imperative sentences there are many patterns of imperatives. Here are the imperative sentence patterns found in *My Sister's Keeper* movie.

1. V

The first common pattern of imperative sentence is a bare infinitive. Here is one of imperative sentences found in *My Sister's Keeper* movie which have V pattern:

25) Sara: Hurry, quick! (00:55:31)

To make a polite imperative sentence, the word *please* is usually added in front or at the end of an imperative sentence.

26) Bailiff: stand, please. (00:29:38)

There also imperative sentences which include a subject to attract the hearer to do something. A subject is usually separated by coma to the imperative sentence.

27) Sara: Anna, listen. (00:18:32)

S V

2. *Let (us/me) V*

This is the most common pattern of *let* imperative. Here are some imperative sentences which have this pattern in *My Sister's Keeper* movie:

28) Jesse: Let's go. (00:06:49)
V

3. *Would You + VO + Please*

This is a pattern of an imperative sentence polite form. This is an imperative sentence in *My Sister's Keeper* movie which has this pattern:

29) Mr. Alexander: Would you repeat that, please? (00:07:36)
V O

4. *Don't + V*

This is a basic pattern of negative imperative sentences. This pattern can also be followed by word *please* to be polite. Here are some sentences of negative imperative which have this pattern found in *My Sister's Keeper* movie:

30) Sara: Don't come down. (00:55:45)
V

31) Mr. Alexander: Please, don't touch. (00:07:12)
V

5. *No + V-ing + Please*

Another negative imperatives pattern is *No + O*. This pattern can also be included by *please* to be polite. This is an imperative sentence which has this pattern found in *My Sister's Keeper* movie:

32) De Salvo: No showboating, please. (01:16:02)
V-ing

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

From the research, researcher can conclude that classifications of imperative sentences found in the movie are imperatives without subject, imperatives with subject, negative imperatives, *let's* imperatives, idiomatic *I need you* imperatives, and imperatives with a conditional force. The writer did not find emphatic imperatives in the movie. Functions of imperative sentences found in the movie were to express commands, orders, and demands; to express suggestions; to express request and polite request; to express instructions; to express invitations; to express permissions; to express wishes; and to express prohibitions. The acceptance function of imperative sentences was not found in *My Sister's keeper* movie. And imperative sentence patterns which found in *My Sister's Keeper* movie are *V*, *Let (us/me) V*, *Would you V O please*, *Don't V*, and *No V-ing Please*.

Through this research, researcher suggests readers and other researchers to use the result of this research to learn more about classifications, functions, and patterns of imperative sentences. Other researchers can also use this research as the early information to carry out further researches on similar topics.

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