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Language_literacy@sastra.uisu.ac.id

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THE INFLUENCE OF PHONEMIC AWARENESS INSTRUCTION ON EFL EMERGENT READERS’ WORD RECOGNITION

Mohammad Husam Alhumsi
Saudi Electronic University, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia
E-mail: m.alhumsi@seu.edu.sa

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Abstract
Research has considered phonemic awareness skill as effective pillar in acquiring literacy skills. This skill has been identified as prerequisite for reading success. However, little is known about the phonemic awareness instruction of Jordanian EFL emergent readers. This study therefore explored the impact of phonemic awareness instruction on word recognition among Jordanian EFL emergent readers. In this study, the research instrument was semi-structured interviews. Seven EFL students of emergent readers were interviewed. They were all first graders aged 7 years on average. Data were analyzed using content analysis. The findings indicated that there is a lack of knowledge or misunderstanding between the term of phonics and phonemic awareness as well. It has been also found that emergent readers’ views show positive support towards the use of phonemic awareness skill. At the end of the study, some pedagogical implications for curriculum designers as well as English teachers were provided accordingly.

Keywords: Phonemic Awareness, Phonemic Awareness Instruction, EFL Emergent Readers, Word recognition, Jordan

1. Introduction
Reading is a pivotal skill that affects young learner’s educational aspect in life. Recent research confirmed that developing strong reading skills forms an important cornerstone in the life of young learners in their beginning years of schools (Kern & Friedman, 2008; Kucukoglu, 2013; Suggate, Schaugency, & Reese, 2013). Research also affirmed that reading leads to noticeable academic outcomes (Senechal & LeFevre, 2002; Kern & Friedman, 2008). Thus, reading can be defined as a complicated system of skills and knowledge in which all components of that system function together and improve one another (Senechal & LeFevre, 2002; Adams, 1994). In USA, studies have revealed that this complicated system requires certain pillars such as phonemic awareness, word recognition, background knowledge, fluency, comprehension strategies, and a motivation to read (Snow, Burns & Griffin, 1998; International Reading Association, 1999).

The Phonemic awareness, considered as one important pillar, refers to the ability to hear and manipulate the sounds in words and the ability to understand that these oral words and their syllables consist of a series of sounds (Yopp, 1992). Phonemic awareness falls under the umbrella of phonological awareness. Phonological awareness is a component of metalinguistic awareness which is the process of thinking about one’s own language (Yopp & Yopp, 2000). It involves segmenting spoken words into phonemes (Chapman, 2003).
Regarding word recognition, it can be defined as words that are automatically and immediately recognized as a whole by emergent readers and the analysis for their identification is not required (Ehri, 2014; Ehri, 2005).

It has been also found that phonemic awareness has been characterized as one of the important skills in learning to read and write (Walsh, 2009). In addition, it is significant to note that the issue of phonemic awareness skills, particularly segmenting and blending, in pre-literacy and early literacy development is critical in the early literacy literature (Anthony & Lonigan, 2004; Nation & Hulme, 1997; Yeh, 2003). However, research stressed that a broad gap between research knowledge state concerning learning to read and public understanding condition still exists (Castles, Rastle, & Nation, 2018). This means that a poor reader will find difficulty in understanding English skills, particularly reading. He/she also will struggle and face difficulties through every school day while practicing reading skill. This may force him/her to drop out and lose potential education opportunities and this only creates poverty among generation (Gove & Cvelich, 2010). Thus, Jordanian children must have the ability to be proficient in the basic reading skill of English language.

However, less is known about the phonemic awareness instruction of Jordanian EFL emergent readers (Alhumsi & Affendi, 2014; Alhumsi & Affendi, 2016) Thus, this study aims at exploring the impact of the phonemic awareness skill on word recognition among Jordanian emergent readers.

The significance of this study stems from the fact that there is a remarkable need in Jordanian educational system to shed the light on students who are at-risk in reading skill. Early intervention is a rigorous program for all students, particularly for those who struggle with reading. For instance, Torgesen et al. (2001) confirmed that students who have difficulties in reading skills often experience difficulties in the area of phonemic analysis skills. They added that students are required to have an intensive and systematic program in order to remedy the difficulties in reading. Moreover, it should be noted that curriculum designers, principals, and English teachers should depend on the findings of the research to guide instructional and firm decisions to accelerate the development of reading skill process. Consequently, few studies have been identified to address the phonemic awareness skill among Jordanian EFL beginning readers concerning the use of phonemic segmentation skill.

2. Literature Review

It is evident that reading is essential for academic success as learners acquire new knowledge that provides foundational links required for lifelong reading success. It is also crucial for life and it is a “foundation skill for school learning and life learning” (Lane, Pullen, Eisele, & Jordan, 2002, p. 101). A number of scholars regarded reading as a linguistic skill which depends on the combination of adequate language abilities in phonological, semantic, syntactic and pragmatic areas (Archibald & Gathercole, 2007; Fender, 2003; Lonigan, Schatschneider, & Westberg, 2008; Adams, 1994). Some researchers considered reading as a skill based on high level of complicated cognitive processing (Dehaene & Naccache, 2001; Baddeley, 2007). Others defined reading skill as the identification of printed words (Perfetti & Marron (1998).

Furthermore, the International Reading Association of America (1999, 2014) and Adams (1994) defined reading as a complex system made up of deriving meaning from print and this system needs the incorporation of the following items: the developing process and perpetuation of a motivation to read, the developing process of relevant efficient strategies to build meaning from print, building sufficient background information and vocabulary to
encourage reading comprehension, learners’ ability to decode unknown words, learners’ ability to read fluently, and finally learners’ skills and knowledge in order to comprehend the way phonemes or speech sounds are associated to print (International Reading Association, 1999, 2014). However, the US National Reading Panel’s report emphasizes five elements of reading instruction regarding reading skill. These elements involve phonics, phonemic awareness, vocabulary, comprehension, and fluency (National Reading Panel, 2000; Nag, Chiat, Torgerson, & Snowling, 2014).

Phonemic awareness is an essential precursor to reading skill and fluent decoding (Whitehurst & Lonigan, 1998; Anthony, Williams, McDonald, & Francis, 2007). Yopp (1992) provided a definition to Phonemic awareness. She stated that this skill involves learners’ ability to hear and manipulate the sounds in words. It also involves learners’ ability to recognize that oral words and their syllables contained a series of sounds. It should be noted that phonemic awareness lies under the category of phonological awareness. According to Yopp & Yopp (2000), phonological awareness is a component of metalinguistic awareness, meaning that it is the process of thinking about one’s own language. This particular skill includes segmenting spoken words into discrete sounds (Chapman, 2003).

For example, the phonemic segmentation skill, one of phonemic awareness skills, is essential in the critical stages of early literacy due to its association with future reading success (National Reading Panel, 2000; Schuele & Boudreau, 2008; Vaughn & Linan-Thompson, 2004). It is regarded as one of several skills of phonemic awareness in which beginning readers can segment words into individual phonemes. For example, “What are the sounds in bag?” (Ehri et al., 2001).

However, the phonemic segmentation skill is considered as the most difficult skills of phonemic awareness (Yopp & Yopp, 2009; Griffith & Olson, 1992; Adams, 1994). It is crucial to indicate that this skill has a strong correlation concerning learning to read and word recognition (Stanovich, 1986; Adams, 1994). In addition, it forms a critical bridge that results in the development of word recognition (Alhumsi & Affendi, 2016).

To clarify how the skill of phonemic segmentation functions, Griffith and Olson (1992), Adams (1994) and Manning (2005) affirmed that phoneme segmentation is demonstrated when a teacher provides his/her students with a word and ask them to try to orally break the word apart into its smallest components. Featuring as progressive process, Manning (2005) proposed that phoneme segmentation skill should be clarified in four different levels. The first level includes no segmentation of the word and the student just repeats the word being heard. As for the second level, the students need to divide the word by syllables. The third level deals with the separation of the syllables into segments. The last level is accomplished when a student divides all the phonemes in the word (see Table 1). Thus, in order to assist teachers to enhance the development and success of each single learner when practicing segmentation skill, they should be able to recognize the definite progressive level in which a student is segmenting words into phonemes.

**Table 1**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Four Different Levels of Segmenting the Word “pony”</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Progressive Level</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Level 1</td>
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<td>Level 2</td>
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<td>Level 3</td>
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As for the tasks of phonemic segmentation, they have also been found to be an effective component of phonological awareness program (Chiappe, Siegal, & Wad-Wooley, 2002; Chard & Dickson, 1999; Good, Simmons & Smith, 1998). The instruction of phonemic segmentation requires children to break down words into their constituent sounds (Tunmer & Nesdale, 1985; Yopp & Yopp, 2000; Adams, 1994). Research showed that phonemic segmentation skill facilitates the reading process (Adams, 1994; National reading Panel, 2000; Yeh & Connell, 2008) and it has increased more success in word recognition (Ball & Blachman, 1991; Kim, Kim, & Lee, 2007; Al Otaiba, Kosanovich-Grek, & Torgesen, 2012) and reading comprehension (Yeh & Connell, 2008).

In Jordan, emergent readers may not experience a full-blown sense of English phonemic awareness at the time of registration at school (Al-Shaboul, Assasfeh, Alshboul, & Almomani, 2013). Luckily, it is interesting to note that phonemic segmentation skill can be gained within duration of time (Reading & Van Deuren, 2007). It also helps students reveal the obscurity causing them to struggle with reading in the early reading stages. In other words, reading ability may explicitly develop through the assistance of the instruction of phonemic awareness skills that leads to recognizing words.

Westwood (2001) pointed out that the word recognition process occurs when the students have the ability to get back a word from memory, decode the letters and combine the phonemes to make the intended word. Moreover, word recognition skill includes recognizing what a word means and sounding it out. Vaughn and Linan-Thompson (2004) confirmed that sounding out words encompasses the idea that students are able to convert the printed words into speech sounds since speech is significant in expressing and reflecting ideas, emotions, and thoughts (Ganie, Maulana, & Rangkuti, 2019).

It is interesting to indicate that the definite component of the reading processes is word recognition. Literature affirmed that “Recognition of the fact that words are composed of sounds is important for the following step within the period of early literacy, namely learning to identify words” (Aarnoutse, Van Leeuwe, & Verhoeven, 2005, p. 254). Thus, focusing on the phoneme, which is the smallest unit of sound, enables students to have an opportunity to link a sound with its letter representation (Alhumsi & Shabdin, 2016). In this way, learners can recognize the connection between sounds and letters by having understood the alphabetic code of the English language in order that they can start developing such connection. Shankweiler and Fowler (2004, p. 487) confirmed that “the phoneme is the most critical segment for grasping the alphabetic principle and learning to use it”. Hence, each letter is distinguished by a certain sound that helps students identify the words introduced. These words should be decoded as well. It has been found in literature that the process of learning to read encompasses representing letters to their individual phonemes (Gray & McCutchen, 2006; Foy & Mann, 2006; Alhumsi & Affendi, 2016).

Moreover, it is important to note that Ehri (2005) offered developmental phases of word recognition. These phases form the theoretical framework to this paper. Ehri (2005) identified and studied four phases of development with respect to fully automatic sight word reading. These involve pre-alphabetic, partial alphabetic, full alphabetic and consolidated alphabetic. The same researcher strongly argued that these are not considered stages that need to be learned sequentially. On the other hand, she called them phases in which these phases simply address the remarkable types of alphabetic knowledge.
This paper focuses on Ehri’s model (2005) of word recognition phases. Ehri (2005) affirmed that certain prerequisite literacy knowledge is significant for children to form complete connections. The phases of word recognition development presented by Ehri (2005) are most readily applicable to decoding, or the process of sounding out and blending graphemes into phonemes.

![Figure 2. An illustration of Ehri’s (2005) phases of word recognition development. (Adopted from Beech (2005))](image)

This theoretical framework suggested by Ehri (2005) offers four phases. These phases are as follows: pre-alphabetic, partial alphabetic, full alphabetic, and consolidated alphabetic phases. During the pre-alphabetic phase, children rely mainly on environmental cue to read words because they have little understanding that the letters in written words systematically map onto the sounds they hear in spoken language. When having acquired this understanding and having learned the sounds of letters in the alphabet, young learners can then move to the next phase. In this particular one, i.e. the partial alphabetic phase, children do not have complete knowledge of the alphabetic system and thus retain having difficulty with some letter-sound association. When children are able to construct full associations between letters and sounds within pronunciations, they move to the full alphabetic phase. Within this phase, grapheme-phoneme relations in words are kept as larger units in memory. As for the consolidated alphabetic phase, Ehri (2005) presented a discussion of the advantages of this process for reducing memory load. For example, in the consolidated phase, the word ‘chest’ might be processed only as two units ‘ch’ ‘-est’ compared with four units (ch, e, s, t) in the full alphabetic phase.

The present paper chose Ehri’s (2005) phases of word recognition development since it tackles emergent readers’ acquisition of word recognition. The model only refers to emergent readers who are at the word level of text (Beecher, 2011; Ebert, 2009), featuring as a deep detailed model of early word recognition as well (Ebert, 2009).

3. Research Method

Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2007) affirmed that the research questions and objectives of the study determine the design of any research. Therefore, the current research used qualitative research method to explore the impact of the phonemic awareness skill on emergent readers’ word recognition

3.1 Sample of the study

The sample in this research was 7 Jordanian EFL emergent readers from Jerash Basic State School for Boys. In the semi-structured interview, a purposive/ homogeneous sampling was used by the researcher (Creswell, 2012). As for this particular sampling, the researcher
randomly selected 7 students from the school mentioned above since they had the same experience as emergent readers according to their teachers (Creswell, 2012).

3.2 Instrumentation

The instrument used in this study was semi-structured interviews of the emergent students adapted from Thajakan and Sucaromana (2014). Seven respondents participated in the interview questions. Those participants were male emergent readers. They were all Arabic native speakers aged seven years on average. They showed their willingness in participating in the interview. The semi-structured interview was conducted in Arabic since the study involved EFL emergent readers. This could help the researcher get more accurate data if the students were interviewed in a language fully understood by them (Thajakan & Sucaromana, 2014). In addition, to ensure the quality of the semi-structured interview process, the researcher followed Brantlinger’s et al. (2005) quality indicator guidelines used for qualitative studies. The guidelines used for the semi-structured interview include five items such as selecting appropriate individual participants, clear interview questions, using adequate mechanisms to record and transcribe the interviews, participants are represented sensitively representing sensitive and fair report concerning the individual participants, and using sound measures to ensure confidentiality (Brantlinger et al., 2005).

3.3 Research Procedure

It should be noted that seven participants were randomly selected to take part in a semi-structured interview. The interview consisted of six open-ended questions to identify the students’ views on the impact of learning phonemic awareness skill on word recognition. During the interview, probing questions are used to gather as much information as possible and the interviewer used them as a means of follow-up (Turner, 2010).

3.4 Data Analysis

Walliman (2011) clearly showed the importance of analysing data in order to gauge, make comparisons, forecast, examine relationships, test hypotheses, explore, control and explain, construct concepts and theories. In this paper, a qualitative data analysis was conducted with the data gained from the semi-structured interview. All the information from the interviewed was analyzed using content analysis. The data was thus classified into positive or negative views. In short, the researcher analysed the responses of EFL emergent readers into positive or negative views qualitatively since the purpose of this qualitative study was to explore the impact of the phonemic awareness skill on word recognition among Jordanian EFL emergent readers. A video recording was used to record the interview in order to facilitate the review process.

4. Results and Discussion

The analysis of this qualitative data regarding the research question was conducted with the data obtained from the semi-structured interviews. Six questions have been posed. All the information from the interview was analyzed using positive and negative views in order to ascertain the EFL emergent readers’ views regarding the impact of learning phonemic awareness skill on word recognition. Thus, the data was classified into positive or negative views (Thajakan & Sucaromana, 2014). The findings from the semi-structured interviews are presented as follows:
4.1 Q1. Emergent Readers’ Responses towards the Preferred Subject at School

As an introductory question, students were asked to have their responses regarding the subject preferred at school. There were varying answers when the participants were asked about their favourite subject. It has been found that the majority of them preferred the subject of English language. When asked of the favourable subject liked at school, the participants reported that they like the subject of English language. This is evident from one of the participant’s response (Student 2):

“The English Language”

This shows a positive tendency towards the subject of English. Thus, the first question works as a preliminary to the other questions.

4.2 Q2. Emergent Readers’ Responses of How to Read Words

The second question dealt with the way the interviewed participants used to read words. It has been found that four participants claimed that they use the strategy of phonemic awareness when they want to read English words. Their responses they gave in support of their answers are shown below:

Student 1 replied when asked the way he read the word “goal”:

“We spell the first letter then we read the /g/ the first sound”

As for Student 2, he confidently replied:

“We divide the word into its sounds then we read it”.

Similarly, Student 3 had the same idea and he added that

“We divide the word into its sounds, blend the sounds and then we read it”

Student 5 just uttered the sounds of the word being asked about. Student 5’s reply was:

“/g/, /o/, /l/”

On the other hand, only three participants claimed that they spell the word in order to read it. For example, when the interviewer asked (Student 4) about the way he read the word “goal”, he replied:

“We divide the word. Then we combine the letters”

In the same thread, the response of Student 6 was:

“We spell the word”

The interviewer asked Student 6 what you do next. He replied:

“We put the letters together”

In addition, the response of Student 7 when asked about the way he read the word “goal” was:

“We spell then we read. I spell the word through dividing it”.

This indicates that more than half of the interviewed participants show positive responses towards using phonemic awareness skill in order to read words. However, a few interviewees prefer to use spelling in order to read.

4.3 Q3. Emergent Readers’ Responses towards How to Recognize a Word

As stated in the third question, the interviewed participants were asked how they recognize an English word. Although the words were read correctly among students, the interviewed participants demonstrated a considerable inclination of reading words through the first letter and sound relationship. It is interesting to note that the majority of the participants stated that they recognize the words from the first sound or the first letter.
example, when the interviewer asked Student 3 the way he recognized the word “man”, he replied

“Because of /m/, the first sound”

Similarly, when asked the way he recognized the word “man”, the response of Student 2 was:

“We divide the word into its sounds, and then we read the first sound /m/”

Moreover, Student 5’s reply was:

“I know the word from the first “m”, “a”, and “n”. Then, we combine these sounds together”

Consequently, the first sounds or letters of words were the cues of their successful reading. Another participant (Student 1) claimed that he can blend the sounds within words. His response was:

“I spell the word, the first letter “m” and the last letter “n”. I spell it and I combine the sounds together”

In addition, when asked the way he recognized the word “man”, Student 7’s reply was:

“Because of the letter “m””

On the other hand, Student 6 claimed that he can recognize the words from the pronunciation and the English letters. His response was:

“Because of the pronunciation and the English letters: “m”, “a”, “n””

Thus, most of the participants show positive responses towards identifying the word on the basis of the first sound or the first letter.

4.4 Q4. Participants’ Responses towards the Sound /n/

With respect to the fourth question, the participants were asked about the sound of “n”. Most of the interviewed participants greatly identify the sound /n/. They showed the sound /n/ without hesitation. For example, Student 1 showed great confidence when producing the sound /n/. When asked to identify the sound of /n/, he replied:

“nnnn”

The other participants showed the same confidence. However, Student 7 offered the word “man” without referring to the required sound. He replied: (stretching the sound)

“mmm aaa nnn”

As a result, this indicates that most of the participants have positive responses towards identifying the sound /n/. Further, they show considerable confidence in their response.

4.5 Q5. Emergent Readers’ Responses towards the Final Sound in the Word “Cake”

The fifth question dealt with the interviewees’ responses towards identifying the final sound in the word “cake”. It has been found that the majority of the participant students identify the final sound in the word “cake”. They also showed great confidence in their response. For example, when asked to identify the final sound in the word “cake”, the response of Student 4 was: (stretching the sound)

“kkk”

Similarly, the other students showed a remarkable confidence in identifying the final sound in the word “cake”. Despite of the correct responses towards identifying the final sound in the word “cake”, only two of the interviewed participants produced incorrect answers. These two participants could not identify the final sound. Instead, they identify the
last letter which is the letter “e”. For example, Student 5 and Student 7 gave incorrect answers when identifying the final sound in the word “cake” Student 5’s was:

“eee”

To sum up, this clarifies that the majority of the interviewed participants show positive responses towards identifying the final sound /k/. On the contrary, few participants show negative responses in identifying the sound /k/.

4.6 Q6. Emergent Readers’ Views towards the Skill of Phonemic Awareness

As for the sixth question, the participants were asked about their views towards the skill of phonemic awareness. There was general consensus about the issue of phonemic awareness skill. All participants showed positive views regarding the skill of phonemic awareness. They claimed that this skill helped them read words as stated in all their responses. Furthermore, they had been asked whether phonemic awareness is a good skill. They contended that phonemic awareness is a good skill. For example, the response of Student 1 was:

“Yes, it is a good skill and it helps us”

When the interviewer asked the same student about the benefit of this skill if we for example divide the word “man”, he replied:

“We combine the sounds /mmm aaa nnn/”

The interviewer also asked Student 1 whether this skill helps us in reading. Student 1’s reply was:

“Yes, it helps us read words”

In the same thread, Student 2 and Student 4 showed high confidence in relation to their responses. For instance, when asked about his view of phonemic awareness skill, the response of Student 4 was:

“Good”. “It helps us read words”

Additionally, when the interviewer asked whether the skill of phonemic awareness helps us in reading, Student 3, Student 5, Student 6, and Student 7 replied:

“It helps us in reading”.

As a result, this indicates that all participants have positive perceptions towards the skill of phonemic awareness in conjunction with their responses.

Thus, general consensus was noticeably achieved with the issue of the impact of the skill of phonemic awareness on word recognition among Jordanian EFL emergent readers. This result indicates that positive impact occurred between the skill of phonemic awareness and word recognition. To sum up, qualitative data showed that Jordanian EFL emergent readers support positive views in conjunction with the learning of the skill of phonemic awareness and word recognition.

With reference to the discussion of the results, the semi-structured interview revealed the ways how students perceive the questions provided to them. In the first introductory question with respect to the subject preferred at school, most of the interviewees have tendencies towards the subject of the English language compared to other subjects. This shows they like English language classes. In relation to the second question, it tackles the interviewees’ views regarding the way they read English words. Most of them claimed they employ the phonemic awareness strategy when reading English words. Many of the interviewees claimed that the first sounds were the cues for their successful reading. They showed a great inclination of recognizing the sounds of the words by making letter-sound association. This means there is a remarkable indication for the lack of
knowledge or misunderstanding of phonic and phonemic awareness. This result goes in line with the study conducted by Bos et al. (2001). The fourth question involves whether beginning readers can identify the sound /n/. It is important to indicate that large number of interviewed participants identify the sound /n/. Additionally, concerning the fifth question, most of interviewed participants successfully identify the final sound in the word “cake”. They show no hesitation while uttering the final sound (/k/) of that particular word “cake”. In the sixth question of the interview, the participants gave their views regarding the issue of the skill of phonemic awareness.

Overall, based on these results, one can conclude that the interviewed participants had positive views concerning the skill of phonemic awareness. It is important to indicate that these outcomes are similar to those discussed in the research studies existed in the literature such as the study of Gyovai et al. (2009) in which the most effective level that predicts reading as well as spelling skills in the beginning years of school is the level of phonemic awareness. Additionally, the findings of the current study are also in accordance with the study of Castiglioni-Spalten and Ehri (2003) in which children already recognized the letters’ names that described the sounds being manipulated.

5. Conclusion

The current study includes the following conclusions: First, the phonemic awareness skill is relevant to the development of word recognition of Jordanian EFL emergent readers. Second, the explicit phonemic awareness instruction is of paramount importance to this development. Third, the participants enjoy the favourable uses of phonemic awareness skill and this was done through their investigation using qualitative methods represented by the semi-structured interview.

Based on the findings of the qualitative design, the researcher recommends that more research works should be triggered to investigate the effectiveness of various training instructions on students’ performance in other English phonological awareness skills on the word level such as rhyming, syllable segmentation and onset-rime, blending and segmentation (Chard & Dickson, 1999). Given the studies that attest the effectiveness of phonological awareness instructions, particularly phonemic awareness, this may convince English learners, authors of school formal books, educator trainers, and curriculum designers to pay attention to the benefits and advantages of such instructions as well as incorporating these instructions within their classes, school formal books, and curricula. Moreover, the current study mainly used qualitative method. However, future studies should be conducted to have more focus on quantitative research instrument to get a clearer image in the educational field relating to other phonological awareness skills.

It is good to note that phonological awareness can be taught and learnt; this supports the view advocated by some scholars (e.g. Ehri, 2005; Snow et al. 1998; Ball and Blachman 1991). Another implication is pedagogical proposing that explicit phonological awareness instruction, particularly phonemic awareness, can be integrated in Jordanian curricula with respect to Jordanian EFL children from the first grade as there has been a remarkable progress in English word recognition ability of emergent readers. Finally, this study was limited to the population from which the sample was drawn. It dealt with EFL emergent readers who are in the first grade in basic state schools in Jerash, Jordan.
Acknowledgements

The researcher is very thankful to the school administration and the pupils who participated in this study.

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COMPUTER-ASSISTED COLLABORATIVE WRITING AND STUDENTS’ PERCEPTIONS OF GOOGLE DOCS AND WIKIS: A REVIEW PAPER

Husam Masaoud Alwahoub, Mohd Nazri Latiff Azmi, Mohammad Halabieh
Universiti Sultan Zainal Abidin (UniSZA), Terengganu, Malaysia
E-mail: husam.m.alwahoub@gmail.com

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Abstract
Computer-assisted collaborative writing has been gradually employed in L2 and FL contexts due to the introduction of Web 2.0 applications and tools (i.e., Google Docs and wikis) and its benefits in developing learners’ writing skills. Accordingly, extensive literature that dealt with computer-assisted collaborative learning and learners’ perceptions towards this activity has been condensed on shelves by time passing. Thus, a review of former studies over the recent decade is called forth aiming to ameliorate the difficulties of reaching this literature and to awaken broadened knowledge in this promising area. This paper reviewed and discussed about 40 relevant articles published from 2011 to 2019 that dealt with computer-assisted collaborative writing using Web 2.0 tools, precisely Google Docs and wikis, and learners’ perceptions towards this activity (computer-assisted collaborative writing) and tools. All the articles were selected according to specific criteria, where only a true collaborative writing peer-reviewed articles were selected. After that, two main themes were synthesized: (a) collaborative writing outcomes and (b) students’ perceptions, and specific research components in relation to each theme were further reviewed and summarized using illustrative tables. Drawing on the review of this literature, the researchers discuss pedagogical implications in terms of technology integration and writing development and address future research directions including systematically reviewing this topic with teachers’ perceptions of computer-assisted collaborative writing.

Keywords: Synchronous/Asynchronous Collaborative Writing, Computer-Assisted Collaborative Writing, Google Docs, Wikis, CALL

1. Introduction
Computer-supported collaborative learning plays a pivotal role in language teaching due to its high significance. By applying computer-supported collaborative writing, a positive effect on students’ writing was demonstrated, in particular, writing connectedness (Streetman, 2018). However, through time pass, various terms were coined in the different studies; thus, academic research on computer-assisted collaborative learning is a little bit problematic. The most common term through literature is computer-supported collaborative learning. It was used by many contemporary researchers such (Kwon et al., 2014; Goodyear et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2014; Jeong et al., 2016; Koenig et al., 2017; Bodemer et al., 2018). Other studies referred to it as: computer-based collaborative learning (Littleton, 1999), computer-assisted cooperative learning (Johnson et al., 1986; AbuSeileek, 2012), computer-assisted
supported cooperative learning (McConnell, 2014; Newman et al., 1997), computer-supported group learning (Newman et al., 1995), or computer-mediated collaborative learning (Alavi, 1994; Warschauer, 1997; Beatty & Nunan 2004; Li, 2018). The researchers in this paper used the term “computer-assisted collaborative writing” as the term “computer-assisted” is more globally recognised as part of the Computer-Assisted Collaborative Learning (CALL) terminology.

During the last four decades, second language (L2) writing has grabbed researchers’ interest and attention. In the 1960s, the theoretical and educational development of L2 writing led to the opening of new areas of second applied linguistics and language acquisition. The integrative field became the main emphasis of many L2 researchers examining theoretical, pedagogical, functional, and methodological perspectives of ESL and EFL literacy. One of the most crucial issues that have been discussed in recent times is the possibility of integrating technology in teaching English writing. To date, a considerable amount of research was published about computer-assisted collaborative writing, as an effective instructional activity, and it has been extensively supported by many experimental research studies (Aljafen, 2008). Consequently, collaborative writing has been extensively implemented in L2 and FL contexts during the last decades because it affords better opportunities for the learners to pool language resources cooperatively and co-construct writing and knowledge via scaffolded interactions (Donato, 1994; Swain, 1995).

Former studies have reported many affordances of collaborative writing such as enhanced audience awareness (Storch, 2012), better environments to apply new-learned knowledge (Hirvela, 1999), and improved language forms and discourse (DiCamilla & Anton, 1997; Swain & Lapkin, 1998). Storch (2013) defined collaborative writing as an activity in which learners negotiate meaning, interact, and mutually produce decisions during the writing process and construct a single text with joint responsibility and co-ownership. According to this definition, computer-based collaborative writing refers to the collaborative writing activity in which students co-construct tasks, negotiate meaning, co-revise texts, and jointly produce a single online text through collaborative efforts using web-based technology tools, such as Google Docs and wikis.

The first-generation of web applications (Web 1.0) were mostly used to facilitate discussions in the computer-mediated communication (CMC) context such as chat rooms and discussion boards. However, Web 2.0 applications supports the writing process entirely, where it starts with task discussions and languaging then text co-construction, revising and editing until the last writing product. However, after the development that Web 2.0 has achieved using tools such as Google Docs and wikis that provides participation, teamwork and collaboration at an extraordinary level, more attention was paid to computer-assisted collaborative writing in second and foreign language settings due to its features of writing interactivity, composing reflection and the independence of time and space.

Thus, research on computer-based collaborative writing continues to expand during recent years. A literature review of these studies is therefore necessary and crucial, which aims to facilitates future research, produce expanded knowledge and afford new perceptions about this promising topic. In this study, the authors review this rich literature about computer-based collaborative writing and learners’ perceptions towards synchronous collaborative writing and web-based tools (i.e., Google Docs and wikis) aiming to make this topic more attainable and approachable for future research as it is clear that more studies are being conducted about technology implementation in education to enhance the writing skill.
2. Research Method

Aiming to select articles to review in this paper, the author went through relevant journal articles published over the last decade searching via Google Scholar, Science Direct, and ProQuest. Precisely, the author conducted advanced search on Google Scholar, using the combination of key words ‘collaborative writing’, ‘computer-assisted/mediated collaborative writing’, ‘synchronous collaborative writing’, ‘Google Docs’, ‘wikis’, and ‘computer-mediated communication’, with the publication dates set between 2011 and 2019. After that, the author screened all the articles based on titles and abstracts aiming to limit the selection of articles for inclusion according to the following criteria: (1) studies published in recognized peer-reviewed CALL-centred journals and (2) a true collaborative writing activity that used a Web 2.0 application and involved collaboration and a co-ownership of a single online or offline text. For example, Zou, Wang, & Xing (2016) was excluded from the study because it addresses the task of peer response, which cannot be considered as collaborative writing in that peer response does not involve co-authorship of writing or include the entire writing processes which was defined by Storch (2013) as collaborative planning, joint writing, revision and editing. Accordingly, about forty relevant articles were thus selected for close review in this paper and reported according to the criteria set by the author.

3. Results and Discussion

In this paper, the author thoroughly reviewed about forty articles and presented the findings in relation to Web-based collaborative tool (i.e., Google Docs and wikis), collaborative writing outcomes, and how students perceived the collaborative writing activity and the online tools used through collaboration, with the help of illustrative tables. The authors aim to provide a clear picture of the current body of literature by depicting a detailed research about this topic.

3.1 Collaborative Writing

There is a growing interest in developing writing activities in language learning due to the vital role of written interaction in social networks in addition to the fact that writing can support second language learning (Storch, 2013). Recent research on collaborative writing became more popular than before as collaborative writing introduces a new dimension of social interaction (Sharples et al., 1993). Godwin (2018) agrees with this idea, particularly after recognizing writing as a social activity that leads to more interest in collaborative writing. In another study about collaborative writing in traditional non-technology settings, Storch (2005) concluded that the writing developed in-pair or in-group work helps to produce a higher level of accuracy than texts written individually. Besides, she explored collaborative writing patterns using transcribed peer talk and students’ reflections, and she identified four patterns of face-to-face collaborative writing interactions: collaborative, dominant–dominant, dominant–passive, and expert-novice. Whereby, she resolved that pairs in the collaborative and the expert-novice patterns accomplished better in the writing tasks. Accordingely, her study showed that the patterns of peer interaction affected students’ literacy outcomes (Storch, 2002).

Moreover, literature also showed a vital role of collaborative writing in enhancing students’ writing accuracy. McDonough et al. (2018) compared the writing quality of collaborative and individual writing in a Thai EFL context and confirmed that texts that were written collaboratively were more accurate than texts that were written individually. These findings confirmed the results of other previous studies that also revealed improvement in
learners’ accuracy (Dobao 2012; Wigglesworth & Storch, 2009; McDonough & García, 2015; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2007). In another study about Colombian EFL learners, that compared students’ texts which were written collaboratively and those written individually, McDonough & García (2015) found that collaborative texts were more accurate than individual ones. However, they also found that collaborative texts did not contain greater subordination or more words.

Bhowmik & Hilman (2018) investigated collaborative peer writing, and they found that the learners were more aware of their writing abilities, strengths, and weaknesses through collaborative writing. Learners also valued the use of collaborative writing because they believe that it supports them in putting together their ideas and introduces them to the new and different writing styles of their peers.

3.2 Computer-Assisted Collaborative Writing using Web 2.0 Tools

In this section, the researchers shed light on the use of collaborative writing via computer, and they focus on the research that investigated synchronous collaborative writing using Google Docs and asynchronous collaborative writing using wikis because they are the most common and practical tools in Web 2.0. Moreover, these two tools are more accessible and offer immense features of word processing tools, team-work and interaction. Google Docs is a cloud-based tool related to the term shared documents as called by pervious researchers (Hofer, 2012) or word web-based processing tool (Kessler et al., 2012). Shared documents technology and wikis are interconnected. Certainly, Wikis seem to be thought the base of Web 2.0 due to their features of making websites editable using a flexible user interface. Hyland (2016) and Vandergriff (2016) concluded that the introduction of Web 2.0 applications made the creation, editing, and sharing of texts more accessible.

3.2.1 Google Docs

Google Docs provides updated features that are equivalent to many developing cloud-based word-processing tools which include synchronised editing, updating and automated saving. Besides, Google Docs can be used in synchronous and asynchronous modes. It also can be used by a single user or by individual users who can provide insights into the writing process smoothly and efficiently (Steinberger, 2017). Findings revealed many improvements of students writing after the use of Google Docs in collaborative writing and these results are divided into two groups: a) enhanced text quality, content, and organisation and b) enhanced writing performance and abilities.

a) Enhanced Text Quality, Content, and Organization

Yim et al. (2017) investigated synchronous collaborative writing and its effects on improving students writing quality, quantity, and style. They found that specific writing patterns (such as Divide and Conquer) appear to produce better text quality. Moreover, they also found that balanced participation and the peer-editing amount produced longer composition with better quality in content and evidence measures. Strobl (2014) studied the procedures and outcomes of collaborative and individual writing. Results showed that the collaborative groups scored better in text accuracy. Moreover, collaborative texts scored higher on content selection and organisation.

b) Enhanced Writing Performance and Abilities
Many studies revealed the positive impact of computer-based collaborative writing on enhancing students' performance. Seyyedrezaie et al. (2016) investigated the effect of the writing process in the Google Docs environment on the writing performance of Iranian EFL learners and found that Google Docs had an active role in developing the performance of students' writing. Liu & Lan (2016) examined students' collaboration, motivation, and perception on the use of Google Docs, and their findings showed that the collaborators performed better in their writing, and they were more likely to be motivated to acquire knowledge and perceived the learning experience more positively than the individuals. Suwantarathip & Wichadee (2014) investigated the impact of Google Docs on students' writing. It was shown that Google Docs was efficiently used to enhance the abilities of students' individual writing. Furthermore, the study also revealed that students who evaluated other peers' work using Google Docs developed more understanding of the writing activities. In a Saudi context, Mudawe (2018) investigated the instructional abilities of Google Docs as a collaborative tool to improve EFL and ESL students' writing. He found that Google Docs extends the opportunity of communication between students and their supervisor and that Google Docs improved their editing and revision of texts in a motivated environment. Furthermore, Ambrose and Palpanathan (2017) examined the use of Google Docs in enhancing students' writing. The analysis of writing samples showed that there was an enhancement in students' writing with the use of Google Docs, and they found that most of the students considered Google Docs to be a consistent tool in learning writing and they had a positive attitude towards it. Bikowski & Vithanage (2016) explored the effect of in-class web-based collaborative writing tasks on second language writers' individual writing scores. Findings showed that the collaborators had statistically significant writing improvements in their individual writing, and the participants appreciated the collaborative in-class writing experiment.

3.2.2 Wikis

Wikis are mostly editable websites that can be modified by numerous users but not concurrently. Wikis are often believed to be better suited for asynchronous group writing projects because one user must wait for another user, who is editing the same page, to be able to add or modify other people's writing. Literature that investigated collaborative writing via wikis revealed many positive outcomes, so the researchers divided these results into two groups: a) enhanced writing quality and b) enhanced writing performance and competence.

a) Enhanced Writing Quality

Aljafen (2018) explored Wiki-based collaborative writing impact on male EFL students' writing performance compared with traditional collaborative writing classroom. Results showed that the collaborative wiki classroom scored higher in writing quantity and quality than the traditional classroom. Moreover, Li & Zhu (2016) investigated links between group interactions and writing products in wiki writing. They found that the features of wiki interactions enhance the writing qualities and that students’ combined efforts showed in-group members’ joint engagement in scaffolding strategies and language functions. These findings of Li & Zhu were in line with Aydin & Yildiz (2014) who studied how wikis promote collaborative writing for EFL students. They found that the use of wiki-based collaborative writing tasks led to more accurate use of grammatical structures and that participants' focus was on the meaning rather than on the task form. Alshalan (2016) explored the impacts of wikis on the writing performance. He found that wiki writing is a profitable approach in the
ESL field and that the treatment group revealed a significant development in three variables (grammar, mechanics, and vocabulary), but it failed to reveal a significant difference in overall and content variables.

**b) Enhanced Writing Performance and Competence**

In this context, Wang (2015) supported the positive impacts of collaborative writing after using wikis as he found that students who participated in the collaborative writing tasks improved in business writing and valued the challenge of this activity. Furthermore, the findings also indicated that wikis stimulate students’ interest while learning a language and enhance the development of their writing abilities. Besides, Aydin & Yildiz (2014) also revealed that after the use of wiki-based collaborative writing tasks students believed that their writing performance had a development, and they had positive practices during writing. Furthermore, Lin (2014) explored students’ and teachers’ attitudes toward collaborative writing using wikis. Findings revealed that students demonstrated a development in students’ writing attitudes after using collaboration treatment. Moreover, the study also found that students showed a higher interest in collaborative writing compared to writing on a traditional paper. Li & Kim (2016) examined two ESL groups’ interactions during two collaborative writing tasks that used wikis. Results showed that the two ESL groups working on the same writing tasks and wikis had extremely different strategies of collaboration and that there was a change in patterns occurred across two tasks. They discussed these aspects in connection with the scaffolding flexibility taking place within small collaborative groups.

**Table 1: Summary and Main Findings of Collaborative Writing Implementation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Article /Study</th>
<th>Technology</th>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Main Findings</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strobl (2014)</td>
<td>Google Docs</td>
<td>Processes and outcomes of individual and collaborative writing</td>
<td>Students had better text accuracy and higher scores on content selection and organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suwantarathip &amp; Wichadee (2014)</td>
<td>Google Docs</td>
<td>The impact of Google Docs on students’ writing</td>
<td>Students developed their writing abilities and had more understanding of the writing process.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lin (2014)</td>
<td>Wiki</td>
<td>Students’ and teachers’ attitudes toward collaborative writing using wikis</td>
<td>There was an improvement in writing attitudes and higher interest in collaborative writing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aydin &amp; Yildiz (2014)</td>
<td>Wiki</td>
<td>The use of wikis to promote collaborative EFL writing</td>
<td>Students were more accurate at using grammatical structures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wang (2015)</td>
<td>Wiki</td>
<td>The positive impacts of collaborative writing using wikis</td>
<td>Wikis stimulated students’ interest in language learning and developed their writing</td>
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<tr>
<td>Authors</td>
<td>Platform</td>
<td>Title</td>
<td>Findings</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bikowski &amp; Vithanage</td>
<td>Google Docs</td>
<td>The effect of in-class web-based collaborative writing tasks on second language writers’ individual writing</td>
<td>• There were improvements in students’ individual writing</td>
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<tr>
<td>(2016)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Li &amp; Zhu (2016)</td>
<td>Wiki</td>
<td>Group interactions and writing products in wiki</td>
<td>• Students enhanced qualities of wiki writing and had a better scaffolding strategy</td>
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<tr>
<td>Alshalan (2016)</td>
<td>Wiki</td>
<td>The impacts of wikis on the writing performance of ESL students</td>
<td>• Students had improvements in three dependent variables (grammar, vocabulary, and mechanics)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Li &amp; Kim (2016)</td>
<td>Wiki</td>
<td>ESL groups’ interactions during two collaborative writing in wikis</td>
<td>• Students developed different strategies of collaboration</td>
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<tr>
<td>Seyyedrezaie et al. (2016)</td>
<td>Google Docs</td>
<td>The effect of the writing process in Google Docs environment on Iranian EFL learners’ writing performance.</td>
<td>• Participants developed their writing performance</td>
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<tr>
<td>Liu &amp; Lan (2016)</td>
<td>Google Docs</td>
<td>Students’ collaboration, motivation, and perception on the use of Google Docs</td>
<td>• Students were motivated to acquire knowledge, and their performance improved</td>
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<tr>
<td>Yim et al. (2017)</td>
<td>Google Docs</td>
<td>Synchronous collaborative writing</td>
<td>• Students had a better text quality</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ambros &amp; Palpanathan</td>
<td>Google Docs</td>
<td>The use of Google Docs in enhancing students’ writing</td>
<td>• Students’ writing was developed</td>
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<tr>
<td>(2017)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Mudawwe (2018)</td>
<td>Google Docs</td>
<td>Google Docs: Potentials and Promises for Scaffolding Supervisory Pedagogical Practices of ESL Students’ Writing</td>
<td>• Students improved their editing and revision of texts in a motivated environment.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
3.3 Students’ Perceptions of Computer-Assisted Collaborative Writing

Extensive research had been conducted on students’ perceptions of collaborative writing using various instruments and tools. The majority of the findings pointed to the positive perceptions and advantages of combining technology in collaborative writing instruction, but other studies had less-positive perceptions about these disadvantages.

a) Positive Perceptions

Seyyedrezaie et al. (2016) examined students’ perceptions of Google Docs. Students’ responses showed a positive attitude towards the implication of Google Docs as a factor causing an enhancement in their writing performance. Liu & Lan (2016) examined students’ perception of Google Docs. The findings of the study showed that the collaborators were more positive than the individuals to perceive the learning experiences and more motivated to obtain knowledge. Moreover, the results of this study also suggest that Google Docs has a vital role in improving students’ enthusiasm and motivation. Li et al. (2011) explored primary school students’ and teacher’s perspectives of collaborative writing and they found that students’ writing attitudes had improvement after engaging in collaborative writing activities. Furthermore, students considered collaborative writing as advantageous because it expanded the reading audience of their writings and increased interactions within the collaborative group. In a tertiary level, Zhou et al. (2012) claimed that web-based technology drastically changed the collaborative procedures of participating in college undergraduates. In his study, participants agreed that Google Docs helped them communicate effortlessly and efficiently. However, such promising outcomes would not be attainable without getting students accustomed to technology use because the understanding of the tools has a critical role in student perception of collaboration (Brodahl, & Hansen, 2014). Suwantarathip & Wichadee (2014) found that students were more confident in sharing their ideas with others while using Google Docs and collaborative writing. Kessler et al. (2012) reported that students in their study admit that every member played a vital role in this collaborative experience. Kennedy & Miceli (2013) also reported that students had a sense of community while working together using online technology and web-based tools. Aljafen (2018) explored students’ perceptions of writing collaboration, and his qualitative analysis of participants interviews showed that both treatments had positive responses toward collaborative writing in terms of its process writing, ease of use, and usefulness. Lin (2014) investigated students’ and teachers’ attitudes toward collaborative writing using wikis. Findings revealed that students’ writing attitudes showed a development after engaging in the collaborative activity, and that students had positive perceptions on the use of online collaborative writing environment.

b) Less Positive Perceptions

On the other hand, other results were less positive regarding students’ perceptions, and they seem to reveal students’ lack of confidence while or after dealing with digital tools. Zhu (2012) found that cultural differences directly influenced students’ beliefs about the digital environment after comparing students’ contributions in the online discussion in their countries. Li & Kim (2016) explored the dynamic interactions across ESL collaborative writing tasks. They found that two groups working on the same tasks in a wiki space performed
unexpectedly different patterns of collaboration and that they changed across two tasks within each group. Strobl’s (2014) analysis showed that collaboration failed in one group of his study because of members’ free-riding attitudes, also called “social loafing” (Storch, 2013, p.124). Aljafen (2018) explored students’ attitudes of writing collaboratively were significant but not for all the measurements. Students’ responses were similar in writing performance, anxiety, and future use.

Table 2: Summary of Collaborative Writing Perceptions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Article / Study</th>
<th>Main Findings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Li et al. (2011)</td>
<td>• Students perceived collaborative writing as advantageous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zhou et al. (2012)</td>
<td>• Google Docs helped them communicate effortlessly with others and write with less anxiety</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kessler et al. (2012)</td>
<td>• Students felt that each member of the group had contributed and had a valuable role when working synchronously</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zhu (2012)</td>
<td>• Students had strong evidence that cultural differences directly influenced their perceptions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kennedy &amp; Miceli (2013)</td>
<td>• Students had a stronger sense of community among those working together via online technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suwantarathip &amp; Wichadee (2014)</td>
<td>• The student revealed more confidence in sharing their ideas with others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lin (2014)</td>
<td>• Students had a positive perception of the use of online collaborative writing environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strobl (2014)</td>
<td>• Collaboration failed in one group of his study because of members’ free-riding attitudes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seyyedrezaie et al. (2016)</td>
<td>• Students had positive attitudes towards the implication of Google Docs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liu &amp; Lan (2016)</td>
<td>• Collaborators positively perceived the learning experience and to be more motivated to obtain knowledge.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Google Docs played a vital role in improving students’ enthusiasm and motivation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Li &amp; Kim (2016)</td>
<td>• They found that two ESL groups working on identical tasks in the same wiki space enacted unexpectedly different patterns of collaboration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aljafen (2018)</td>
<td>• Students had positive responses toward collaborative writing in terms of its usefulness, ease of use, and process writing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aljafen (2018)</td>
<td>• Students’ responses were similar in writing performance, writing apprehension, and future use.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4. Conclusions and Future Directions

This paper reviewed computer-assisted collaborative writing using Web 2.0 tools and learners’ perceptions about them. The archives revealed that computer assisted collaborative writing had a positive impact on developing students’ writing quality (Strobl, 2014; Yim et al., 2017; Aljafen, 2018; Li & Zhu, 2016; Aydin & Yildiz, 2014), and writing performance (Seyyedrezaie et al., 2016; Liu & Lan, 2016; Suwantarathip & Wichadee, 2014; Suwantarathip & Wichadee, 2014; Ambrose & Palpanathan, 2017; Bikowski & Vithanage, 2016; Wang, 2015; Aydin & Yildiz, 2014; Lin, 2014; Li & Kim, 2016). Moreover, many studies revealed positive perceptions of collaborative writing (Seyyedrezaie et al., 2016; Liu & Lan, 2016; Li et al., 2011; Zhou et al., 2012; Suwantarathip & Wichadee; 2014; Kessler et al., 2012; Kennedy & Miceli, 2013; Aljafen, 2018; Lin, 2014). Still, a few studies showed less-positive findings and perceptions and revealed no difference between students who wrote collaboratively and others who used traditional or face-to-face writing (Zhu, 2012; Li & Kim, 2016; Strobl, 2014; Aljafen, 2018).

After reviewing former literature addressing computer-assisted collaborative writing outcomes and students’ perceptions, the author recommends the implementation of computer-based collaborative writing in L2 and FL contexts, where the teachers and instructors ought to prudently design writing tasks that are motivating, effective and extremely related to the objectives of the course. Moreover, he recommends the integration of technology-based instructions in education as many studies confirmed its validity in enhancing learners’ individual writing and the learning environment in general.

Due to the growing usage of computer technologies, research on computer-based collaborative writing is likely to increase more in the coming decade. Accordingly, it is recommended for further researches to systematically review computer-assisted collaborative writing outcomes and perceptions, especially articles that investigated it in the mainstream K-12 context. Moreover, reviewing literature that explored teachers’ perceptions of computer-assisted collaborative writing and Web 2.0 tools and applications is highly advised.

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THE ROLE OF MORPHOLOGICAL AWARENESS AND EXPLICIT MORPHOLOGICAL INSTRUCTIONS IN ELT

Isvanelly Anwar, Rusdi Noor Rosa
English Department, Faculty of Languages and Arts
Universitas Negeri Padang, Padang, Indonesia
E-mail: isva1982@gmail.com

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Abstract
As a branch of linguistics, the role of morphology in learning English should not be taken carelessly. As the study of internal structure of words, morphology provides a lot of knowledge necessary to develop students’ English proficiency. However, many English teachers are still not aware of its important role in successful and effective learning process because they tend to be busy searching for media, strategies or techniques which they consider effective in teaching. In relation to the importance of morphology in English language teaching (ELT), this paper aims at explaining the important role of morphological awareness and instructions in teaching English as a foreign language to junior high schools in Indonesia. This is a descriptive study using literature review as the method. The data were secondary data in the form of documents including articles, journals and books. The data were analyzed using a content analysis by reading and reviewing the documents. The results of the data analysis show the significant role of morphological awareness and morphological instructions in facilitating the students at junior high school to learn English more easily, with significantly greater achievement. It is, therefore, concluded that students with morphological awareness or students that are treated by using morphological instruction gain better achievements in their English learning, resulting in their better English proficiency.

Keywords: morphological awareness, morphological instruction, role of morphology, teaching English as a foreign language

1. Introduction
Learning to spell English words is a critical aspect in the development stages of learning English as a foreign language, especially for Indonesian learners. The consideration of such importance can be seen in a number of studies focusing on learning to spell English words in Indonesia. However, most of the studies related to learning to spell were done without involvement of linguistic theories; instead, they tended to focus on seeking for several techniques best applicable to teach spelling, such as word olympics game (Surtini, 2014), spelling bee game (Rohmawati, 2015), crossword puzzles (Diniyati, 2009), concentration game and tell a story game (Nurhayati, 2012), and so forth. The main weakness of learning to spell without the involvement of linguistic theories is that the learners’ spelling ability will only be limited to the English words that have been taught to them, and they will have difficulties to spell English words that have never been taught to them.
The Role of Morphological Awareness and Explicit Morphological Instructions in ELT, Isvanelly Anwar, Rusdi Noor Rosa

The linguistics theory best applicable to teach how to spell English words is morphology, the study of word structure. Various scholars have found that teaching students explicitly about the morphological relationships between words improves the students’ spelling ability, which eventually improves their reading and writing skills (Bowers, Kirby, & Deacon, 2010; Hurry, Nunes, Bryant, Pretzlik, Parker, Curno & Midgely, 2010; Schano, 2015). Especially for junior high school students in Indonesia, teaching morphology explicitly is very helpful in building their knowledge and ability of English spelling because this is the first level they learn English formally (at school). In the latest curriculum of national education for junior high school, the 2013 curriculum (Ministry of Education and Culture, 2013), it is mentioned that teaching English at junior high schools is aimed at preparing the students to be able to communicate in English both in oral and written form. It is undeniable that spelling has an important role in achieving such national curriculum objectives: students’ ability in oral and written English communication. In addition, this statement obviously supports the role of teaching morphology explicitly to junior high school students. However, it is rare to find English teachers at junior high schools in Indonesia who teach morphology explicitly in the classroom.

In addition, the problem of the absence of explicit morphology instructions in teaching English spelling at junior high schools in Indonesia is caused by the absence of morphological awareness among the students. This may be caused by teachers who do not develop their students’ morphological awareness. In fact, morphological awareness in English, according to Kuo and Anderson (2006) becomes an increasingly important predictor of reading ability. Besides, they also recommend that morphological mindfulness is interlaced with different parts of metalinguistic mindfulness and etymological capability, particularly phonological mindfulness, syntactic mindfulness, and vocabulary information.

In relation to the problem of morphological awareness and explicit morphological instruction in English learning, this paper aims at describing their advantages to facilitate junior high school students in Indonesia to learn English more easily and more effectively.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Morphological Awareness

Morphological awareness is related to the awareness of morphological elements (morphemes) in a larger structure (i.e. phrase or sentence). Morpheme, as the smallest meaningful language unit (Katamba & Stonham, 2006; Rosa, 2013), plays an important role in building the language meaning in a larger structure (Carlisle, 2000; Deacon et al., 2009). It is, therefore, simply asserted that morphological awareness is the awareness of the existence and the role of the smallest meaningful unit in language (Apel, 2014).

In addition to awareness, the understanding of morphological awareness also includes the term “ability” as mentioned in several literatures (Kuo & Anderson, 2006; Tong et al., 2011; Kirby et al., 2012; Deacon et al., 2013). Kirby et al. (2012: 389), for example, define morphological awareness as the conscious awareness of the morphemic structure of words and the ability to reflect on and manipulate that structure. In almost similar tone, Deacon et al. (2013: 1113) define morphological awareness as the awareness of and the ability to manipulate morphemes in the oral language.

The definitions of morphological awareness elaborated in the previous paragraphs imply its important role in language learning, particularly in learning a foreign language.

2.2 Explicit Morphological Instructions
Explicit instruction becomes one of the recent popular language teaching approaches. This is particularly helpful to facilitate misconception in understanding and applying Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in classroom. Badawi (2019) argues that many EFL teachers and material developers have misunderstood or misused CLT, suggesting the inclusion of language form instruction in teaching. In fact, a number of studies have proved that explicit instruction has shown promising results in foreign language learning (e.g. Shippen et al., 2005; Graves et al., 2011; Wiley, 2015).

One of the suggested explicit language form instructions is morphological instruction. Following the concept of explicit instruction elaborated above and its relation to language teaching, explicit morphological instruction can be defined as explicitly explaining morphology lessons to students in language teaching (Wiley, 2015). In a more comprehensive definition, explicit morphology instruction is a teaching strategy that allows the teacher to demonstrate inflectional and derivational morphemes as target learning items of the suggested program in a direct way (Badawi, 2019: 168).

3. Research Method

This is a descriptive study using literature review as the method. The data were secondary data in the form of documents, including articles, journals and books. The data were collected through reading and reviewing such documents. The data were then analyzed using a content analysis. In analyzing the data, as suggested by Nilamsari (2014), four main steps were carried out: (i) collecting the literature concerning morphological awareness and morphological instructions in teaching English; (ii) reducing the data by analyzing the advantages of morphological awareness and morphological instructions in teaching English; (iii) identifying the role of morphological awareness and the necessities of applying morphological instructions in teaching English as a foreign language to junior high school students in Indonesia; and (4) drawing conclusions about the important role of morphological instructions in teaching English to junior high school students objectively and systematically.

4. Results and Discussion

Teaching English as a foreign language to junior high school students in Indonesia should be started by making them realize the role of spelling in developing their English ability. Such effort helps teachers to develop the students’ awareness of the role of morphology in learning English. Developing an awareness of English morphology will enable language teachers to help their learners understand how words enter a language, what they consist of and how they are formed by combining prefixes, suffixes, and roots (Oz, 2014: 83). Recent research suggests that learners with an awareness of word-formation processes tend to have larger vocabulary and better reading comprehension (Kieffer & Lesaux, 2008; Kieffer & Lesaux, 2012), and by extension better writing (Templeton, 2012). In addition, Coutu-Fleury (2015) has also examined that morphological awareness training has an impact on the reading and spelling abilities of young dyslexic students, those with inaccurate or slow printed word recognition and poor spelling problems which affect their reading fluency, comprehension and written expression (Moats, Carreker, Davis, Meisel, Spear-Swerling, & Wilson, 2010). This finding implies that if students with such disabilities can improve their reading and spelling through morphological awareness, normal students should be able to achieve more than them. Consequently, morphology can be a valuable instructional tool for language learners at junior high schools in Indonesia to develop and use vocabulary.
creatively. The role of vocabulary in the efforts of English language mastery is also undeniable because it is impossible for the students to communicate in English without an adequate amount of vocabulary.

Not only does morphological awareness benefit reading and writing, it also benefits listening. One of its benefits to listening skill is mentioned in the study done by Saeidi and Mirzazouir (2013) who investigated the relationship between morphological awareness and listening comprehension ability in Iranian EFL learners. They took a total of 40 students (25 females and 15 males) majoring in English Language Teaching (ELT) at Hamedan Branch, Islamic Azad University as the participants who were randomly divided into two groups of 20 participants, Control and Experimental groups. Four short listening passages were used as the pre-test which included 30 tokens of words with morphemic structures. Then four one hour sessions were held for the experimental group. After four sessions, four short listening passages were used as the post-test. The obtained result indicated relationship between morphological awareness and listening comprehension ability.

After developing their awareness of English morphology, then they are taught morphology explicitly in the classroom. In terms of its procedure, Coutu-Fleury (2015) proposes three ways of teaching English morphology explicitly in the classroom: (i) showing the non-correspondence between sound and spelling in English; (ii) showing inflectional and derivational morphemes in English; and (iii) demonstrating derivational morphemes triggering phonological changes in English.

The following is the example of showing the non-correspondence between sound and spelling in English.

a. heal /hil/ healthy /helθi/
b. sane /sen/ sanity /sænəti/

The two examples show that the same letter or letter combination can be pronounced in different ways. However, the lack of exact correspondence between sound and spelling in these examples is not arbitrary. In many cases, the similar spelling captures the fact that these word pairs are morphologically related. Many of the spelling “irregularities” found in English can be explained through morphological relatedness. Although it is not always the case that morphologically related words are similarly spelled (e.g. profound – profundity), English is better viewed as having morphophonemic spelling system than a purely phonemic one. This suggests that morphological awareness also plays some role in learning the written system of English Coutu-Fleury (2015: 74).

Morphological awareness refers to the conscious knowledge of the word formation patterns in a language (Casalis, Cole, & Sopo, 2004). This knowledge is based on the morphemes, including prefixes and both derivational and inflectional suffixes. The knowledge of derivational and inflectional suffixes is then becoming the second way of teaching morphology explicitly in ELT as illustrated below.

a. Inflectional Morphemes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pattern</th>
<th>Example 1</th>
<th>Example 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3rd person singular -s</td>
<td>plans = plan + s</td>
<td>works = work + s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>progressive -ing</td>
<td>planning = plan + ing</td>
<td>working = work + ing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regular past tense -ed</td>
<td>planned = plan + ed</td>
<td>worked = work + ed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>plural -s</td>
<td>books = book + s</td>
<td>chairs = chair + s</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

b. Derivational Morphemes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pattern</th>
<th>Example 1</th>
<th>Example 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-ment</td>
<td>statement = state + ment</td>
<td>agreement = agree + ment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ful</td>
<td>powerful = power + ful</td>
<td>joyful = joy + ful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-en</td>
<td>strengthen = strength + en</td>
<td>deepen = deep + en</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
-ly  slowly = slow + ly  rapidly = rapid + ly

The examples above can only be understood through morphological awareness that allows students to realize that books is composed of two pieces of meaning, i.e. book and the plural marker -s. Furthermore, it allows students to see the meaning consistency in regular plurals, such as in chairs, computers, desks, and so forth. This is particularly important to junior high school students because a plural marker in bahasa Indonesia, i.e. through reduplication, is quite different from English. Moreover, in English, inflected forms are more common than derived forms and more consistent in their semantics; they play an important role in grammar and they are generally learned earlier (Rosa, 2013). In English, derived forms are later acquired and considered harder, partly because of their more complex semantics and partly because derivational suffixes often trigger complex and seemingly arbitrary phonological changes (Coutu-Fleury, 2015). The examples of English derivational morphology causing sound changes can be seen below.

-ity  sanity /sanɪti/ < sane /san/ + ity
-ic  sarcastic /sɑrəkɛstɪk/ < sarcasm /sɑrkəzoʊm/ + ic
-ify  solidify /sɑlɪdɪfai/ < solid /sɑlɪd/ + ify
-ous  gracious /ɡrəʃəs/ < grace /ɡres/ + -ous

Such sound changes are caused by the use of primary affixes (Katamba, 1993). In addition to primary affixes, Katamba (1993) also introduces secondary affixes, those which do not give sound or phonological changes in the derived word, such as --ness and -ly.

Unlike Coutu-Fleury (2015) that focuses on teaching procedure, Griva and Anastasiou (2009) introduce a morphological-related teaching approach, which is named Morphological Processing Spelling Approach (MPSA). MPSA is a type of morphological processing strategies training included in the spelling program. MPSA provides explicit and systematic metamorphological instruction in word-level skills, when students do dictation from a meaningful text. By drawing students’ attention to the inflectional and derivational morphology, the principal aim of the MPSA is to help students, especially the poor ones, develop morphological knowledge and morphological strategies through the spelling process (Griva & Anastasiou, 2009: 202).

In order to examine how significant the contribution of morphological awareness is to English language learning, scholars use different instruments. Khoshkhoonejad, Khalifelu, and Abdispoor (2016), for example, use three instruments to find out the effect of morphological awareness on vocabulary learning among Iranian secondary school students: proficiency test, morphological relatedness test, and morphological structure test. The results of this study are very important to be promoted and applied (if possible) in Indonesian junior high school because both Iran and Indonesia consider English as a foreign language. Their research shows that morphological awareness is an important tool in improving the English proficiency of Iranian secondary school students, especially in terms of their vocabulary mastery. The results of data analysis show that the experimental group outperforms the control group after being exposed to the morphological strategies (Khoshkhoonejad et al., 2016: 156).

Furthermore, Tabatabaei and Yakhabi (2011) use Iranian Nation’s Vocabulary Level Test (VLT) as the instrument to determine the relationship between morphological awareness and vocabulary size of EFL learners. They collect the data from Iranian high school students through random sampling. The VLT is used to test students’ knowledge of words drawn from the 2000, 3000 and 5000 most frequent occurring word families. Two morphological awareness tasks (a morpheme identification task and a morphological
structure test) are also used to assess students’ morphological awareness. The VLT results indicate that the students perform better at the 2000 level than the two higher frequency levels. There exists a significant relationship between the learners’ performance on the vocabulary level test and the morphological awareness tasks. These findings implicate the importance of facilitating the students’ morphological awareness in English vocabulary learning for EFL learners in Iran.

Furthermore, Goodwin, Gilbert & Cho (2013) use three measures or instruments to examine the effect of morphological awareness to English mastery. The instruments used in their study are Reader-by-Word Measures, Derived-Word Reading Accuracy (DERIVED), and Root-Word Reading Accuracy (ROOT). These instruments examine the effects of morphological awareness on word reading among adolescents, looking into learner characteristics and their word reading ability. The study is carried out on 221 young middle school students enrolled in two suburban middle schools in the United States. The results show that the participants’ performance at reading a particular root word described their skill of associating words of the same root. For instance, the participants are able to associate the word ‘predict’ with ‘prediction’. This points to the fact that knowledge of morphology promoted learners’ vocabulary skill where they are able to relate and derive meanings of the words that have the same root. They conclude that the learners’ skills, morphemic awareness and knowledge of vocabulary, substantially promote word reading ability and hone their morphological skills. It is highly important for learners to be equipped with word reading skills and morphological awareness as they encounter more academically specific vocabulary in school textbooks which are mostly morphologically complex in nature. Even though this study is conducted in an English speaking country, USA, the results of this study also strengthen the role of morphological awareness in English language learning because it is not only applicable in non-English speaking countries, but also in English speaking countries.

Other scholars, Gilbert, Goodwin, Compton, and Kearns (2013) who conduct a study to evaluate the effects of morphological analysis of multisyllabic words on reading comprehension among 169 fifth graders from 40 schools even use five instruments in their study: (i) Academic Knowledge subtest of Woodcock-Johnson III, (ii) Morphological Awareness test, (iii) Multisyllabic Word Reading test, (iv) Reading Comprehension assessment, and (v) The Peabody Picture Vocabulary test. The findings of their study show that the relationship between word reading and morphemic analysis was instrumental in yielding positive result in reading comprehension. A major difference is noted on the effect of morphological awareness, where 39 percent of the participants encounter more problems reading morphologically complex words compared to the rest of the subjects who are at a higher level of proficiency. This study also indicates that the relationship between morphological analysis and reading comprehension is mediated by ability in reading multisyllabic words. Morphological awareness is found to have an important association with reading comprehension particularly for weaker readers.

In addition to morphological awareness, explicit morphological instruction also plays a significant role in advancing junior high school students’ English mastery. Nunes and Bryant (2006) provide experimental evidence that morphological instruction improves word reading and spelling, but they also acknowledge that this type of instruction is rare in schools. This omission may have particular relevance for literacy development in English due to the particular nature of oral and written morphology in English. Similarly, Carlisle (2007) also
found the effects of explicit instruction about morphology in teaching English in the classroom.

Besides, Bowers and Kirby (2009) use Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test III (PPVT-III) as the instrument in examining the effect of morphological instruction to students’ English proficiency. They conduct a study to examine the effects of morphological instruction on vocabulary acquisition. The participants were 81 children in two Grade 4 classes and two Grade 5 classes from two public Catholic schools in and around the area of Kingston, Ontario. All participants were administered the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test III (PPVT-III), a test of receptive vocabulary knowledge. They conclude that the treatment group makes better use of pre-test vocabulary knowledge in learning new vocabulary. The results are discussed in light of the growing debate regarding whether to teach many words in a shallow way or to provide deep, rich instruction about fewer words.

The results of the study conducted by Brynt (2006), Carlisle (2007) and Bowers and Kirby (2009) are appropriate to become the key reason of applying explicit morphology teaching to junior high school students in Indonesia since the teaching morphology explicitly to junior high school students in Indonesia is rare. Besides, the results of the study conducted by Gilbert et al. (2013) describes the learning habit among Indonesian students since a large number of studies shows that most of Indonesian students have weakness in reading English texts. As a matter of fact, their low reading habit needs to be improved if they want to get good achievement in learning English. In addition, their good background of reading ability will help them a lot to prepare to go to higher level of education. This also indicates that morphological awareness is effective to be developed and morphological instruction is effective to be explicitly taught to junior high school students in Indonesia.

Teaching is one of the application of linguistics as the scientific study of language because there will be no teaching without the use of language. Therefore, it is worth considering to explicitly apply the linguistic theories in teaching English to junior high school students, especially theories related to morphology. The basic unit of language that allows students to use English actively is word or vocabulary, which is the core discussion in morphology as it is defined as the study of the internal structure of words and the rules governing the formation of words in a language (Oz, 2014: 83).

The results of this study proposes a model of teaching English at junior high schools in Indonesia by applying phonological awareness and explicit morphological instructions as shown in Figure 1.
The model presented in Figure 1 shows that teaching English at junior high school in Indonesia should begin by building the students’ morphological awareness by introducing them to both free morphemes (roots) and bound morphemes (affixes). In addition to words consisting of root, they should also be introduced to the words form through inflectional or derivational processes. These morphological processes should be explicitly taught to the students. These explicit morphological instructions are applied in teaching all of the English basic skills including listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

4. Conclusions and Suggestions

Based on the discussion elaborated in the previous section, it is concluded that morphological awareness of the junior high school students is completely necessary to be developed because it does not only facilitate the students in learning English more easily, but it also helps teachers in teaching English more effectively. Various studies done by English teaching scholars have proved that students with morphological awareness or students that are treated by using morphological instruction gain better achievements in their English learning, resulting in their better English proficiency.

Therefore, it is suggested for English teachers, especially to those who teach English at junior high school to use morphological instructions in learning process, or to teach morphology explicitly to their students. In addition, it is also suggested to use more varied instruments to test the effectiveness of morphological instructions in facilitating the students at junior high school to learn English more easily.

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A COMPARISON OF MOOD STRUCTURES IN TWO TV TALK SHOWS WITH GUESTS OF DIFFERENT SOCIAL STATUS

Ae Mon Kyaw, Xin Zhiying, Vincent Mbahawa Chefor
Xiamen University, Xiamen, China
E-mail: kyawaemon@gmail.com

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Abstract

Language cannot be separated from the social context and culture. In everyday communication, people act and react differently depending on interactants, topics involved, and means of communication. This study, therefore, analyses two Talk Shows with guests of different power status- Ellen with Vice President Joe Biden and Ellen with Special Education teacher Jenna Albi. The analysis is carried out using Halliday’s Mood analysis framework, as revised by Matthiessen (2014) and Eggin (2004). The present study compares Ellen’s use of Mood structures and their functions in the interaction with different social beings. It reveals that in the talk with the Vice President, Ellen uses questions most (28.37%), followed by statements (20%) while in the talk with the Special Education teacher, Ellen prioritizes statements (43%) over questions (14%). On the other hand, she does not enjoy any Commands (0%) in the talk with the Vice President but does so with the teacher (18%). It turns out that, unlike in Fairclough’s (2001) finding, participants with high power status tend to answer questions rather than asking questions.

Keywords: Systemic Functional Linguistics, Mood analysis, Power, Ellen Talk Show, Speech function

1. Introduction

What is the function of meaning in our everyday life? Halliday (1985) encapsulated meaning in his three metafunctions of language, namely, the experiential meaning, the interpersonal meaning, and the textual meaning. Experiential meaning is interpreting language as an experience, interpersonal meaning refers to language as an exchange and textual meaning refers to language as a message.

Talking about the context of situation, Halliday (1985) also introduced three conceptual terms “Field, Tenor, and Mode”. Field is the subject that the participants are talking about; Tenor is the relationship between the participants in the conversation; and Mode is the medium that participants use to communicate with each other.

The corpus of this study is made up of two recordings of the “Ellen Talk Show”, in which there is a great deal of interactions between participants. Ellen DeGeneres is a celebrity in the United States who has interviewed several people with different social statuses, including former Presidents George Bush, Barack Obama, and movie star Jackie Chan. With the aim to analyze the semantics and lexico-grammatical structures of the exchanges between different social beings, the present study choose to examine two Talk Shows- the interaction between Ellen and Vice President, Joe Biden and the one between Ellen and Special Education teacher.
Jenna Albi. One of Halliday’s metafunctions, the interpersonal metafunction, with a special focus on the Mood analysis, is employed to interpret and compare the interaction between Ellen and the Vice President and Ellen and the Special Education teacher.

A few researches on Mood analysis in interviews have been conducted in the past, focusing on the frequency of Mood structures, the types of Mood structures mostly enjoyed by various participants and their reasons.

Mood analysis of Doctor-patient relations, religious speeches, poems, teacher talks, interviews, etc. have been conducted. However, a few studies have been conducted on the comparison of Mood structures in different Talk Shows. The present study will attempt to fill this gap by focusing on the main host, Ellen, talking to two guests with different social status – Joe Biden, US Vice President and a Jenna Albi, Special Education teacher.

Ebi Yeibo (2011) from Niger Delta University conducted a research on “A discourse-Stylistic Analysis of Mood Structures in Selected Poem of J.P. Clark-Bekederemo”. The discourse is analyzed with Halliday’s Systemic Functional Linguistics. The study related the Mood structures with the social contexts and discovered the types of Mood structures enjoyed by the participants.

Nguyen Thanh Nga (2017) from Vietnam Military Medical University studied Mood structures used in the conversation between two different social statuses. In her paper titled “Doctor-Patient power relation: A Systemic Functional Analysis of a Doctor-Patient Consultation”, she discovered that the doctor had more power than the patient.

In 2015, three Pakistanis, Mehwish Noor, Moazzam Ali, Fakharh Muhabat and Bahram Kazemian from Iran collaboratively published a research on Mood analysis in the International Journal of Language and Linguistics. The research titled “Systemic Functional Linguistics Mood Analysis of the Last Address of the Holy Prophet (PBUH)” analyzed the religious speech of the Holy Prophet, highlighting the frequency of use of different Mood types and explaining their various speech functions. After finding out that in the analyzed 56-clauses religious speech, 32 were declarative, 22 imperative and one interrogative, they concluded that declarative forms were mostly used in order to reveal higher power status in the interaction.

Adinoto, T. K. (2012) from Nigeria also conducted a “Mood Analysis on Interview Between Oprah Winfrey and Ricky Martin on the Oprah Winfrey Show”. Analyzing the interview between two figures, the article examined the frequency of the Mood structures and found out that the declarative Mood type was predominant. In addition, the interviewee, Ricky Martin, mostly used declaratives to pass on information.

Fikri, Z., Padmadewi, N. N., & Suarnajaya, I. W. (2014) carried out a “Mood Structure Analysis of Teacher Talk in EFL Classroom: A Discourse Study Based on Systemic Functional Linguistic Theory”. They sought to know who, in the EFL classroom, made the most use of speech functions, and what the different realizations of these functions were. It stood out that speech functions were mostly used by teachers. In other words, power status and frequency of usage of speech functions are claimed to be related in this paper. Furthermore, there is also a relationship between the gender and the choice of Mood structures; male teachers used more information and command structures among others. The study assumed that culture could be one of the reasons of differences in the use of Mood structures.

Previous research mostly dealt with the frequency of Mood structures and the types and functions of structures used. Some other research related the realization of Mood structures with gender; male teachers used more speech function than female teachers. In addition, they underscore the fact that persons with higher power status use more declarative structures, as documented in Bankole and Ayoola (2005), Mehwish Noor, Moazzam Ali, Fakharh
Muhabat and Bahram Kazemian (2015). However, there has been no research which compares the same participant interacting with two persons of different social statuses. Therefore, the present study will focus on the talk show host, Ellen, as main participant, and will determine the types of Mood structures she uses and the types of speech functions realized by these structures.

2. Research Questions

(1) Is there any difference in the use of Ellen’s mood structure when communicating with US Vice President, Joe Biden, and the Special Education teacher Jenna Albi?

(2) Is there any difference in the use of Ellen’s speech functions when communicating with US Vice President, Joe Biden, and the Special Education teacher Jenna Albi?

3. Literature Review

3.1 Mood Analysis

Systemic functional linguist, Halliday (1985), sees that language has three functions: language as an experience, language as an exchange and language as a message. They are technically called ideational meaning, interpersonal meaning, and textual meaning respectively. Mood analysis is the grammatical realization of interpersonal meaning. There are three types of Mood structures: declarative, imperative and interrogative. In determining the type of Mood structures, some constituents of the Mood are necessary to identify: Subject, Finite, and Predicator.

What is Subject? Halliday and Matthiessen (2004: 117) state that subject is “something by reference to which the proposition can be affirmed or denied”. In fact, subject is “responsible for the functioning of the clause as an interactive event”. It can determine the “success or failure of the proposition”. It can be identified with the help of tag. For example, *She is a Teacher, isn’t she?* In this example, *she* is a subject because it can be tagged.

What is Finite? “The Finite element, as its name implies, has the function of making the proposition finite.” Halliday and Matthiessen (2004:115). It can also be identified with the help of a tag. For example, *She is a Teacher, isn’t she?* In this example, *isn’t* is a finite because it’s a verb used in a tag.

According to Eggins (2004: 177), the mood structures can be identified with the order of Subject and Finite.

**Declarative Mood** is Subject + Finite +..... .

For example, She (Subject) + is (Finite) + a Teacher.

**Polar Interrogative Mood** is Finite + Subject+ ..... .

For example, Are (Finite) + you (Subject) + a Teacher?

In **Wh-Interrogative Mood**, if the Wh-element is the Subject, Subject + Finite and otherwise Finite+ Subject.

For example, Who (Subject) + did (Finite) + it? And What + did (Finite) + you (Subject) + do?

**Imperative Mood** can be in four structures.

(i) Finite + Subject.
   e.g Don’t (Finite) + you (Subject) + go there.

(ii) Only Finite as a Mood element.
   e.g Do (Finite) + come here.

(iii) Only Subject as a Mood element.
A Comparison of Mood Structures in Two TV Talk Shows with Guests of Different Social Status, Ae Mon Kyaw, Xin Zhiying, Vincent Mbahawa Chefor

3.2 Minor Clauses
A minor clause does not have Subject and Finite. It has 5 functions: Exclamations, Calls, Greetings, Alarms, and Backchannels or Continuatives. (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2014:196). Examples of minor clauses functioning as exclamations include Wow!, Yuck!, Aha!, Bullshit!, Terrific!. Some exclamations are clauses such as What a nice view!, How pretty the girl is!. Calls include addressing someone or something whether it is animate or inanimate. For instance, Christ, Professor, You there!. Greeting-functioning minor clauses are Hello! Good Morning!, Welcome!, etc. Greetings also cover wishes such as Congratulations! Happy New Year!, Merry Christmas!. Minor clauses which function as alarms are such warnings as Look out!, Quick!, Help! Fire!, etc. Backchannels include the fillers, which function is to keep the conversation going. For example, Yeah!, Okay, Uh-huh, mm, etc.

3.3 Ellipsis
There are two types of Ellipsis: Anaphoric ellipsis and Exophoric ellipsis. Anaphoric ellipsis usually occurs in a response to the previous message. For example, - Where are you going? – to the cinema. Here, Subject and Finite are omitted. Only “to the cinema” is provided. Exophoric ellipsis usually occurs when the situation or context is obvious. In other words, the speaker and the listener(s) know what the subject and Finite are. For example, Hungry? To the park? In this example, the listener already knows who the speaker is talking about. Therefore, exophoric ellipsis is used when the ‘subject’ is clear to listeners.

4. Research Method
With the aim to find out the relation between Mood analysis and power status, the Talk Show is selected as a material where a great deal of interactions takes place. The Ellen Talk Show, under consideration in this paper, has played host to a number of guests from different social backgrounds, including politicians, celebrities, teachers, musicians, etc. In this Talk Show, comparison is made between the mood structures employed by Ellen in her interaction with two different social figures; US Vice President, Joe Biden, and Special Education teacher Jenna Albi. In the Talk Shows, some interaction clauses with other people-the audience- are omitted.

The Ellen Talk Shows are first transcribed from You-Tube video. Then the materials are analyzed using Systemic Functional Linguistics by Halliday (Eggins, 2004). To answer the research question, the mood structures of the conversations are first identified as Declarative, Imperative, Interrogative or Minor Clauses. Secondly, the mood structures preferred by Ellen in both Talk Shows are extracted and their differences are highlighted. Thirdly, the speech functions of the clauses are determined as statement, questions, etc. Finally, the differences in Ellen’s use of speech functions in both Talk Shows are compared. Therefore, the present study is a mixed method- both quantitative and qualitative study.

5. Findings and Discussion
Using Halliday’s Systemic Functional Linguistics (1985), the present study analyzed two Ellen Talk Shows: the Talk Show with a US Vice President and the Talk Show with a Special Education teacher. Then, the mood structures and functions of each Talk Show were explored.
followed by the comparison between the mood structures and functions by Ellen in the two different Talk Shows. The following is the summary of the mood structures found in the Talk Shows.

**Table 1. Frequency of Total Mood structures found in both Talk Shows**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mood Structures</th>
<th>Total No. in the talk with the Vice President</th>
<th>Total 100%</th>
<th>Total No. in the talk with the Teacher</th>
<th>Total 100%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>61%</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>77%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elliptical D</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abandoned D</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interrogative</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modulative Interrogative</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperative</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minor Clause</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 1, there are altogether 110 clauses in the Talk Show with the US Vice President and 115 clauses in the Talk with the Special Education teacher. There is not much difference in the number of clauses between the two Talk Shows. Moreover, to make the data more valid, the Talk Shows are chosen with a little difference in the Talk Show length – both of them last 9 -10 minutes. The table shows that the most frequently used mood structure in both talk shows is Declarative (67%) in the talk with the US Vice President and (89%) in the talk with the Special Education teacher. Most of the Declaratives are for use in statements in the Talk Shows, which is in line with Eggins’ (2004) line of thought. However, the marked Declaratives are for the functions of offer, acknowledgement, question, and command. For example,

Joe Biden: By the way, I got a gift for you. (Offer)  
Joe Biden: I got a real gift, (Offer)  
Joe Biden: So this is for your mom. (Offer)  
Ellen: It’s amazing what you are doing. (Acknowledgement)  
Ellen: That’s so good. (Acknowledgement)  
Ellen: That’s amazing. (Acknowledgement)  
Ellen: You can’t be – you have to rest. (Command)  
Ellen: You have to be rested to go (Command)  
Ellen: and help these kids that you’re doing. (Command)  
Ellen: So you have always wanted to be a teacher? (Question)  
Ellen: So and the biggest issue with the school is what? (Question)  
Joe Biden: By the way, you know what my wife said to me? (Question)

On the other hand, only two Modulative Interrogatives are employed by the participants to make offers; “Would you sit down?” and “May I do this?”. The unmarked mood type for making an offer is Modulative Interrogatives (Eggins, 2004). However, the result of this research shows that speakers more frequently used Declaratives to make offers.

To answer the research question – any difference in Ellen’s use of Mood structures in the two Talk Shows, only Ellen’s Mood types are extracted and compared.
From the first glance at Chart 1, it can be seen that Ellen uses more Declaratives than Modulative Interrogatives, Imperatives and Minor Clauses. This is due to the medium of interaction, that is, the Talk Show, where participants are supposed to exchange information. Noticeably, in the talk with the US Vice President, Ellen used 29% of Minor clauses, which is almost the same as 34% of Declaratives. This is because Ellen said greetings, employed backchanneling with the participants, especially with the US Vice President.

By comparing Ellen’s use of mood type in both Talk Shows, it is noted that Ellen uses more Declaratives with the Special Education teacher (80%) than with the US Vice President (34%). In other words, Ellen gave more information to the teacher than to the Vice President, with whom she, rather, gave more compliance, greeting and backchanneling (29%), thereby revealing unequal power status.

Surprisingly, Ellen used more Interrogatives with the Vice President (26%) than with the Teacher (4%). All the Interrogatives that Ellen used function as questions in order to request for information. The use of the Imperative “Thank you” in the talk with the US Vice President is just to express acknowledgement, while the same usage of the Imperative in the talk with the teacher—“Come on down”; “Tell me about most of the kids there” is to pass a Command.

Table 2. Frequency of Total Speech Functions found in both Talk Shows

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Total No. in the talk with the Vice President</th>
<th>Total 100%</th>
<th>Total No. in the talk with the Teacher</th>
<th>Total 100%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Statement</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>43.64%</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>57.39%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>16.36%</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.09%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Command</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5.45%</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7.83%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Offer</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.61%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Answer</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.73%</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6.96%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acknowledgement</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.64%</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>9.57%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accept</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.55%</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.87%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compliance</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.91%</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.74%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disclaimer</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.73%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contradiction</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.91%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greeting/Wish</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.64%</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.74%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2 shows the frequency of total speech functions found in both Talk Shows. The number of clauses in the Talk Show with the US Vice President and with the Special Education teacher is 110 and 115 respectively. The table shows that the most frequently delivered function in both talks is statement- (43.64%) in the talk with the Vice President and (57.39%) in the talk with the teacher, which means that a large amount of information is exchanged between the participants. During the talk with the Vice President, he shared information about the Affordable Care Act, which is health insurance, and his attitude towards birthdays, etc. Likewise, in the talk with the teacher, the participants talked about the teacher’s life struggles. Statement functions were used to exchange the information during both talks.

On the other hand, the responding speech functions such as Compliance (0.91%), Contradiction (0.91%), Exclamatives (0.91%) are least employed by participants in the talk with the Vice President, and no Disclaimer, Call, nor Contradiction are found in the talk with the teacher. Undoubtedly, Greetings, Contradictions and Exclamatives are minor clauses and they are least common in both talks.

In order to answer the research question_ any difference in Ellen’s use of speech function in both Talk Shows, only Ellen’s talks are excerpted from the Talk Shows. The percentage of speech function occurrence is calculated based on her own clauses. For example, Ellen used 35 clauses in the talk with the Vice President; 7 of them are statements, representing 20% of her own talk. The comparison of the use of speech functions by Ellen in both talks can be seen in Chart 2 below.

In the talk with the Vice President, it is surprisingly found that the highest frequency of speech function is question, 28.57% of her talk. She asked questions, most of the time, such
A Comparison of Mood Structures in Two TV Talk Shows with Guests of Different Social Status, Ae Mon Kyaw, Xin Zhiying, Vincent Mbahawa Chefor

as “What are you in Los Angales for?”, “What are you and Jill gonna do for Valentine’s Day?”, “What is happening here”. This implies that, as the host of the Talk Show, Ellen initiates the conversation. This is in contradiction with Fairclough’s (2001, p.46) findings, in which a participant with high power status, a Doctor, asked questions to low power status participants, students. Fairclough also stated that the more powerful participants control the subject position of the less powerful participant. However, it is not verified in the Talk Show that the Vice President controls the subject position of Ellen, the host of the Talk Show. This can obviously be noticed in the following exchange;

Ellen : What are you in Los Angeles for?
Vice President : Well now that you asked me.

This proves that Vice President is waiting for the host to initiate a topic.

Despite the use of questions in the Talk with the Vice President, there is no occurrence of Command in her initiating speech, Disclaimer or Contradiction in her response. The highest number of questions and the lowest number of Commands, Disclaimers and Contradictions reveal Ellen’s responsibility and power status. Ellen, the one who is taking charge of the Talk Show, leads the discussion by asking questions and uses more acceptance and compliance structures to support the Vice President, instead.

In the talk with the teacher, it is found that the most frequently used function is statement (43%). Ellen most of the time gave information to the teacher. She announced the donation to the school the teacher is working in and to the teacher, who has dedicated her own life to the unprivileged school. The least employed functions are Answer, Accept, Compliance, Disclaimer. She did not receive any offer from the teacher, unlike the Talk Show with the Vice President, in which 11.43% is Acceptance. She also didn’t contradict the information that the Teacher presented.

By comparing Ellen’s use of functions in two Talk Shows, it appears that Ellen gives more information to the teacher than to the Vice President. Instead, with the Vice President, Ellen asks more questions than giving information. This suggests that before the Talk Show, Ellen already had much more information about the teacher than about the Vice President. The use of Command in the Talk with the teacher (18%) despite no Command (0%) with the Vice President is also indicative of an unequal status encounter.

In addition, the use of acceptance in the Talk with the Vice President (11.43%), despite no acceptance (0%) with the teacher is also indicative of an unequal status encounter. The Vice President offers Ellen some presents while Ellen is the one who offers the teacher some money for charity.

6. Conclusion

In conclusion, the paper analyzed Two Talk Shows to highlight the difference in Mood type and speech function. Ellen used more Declaratives with Special Education teacher, Jenna Albi, but more Interrogatives with the US Vice President, Joe Biden. The speech functions were explored in light of the mood analysis framework from Halliday’s Systemic Functional Linguistics. Concerning the exchange of information, the study surprisingly revealed that Ellen requested more information from the Vice President while she gave more information to the teacher. This finding is in contradiction with Fairclough’s (2001) earlier findings, where a more powerful participant, a Doctor, kept asking questions to the student and the student only had to answer. Regarding the exchange of goods or services, it is significantly found that Ellen tends to pass on Command to the teacher, but not to the Vice President. Also worth noting is inequality in power status as exemplified through the use of acceptance in Ellen’s talk with
the Vice President (11.43%) while none (0%) is used with her talk with the teacher. There are not much difference regarding other responding functions such as compliance, acknowledgement, disclaimer, answer, and contradiction. It can be concluded from this study that it is not a problem to ask questions to social figures with higher power status using Interrogative mood types. Consequently, there are fewer chances to share information with high power status than with low power status interactants in an exchange setting. However, fewer Commands and more acceptance features of the service offer are used for interacting with high power status interlocutors.

References


PRE-SERVICE ENGLISH TEACHERS’ PERCEPTIONS OF PRONUNCIATION

Aina Khoirida
Universitas Sebelas Maret, Surakarta, Indonesia
E-mail: aina.khoirida@gmail.com

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Abstract
The studies that look at pre-service teachers’ perceptions of the teaching of pronunciation which is still relatively under-researched in the literature. Previous research on pronunciation commonly gave more attention to the designs to conduct the teaching pronunciation in the classroom, like the methods and the materials. In connection to that, this meant it is leading to what should be taught and how in pronunciation L2 class. This study aimed to look at the pre-service English teachers’ perceptions and understanding they are covered about concerning pronunciation teaching. The data for this study was collected through questionnaires with 18 pre-service English teachers from the English Education Department in a public university in Surakarta and interviews with three of them. The findings bring about questions for practice, teachers training, and professional improvement of the participants. The results add to the discussion about the background of the teachers’ knowledge related to pronunciation teaching. The issues raised also underline the need for more research in several areas, especially attitude toward pronunciation.

Keywords: pronunciation teaching, perception, pre-service English teacher,

1. Introduction
In the past two decades, numerous studies have been evidenced by the researchers, that grammar and vocabulary materials received more attention in second language teaching process. Pronunciation has received an ‘often neglected’ label as well as research, in both theoretical and pedagogical approaches. In the implementation field, research done by Foote (2016), showed that pronunciation teaching is only taught in less than 8% time total in English teaching duration. However, students of English as a second language need to be able to pronounce English words correctly. Pronunciation is a key component in English language communication. Being able to articulate the right sound is crucial because good pronunciation can deliver the message in communication.

It can be seen, from the teachers’ perspective in terms of English teaching, they were not aware whether the learners pronounce the English words correctly or not. As Couper (2017), it was found that the participants in his research, they were unsure of how they should prioritize pronunciation and even how often they should teach pronunciation. It is related and similar to research done by Derwing & Munro (2015) showed that until 10 years ago, there had been very little research upon which to base any advice on pronunciation teaching. However, there are still few studies done by researchers about pre-service English teachers’ perceptions of teaching pronunciation.
The purposes of this study were to fill the gap by conducting a study, questionnaires and interviews, of actual pre-service English teachers understanding collective and experience gained across a broad range of teaching contexts. The focus is not on any particular group of teachers but rather on pre-service teachers’ views, which have been prepared by the university to be ready to teach in the real classrooms. Related to this, the research question asked is: What are pre-service English teachers’ perceptions of the teaching of pronunciation?

2. Literature Review

The research which has been conducted by Porter (1999), showed that pronunciation has not been the subject of much attention from second language teaching (L2). This viewpoint is supported by Derwing and Munro (2005) who found that the amount of proof about the effectiveness of approaches, methods, and techniques of teaching pronunciation is still very small. However, as with other fields of language elements, especially grammar, the factors in teaching have not been applied correctly (Ellis, 2008). In connection with that, the amount of research on prospective teachers’ perceptions about pronunciation is also limited, most research about pronunciation is about the need for better training and professional development (Burns, 2006).

During the 1990s and the early 2000s, intelligibility, suprasegmentals and lingua franca core were the major topics of interest in L2 pronunciation teaching. In the nativeness principle, the aim of most L2 pronunciation teaching programs until the 1960s was to achieve a native-like mastery of the target sound system. However, in the intelligibility principle, the aim of most L2 pronunciation teaching programs during the 1990s and the early years of 2000s was to reach a comprehensible speech because having a native-like pronunciation was not possible for all English as Foreign Language (EFL) learners.

Foote (2016) in his research stated that most pronunciation teachings used recast as a response to an error which is often not realized by students as corrective feedback. Foote also stated based on the observation activities reported in the study, there was a tendency to listen-and-repeat as responses to error, although Baker (2014) found teachers who were experienced in his studies wide range activities.

A research study by Couper (2016) informed that teachers of English as Foreign Language (EFL) in Uruguay express the concerns and problems faced by teachers. Also, they stated such as lack of confidence and training in how to teach pronunciation. There was anxiety when using the pronunciation of their non-native English accent as a model. Participants also showed awareness about the importance of pronunciation perceptions and had different views on teaching sound-spelling, used listen-and-repeat activities, and phoneme symbols to teach pronunciation.

As for the place of pronunciation teaching, it can be stated that L2 pronunciation is still neglected in classroom implementation. Few pieces of research have been conducted in this field, but still in little amount number. This research aims to fill the gaps that there is still no research about prospective teachers’ perspectives in teaching pronunciation in Surakarta, Indonesia.

3. Research Method

The mixed-method research design used to measure participants’ perceptions of the pronunciation. It includes both quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis. The mixing of the method would provide beneficial, complementary, and deeper pieces of information (Johnson & Christensen, 2012).
This study was conducted at a state university in Surakarta, Indonesia, with pre-service English language teachers as the participants. The target population for this study is a department, the English Education Department, at Sebelas Maret University. From four batches, the batch which was chosen is the seventh semester with a reason that they are still conducting in the third internship, the batch which has the biggest chance or the closest to real teaching in the classroom and applies the pronunciation teaching in their class.

The goal is to verify the readiness and knowledge of prospective English teachers about teaching pronunciation. The purpose also to see how ready they were to teach pronunciation skills after they graduate from university and be teachers in the school. Of the 25 participants of this study, 12 participants were excluded because they did not complete the answers in online-questionnaire. The participants’ mean age was 21 (SD=3 years, range= 20-22) with 4 males and 14 females.

The data for this study was accumulated through online-questionnaire and interview. These two methods are chosen to get better understand the perceptions of pre-service English teachers, such as their feelings and their motivations (Fishman et al. 1977). The online questionnaire used because it is very valuable tools for large data collection studies in a short time to meet generalizability in results (King, Lai, & May, 2017). This questionnaire for the research consisted of three sections; participants’ training on pronunciation, participants’ knowledge and competence about pronunciation, and participants’ perception about the teaching of pronunciation. After the data from the questionnaire were collected, 3 of the participants were chosen randomly to be interviewed to get deeper information. Also, interviewing allows intimacy to grow between the researcher and the participants and therefore deeper sources of data can be obtained (King, Lai, & May, 2017). The data were collected by methods which already mentioned before, the interview was done by the researcher face-to-face with the participants one by one with each interview took 20-25 minutes. Because of all of the participants were in the last year of college and doing an internship, as well as three interview participants, it was found difficulty in determining the available times with the participants.

4. Results and Discussion
Previous studies have shown that several English teachers are still lacking in pronunciation training which they should get in university or teacher training school. According to Couper (2016), the participants in the research explained that they have not been taught insufficient aspects of pronunciation. Some of them only received phonetics and phonology, while the rest only received the articulation of individual sounds or word stress. From that data also can be seen the participants’ readiness and confidence in real teaching-learning classrooms after they graduate from the university.

4.1 Students’ training in pronunciation aspects
According to the findings (Figure 1) which shows students’ perceptions about their training on pronunciation, shows that the majority of the participants, 33,3% of them opine they already got enough training on English pronunciation and 11,1% of the students strongly agree. While 16,7% of them are strongly disagreeing and the other 16,7% disagree. The rest, 22,2% of the participants are neutral about the number of pronunciation training adequacy. This result indicated that each student has a different ‘adequacy’ category. Some students thought that the number of training they have got is enough to be their knowledge when they become teachers in the future, but the rest are not thought the same, even they got the same
time trainings and materials in lecture. In other questions in the online-questionnaire, also shown that they have a different perspective on English phonetics training. Their answers spread evenly from strongly disagree to strongly agree related to this question. While in another question about their training in the varieties in English accents, 38.9% of students opined agree and the majority, 44.4% of them opined neutral. These answers related to the introduction of native English accents and some English as a Lingua Franca (ELF).

Thus, the data is in line with research conducted by Couper (2016) which said that even though they have received the same training in pronunciation, it is normal if they have different perceptions. In that research conducted by Couper, participants showed different readiness. From the three students I have interviewed, two of them said that pronunciation training they have got is enough. They said that they got the basics and concepts of pronunciation, and other lessons like in the listening class to distinguish sounds or pronunciation by the speakers, phonetics, and phonology, etc. They also said that it is ‘enough’ if it talked about the base and the concept of pronunciation. While the other one said it is still not enough because pronunciation is the main point in English, especially in speaking. She also added that it should be more training not only in the first or second semester. Furthermore, they need more opportunities to practice in the classroom so they not only know the concept but also the skills.

These findings indicated that the amount or the effectiveness of training will have an impact on the implication of pronunciation teaching in the classrooms by preservice English teachers. Therefore, the main reason for instructors or teachers confronting difficulties with pronunciation instruction seems to be the lack of sufficient training in pronunciation pedagogy included in L2 teacher preparation programs (Burgess & Spencer, 2000; Burns 2006; Foote et al., 2011; Henderson et al., 2012; J. Murphy, 1997; Sicola & Darcy, 2015). Also, to the lack of opportunities for L2 teachers to learn how to teach pronunciation, little is known about how they are prepared to teach pronunciation in their future classrooms, as few studies have been conducted in this context.

![Figure 1. Students’ perceptions of their pronunciation training.](image-url)
4.2 Students’ knowledge and competence in pronunciation

Figure 2. shows the knowledge and competence of the students in pronunciation. In general, the majority of them, 50% chose neutral for the question of whether or not they have good or correct English pronunciation. 38.9% of them agree while the remaining 11.1% disagree. This result means that many of the participants think they have or can pronounce correctly but on a normal or standard range, not bad or very good. This distribution of answers also occurs in the other questions. From phonetic mastery and understanding questions, most of them, 44.4%, also chose neutral. 38.9% of them chose to agree and the rest chose to disagree. While in the English word stress question, 66.7% of students chose neutral. 27.8% chose to agree and the rest chose to disagree. So, the figure shows almost the same proportions, the majority of their answers only spread in neutral and agree on the scale. If this condition was connected to their readiness to teach their students in the future, it can be concluded that they still lack and need more training to be a better one.

![Figure 2. Students' knowledge and competence in pronunciation](image)

The research conducted by Gürsoy & Hüseyinoğlu (2017) also showed the same result. The teachers-in-training were not sure whether their pronunciation of English is good, nor were they content with their pronunciation. From the three students whom I interviewed, related to their competence in pronunciation, I asked them about how they will teach their students with this condition. Their answers were various. One of them said, “When I will be a teacher, first, I should give them the best models of correct pronunciation in everyday classes so that they will get used to hearing the correct one. Second, provides them with learning sources such as authentic video/audio, but still, need to select the appropriate one for their level. Third, pronunciation drilling for the word. Give corrective feedback of mispronouncing words by students. Fourth, give them a project-based task like producing a video (adjusted with the topic being learned)”. While the remaining two said, they will use drilling as a method as the lecturers taught them in university.

This result proved once again fact in the field that has been found by previous researchers. The reasons linked with why pronunciation teaching is challenging embrace a variety of factors, including teachers’ lack of confidence, inability to lecture pronunciation
Pre-Service English Teachers’ Perceptions of Pronunciation, Aina Khoirida

systematically, and uncertainty about what aspects of pronunciation to teach and how to use textbooks and materials in their classrooms effectively (Baker, 2011a). Further adding to the complexity of teaching pronunciation is that there is no agreed-upon system of deciding what to teach, and when and how to do it (Darcy, Ewert, & Lidster, 2012). One of the reasons for this unsystematic approach is that pronunciation teaching, to a large extent, depends on instructors or teachers’ institutions and pedagogical beliefs (Hismanoglu & Hismanoglu, 2010; Levis, 2005). Carrying on one’s own L2 language learning experience often results in traditional techniques, such as drills and repetition, being predominantly used in the classroom (Baker, 2014; D. Murphy, 2011) due to the inclination of instructors to fall back onto techniques they experienced themselves as L2 learners.

4.3 Students’ perceptions about the teaching of pronunciation

Figure 3. Presents the result of students’ perceptions of pronunciation teaching. The majority of the students, 55.6% strongly agree with the pronunciation teaching to their students. 38.9% of them agree and only one student or 5.6% said neutrally. It indicated that they thought pronunciation is an important material to be taught to the students. Just like in another question, about pronunciation mastery must be mastered by everyone or students, half of them or 50% said to agree. Strongly disagree was chosen by 38.9% of the students, while the rest or 5.6% of them chose neutral and the other 5.6% chose to disagree. Then, the last question was about students’ confidence to teach pronunciation, the majority of the student or 55.6% said that agree that they are confident and ready enough and 5.6% or one of them said strongly disagree. Six of them or 33.3% said neutrally. While the other 5.6% said disagree.

This result is in line with research which was conducted by Gürsoy & Hüseyinoğlu (2017). From three students whom I interviewed, three of them answered because pronunciation is an important skill in English, especially in speaking. One of them said, “Everyone will say that you have a good language skill, relatively, based on how good is your pronunciation not from another aspect. And the other reason is when you want to try to speak with foreigners, in this case, English speakers the only way they can understand what you are saying and what are your intentions are if you can deliver them in a pronunciation that can be
understood by them, which is a good one.” While the other said, “pronunciation is one of the important aspects when learning English because when someone can pronounce words correctly, the means of communication will be conveyed well.”

From these findings, it can be concluded that not all teachers are aware of the importance of pronunciation. The majority of teachers think that pronunciation study is too difficult and monotonous for learners (Harmer, 2001). Kenworthy (1987) said that there are just some students who know the value of good pronunciation. This is the responsibility of teachers to persuade their learners to study pronunciation severely and help them learn to pronounce English sounds correct. Teachers should tell their students if students do not practise good pronunciation at the beginning of their learning process, they may learn wrongly. Therefore, words should be learnt regarding their pronunciation. Otherwise, this may damage learners’ overall success. Accordingly, Field (2005) and Hahn (2004) in their research, support the claim that pronunciation-related issues affect how interlocutors understand one’s message.

5. Conclusion

The current research has answered the research question that is pre-service English language teachers’ perceptions related to pronunciation teaching. While from the previous studies, this topic is still under-researched. Most of them were talking about the methods and how to teach pronunciation, not about teachers or pre-service teachers’ perceptions. The perceptions in this study focused on 1) training on pronunciation, 2) competence and knowledge, and 3) perception about pronunciation teaching. It is not only restricted to those three aspects, but also the method and ideal practice of pronunciation. This research also tried to know their planning and view related to this topic, when they become teachers in the future.

The results have shown how enthusiastic the participants are to teach pronunciation in their classrooms. It is also shown that they have sufficient planning in methods or ways to approach to give a good understanding to their students. The importance of teaching pronunciation has been realized by the students and they wanted to implement or teach their students about it. However, the university was not giving them sufficient preparation, either in materials or how to teach that. So, they hoped the university will fix it and give good preparation for their future teachers. Because English teachers should master well as one of these language elements. Additionally, the results also showed that the majority of the participants did not feel confident enough about their competence in pronunciation, either the word stress or how to pronounce words.

Thus, this result suggests the need for better preparation and curriculum in university that is increasing the opportunity for the students to have good pronunciation. Based on the result, the students showed that the amount of they could practice their pronunciation was low. They received ‘enough’ number of materials but still lacked in practice, so that was the reason the students still not confident with their pronunciation skills. Therefore, more research is needed to reiterate these results and topic in different contexts and aspects of teaching pronunciation. Lastly, it also suggests the next researches on other variables, such as the in-service teacher perceptions, to validate and see the differences with the finding of this research.
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FAIRCLOUGH’S CDA IN THE ACRONYM OF REGIONAL NAMES IN BANYUMAS REGENCY

Gigih Ariastuti Purwandari, Rosdiana Puspita Sari
Universitas Jenderal Soedirman, Purwokerto, Central Java, Indonesia
E-mail: gigiha.purwandari@yahoo.com

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Abstract
This research aimed to describe the meaning of acronyms of Regional names in Banyumas regency and the background of their creation. This research used Fairclough’s theory (1995) about Critical Discourse Analysis approach. The data collection technique was taken by interviewing Alan Asprilla (as the acronym video maker) directly and was continued by making transcription of the video. The results of the research showed that there were three levels of analysis. First, micro-analysis showed that the pronouns aku ‘I’ and kamu ‘you’ and several other dictons were used in the data. Second, meso-analysis showed that Alan’s purposes in making the acronym were to entertain the audience and also to introduce Banyumas region to the society widely. Third, macro-analysis showed that the relationship between Alan and audience was equal.

Keywords: critical discourse analysis, acronym, micro-analysis, meso-analysis, macro-analysis.

1. Introduction
Language is an important communication media for people and their different social, cultural, science and technology backgrounds cause diversity in the language. This diversity shows the existence of dynamic language development in the society. As time goes by, the use of language has shifted and it is not always used in complete sentences. People begin to develop their communication style. Some conditions have made people start to use short words in the communication by using a style of contracting words into acronym, blending and clipping. This syle has become very innovative and popular in Indonesia, especially in teenagers. Many teenagers use the short language style to express their ideas.

Teenagers who are also a part of the society often use new words, which tempt the listeners’ curiosity. The use of acronym is very popular in their community. They create language variations in communicating their ideas to make different characteristics from different community. Their intention to get sympathy, and impression of being cool and sociable make teenagers vying to create acronyms which sometimes beyond the society’s expectation. These symptoms are the indications of the socio-cultural influences of society who follow their communication style. This social change leads to the emersion of a new form in language. The change in language form happens not because of their dissatisfaction toward the used language, but because of their desire to find new things which are different from the current language.

The phenomenon of using acronym was also found in a group of teenagers in Banyumas regency. The teenagers who were spearheaded by Alan Asprila and his friends
made acronyms for regional names in Banyumas Regency. They made acronyms together, and then they uploaded the acronyms through social media. Initially, they came to an idea to make acronyms only for their own entertainment or joke. Beyond expectation, their videos gained much attention from netizens after being uploaded on social media. Alan Spriila and his friends become famous and they are asked to make acronyms for other regions in Banyumas Regency. One of the acronyms, which constitutes the regional name of a place, is Sokaraja. It is a name of a sub-district in Banyumas regency, while Alan Spriila’s video on YouTube mentions that Sokaraja stands for Sok Ramah Pengen Dipuja (Pretending to be friendly just to get a praise). The process of making acronym is from the syllable Sok representing the word ngesok ‘pretend’, the syllable ra- standing for ramah ‘friendly’, and the syllable ja-standing for ingin dipuja ‘want to be praised’. The acronyms Patikraja and Wangon are also regional names in Banyumas Regency. Patikraja stands for pacarku cantik, rajin, dan manja ‘my girlfriend is beautiful, diligent, and lovely’ whereas Wangon stands for WA (WhatsApp)-mu jarang on ‘your WhatsAPP is rarely active’. From the examples given above, the mention of the names of local places does not really refer to the true meaning but it refers to their joke which represents teenagers’ terminologies expressing their feelings. It can be concluded that teenagers can convey ideas or feelings by shortening words or writings, and are able to make different terminologies when they enhance the style of their conversation through acronym.

Based on this explanation, the focus of this research is to describe the acronym analysis in the regional terms in Banyumas and its surrounding areas. This phenomenon is analyzed through Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA), which includes acronym description, acronym interpretation in its relation with text and interaction, and explanation of the relationship between the interaction and the social context.

2. Literature Review

Mulyana (2005: 1) notes that discourse study is an understanding of human actions carried out with language (verbal) or non-language (non-verbal). In academic world, this study is known as discourse analysis. It is quoted from Paltridge’s statement (2006: 2) about discourse analysis in which it is called as a way of analyzing speech and writing. The discourse analysis can be revealed through critical and non-critical approaches. Jorgensen and Philips (2007: 114) state that critical discourse analysis provides theories and methods that can be used to conduct empirical studies of the relationship between discourses, social and cultural development in different social areas. The aim is to explain the discourse linguistic dimension of the social and cultural phenomena and the process of change in current modernity. On the other hand, Eriyanto (2001:7) state that critical discourse analysis sees the discourse of the use of language in speech and writing as a form of social practice. Discourse as a social practice causes a dialectical relationship between certain discursive events and the situations, institutions and social structures that shape it.

Fairclough also explains about critical discourse analysis approach, that discourse dimension is divided into three parts; they are the text dimension, discourse practice dimension, and sociocultural practice dimension. In Fairclough (2007: 128), it is explained that language is a social practice, which includes three discourse dimensions, such as description, interpretation, and explanation. Description is related to the formal nature of a text. Interpretation is a relationship between text, interaction that is seen as production process and interpretation source. Explanation is a relationship between the context of
social interaction and social determination in the production, also its social effects interpretation. There are three dimensions in the research:

1) Text Dimension

Text in the form of written or oral and oral text may only be spoken, like on the radio, or on television (spoken and visible). Fairclough (2003: 126-128) divides the formal aspects of the text into vocabulary, grammar, and text structure;

2) Discourse Practice Dimension

This dimension contains the result of the text description in its level of process that is going to be used to interpret the text. According to Fairclough, interpretation procedure is divided into two, they are the interpretation of the text, and its contextual situation. Interpretation of the text is divided into four levels, they are: (1) Surface of utterance, the process when the interpreter changes any signs in the text into words or sentences by utilizing phonology, grammar, and vocabulary; (2) Meaning of utterance, it is related to give meaning for expressions in text using semantics and pragmatics; (3) Local coherence, it is a level in which establishing meaning relationship among various equivalent expressions can create a coherent interpretation of a counterpart or its sequence by using pragmatics; (4) Text structure and ‘point’ which relate to the global text coherence. The interpreter can determine the type of discourse that is being analyzed and the structure of the discourse by using a schemata of different discourse patterns; whereas, the interpretation of contexts is divided into situational context and intertextual context.

Situational context can be traced by analyzing institutional social structure and society, which surrounds the text production. Intertextual context can be known through the interactional history of various discourses, so it can be seen which discourse is related to the discourse in the text and its assumption that determines what is accepted and what is rejected.

3) Sociocultural Practice Dimension

This dimension is a stage of discourse explanation analysis as a social practice. Through this stage, there is a description about the choice of the language and its relation with ideology and power. Fairclough in Eriyanto (2003: 322-326) states that the factors which influence the discourse practice are: (1) The situation, the condition when the discourse is being produced, (2) Institutions, the influences of organizational institutions in the discourse practice production, (3) Social or society point of view.

According to Ramlan (2009: 21), there are several types of word formation in language; they are affixation, reduplication, composition, abbreviation, metanalysis, back-derivation, and morphophonemic rules. Whereas Kridalaksana (2008: 1) explains that abbreviation is a morphological process by removing one or several lexeme combination, lexeme part or a combination of lexemes, then it forms a new arrangement as word. The abbreviation has several sub-studies in which one of them is an acronym.

Acronym is an abbreviation or combination of letters that is treated as word. Acronyms are structured with the aim of shortening word to make it more practical to use in communication. As Wijaya stated (2009: 108), acronym is a term of shortening compound form that consist of initial syllable letters, combination of syllables or combination of initial letters and syllables of a series of words which are needed as words. According to Chaer (2011: 165) an acronym is an abbreviation that is confessed and treated as word, for the example KTP in Indonesian language is the abbreviation of Kartu Tanda Penduduk ‘Identity Card’, and tilang is an abbreviation of bukti pelanggaran ‘traffic violation ticket’.
According to Chaer (2011: 165-166) the writing of an acronym can be divided into three types, they are:
1) Acronym in the form of a self-name that is a combination of initial letters in a series of words, written entirely with capital letters such as KTP standing for Kartu Tanda Penduduk ‘Identity Card’.
2) Acronym in the form of a self-name that is a combination of syllables or letters and syllables of a series of words, written with the initial capital letters, for example: Akabri standing for Akademi Angkatan Bersenjata Republik Indonesia ‘Indonesian Armed Forces Academy’.
3) Acronym which is not a selfname, that is a combination of capital letters, syllables, or a combination of letters and syllables of a series of words, all written in lowercase letters, for example: rudal standing for peluru kendali ‘missiles’.

3. Research Method
This research use qualitative method. The data in this research was collected from acronyms of regional names in Banyumas Regency, which were produced by Alan Asprilla. The data analysis was divided into two frames: microstructure analysis and macrostructure analysis. Microstructure analysis refers to analysis of the text or textual analysis. Below is the diagram of the textual analytical tools. Macrostructure is an analysis of sociocultural practice and discursive practice. According to Fairclough, discourse practice is the dynamic between sociocultural practice and text. The three levels of the framework consist of communicative events: sociocultural practice, discourse practice and text.

4. Results and Discussion
4.1 Lingual Unit (Micro Analysis)  
4.1.1. Personal Pronouns
1. The first person Aku ‘I’
   The pronoun aku ‘I’ appears several times in the recorded video containing acronyms of regional names in Banyumas area. The word aku ‘I’ refers to the speaker, Alan Sprila as the person who created this video. The pronoun aku ‘I’ also shows that the interlocutors are equal with the speaker and they are in an informal situation, since it happens in an informal situation, the speaker uses the pronoun saya ‘I for formal use’. Look at the following data:
   Arcawinangun : Pacar ngajak kawin aku terbangun ‘The boyfriend asks to get Married, I get startled’.
   Sumampir : Sumpah demi apa aku naksir ‘Swear, for the sake of what I have to tease her’

2. The second person Kamu ‘you’
   The pronoun kamu ‘you’ refers to the person you are talking to or the recipient of the language. This pronoun also shows that the recipient has an equal age with the speaker, and has a close relationship. The pronoun kamu ‘you’ is also used in an informal situation because the speaker will use anda ‘you (for formal use)’. Look how the pronoun kamu ‘you’ is used in the acronym:
   Kober: kok kamu baper? ‘Why do you take it in your mind?’
4.1.2. Diction

Diction is the choice of words in language, which are mastered by the speakers (Suyitno, 1985: 117. In the acronym of regional names in Banyumas regency, Alan Sprila used certain dictions, they are:

1. Broken

Speakers use the word broken to refer to a condition of being broken-hearted and disappointed towards a mate. The word broken is an English word. Teenagers often use this word because they think it is more prestigious and sociable. Therefore, speakers use the word to be more prestigious and easily accepted by netizens who are mostly teenagers. The word broken used in the acronym is as follows:

Pliken: Pelipur saat sedang broken ‘As a consoler when I am being upset’.

2. Baper

The word baper is the abbreviation of bawa perasaan ‘taking something in the mind’ which affects feelings. It is often used by the netizens who are primarily classified as teenagers. This word can also be called as social variation based on the age variable. Social variation is a language difference in the vocabulary used by people with different social variation based on the age gap (Kredler, 2004: 2). Teenagers tend to use this term more than adults do. In fact, adults may not even know what the word baper stands for. This word becomes viral and is used more often than the right form, which is sensitive or carried away by the atmosphere as used in the following acronym:

Kober: Kok kamu baper? ‘Why do you take it in your mind?’

4. Sajen

The word sajen in Javanese means offering, which is usually directed to the supernatural things with a purpose that one’s wishes can be realized. However, the word sajen is used by speaker, in this case Alan Sprila to refer to a gift given to a mate. The gift is given to make his wishes granted, or to make his mate happy to get what he wants. A gift termed as sajen is stereotype that a girl is always happy to accept any gift from her mate. This word is used in the following acronym:

Pamijen: Pacarku minta sajen ‘My girlfriend asks for a gift’.

4.2 Text Production (Meso Analysis)

The acronym of regional names in Banyumas regency and its surroundings was created by Alan Asprila Kapuangan, or commonly called Alan. Alan comes from Wangon, Banyumas Regency but he also has Maluku blood from his father. The name Kapuangan is a surname given by his father. However, Alan was born and raised in Wangon and he is a native speaker of Banyumas dialect.

Before creating acronyms for regional names in Banyumas Regency, Alan saw a video containing abbreviations and acronyms for mountain names. From that video, Alan was inspired to create acronyms from the names of some places in Banyumas. The first thing he did was creating an acronym for Grumbul (village area) in Wangon and its surrounding. After that, Alan then got much requests from some of his friends to create an acronym for regional names in Banyumas regency. Alan looked for information about regional names in Banyumas regency through internet. Alan chose the names of the area to be created as acronyms. The theme of the acronym he made was about confusion and love. This theme was chosen because it was appropriate for teenagers as the marketing target of those
acronyms. The initial goal was to entertain netizens especially teenagers. After the making of acronym processes were done, Alan invited his friends who were playing football in the field near his house to read the acronyms and recorded them in a video.

The video was uploaded on Instagram (IG) with the title Alanasprila. After that, he changed his IG name into Guyonbanyumasan in order to show Banyumas to the netizens. However, Alan finally changed his IG name again into Nikikula. He used this IG account until now. This IG account then becomes so popular and has many followers. Netizens who are also his followers even upload his video in WhatsApp status, and he becomes more famous.

From this, Alan began to be more popular.

After being widely known by netizens or society, Alan was invited several times to come to one of national television stations. At the event, Alan also invited some of his friends to take part in the program. Alan hoped that what he did could bring benefits for Banyumas Regency, because he promoted regional names in Banyumas regency to people outside Banyumas, made them know and interested to come to Banyumas regency.

4.3. Social Practice (Macro Analysis)

The relationship between text producers, in this case was Alan Sprila with the readers was an equal relationship. Alan put himself as a teenager who usually falls in love and falls apart. Therefore, the theme of the acronym he made was love and confusion. In the acronym, Alan also used diction that was often used by teenagers like broken, baper, and sajen. Those dictions were used to attract and to entertain netizens because the words were easy to remember. The use of pronouns aku and kamu also showed equal ages, close relationships and informal situation. Therefore, the relationship between Alan and the audience was equal, no one was inferior, and no one was superior. Although Alan is actually not a teenager anymore, Alan used common words for teenagers to embrace them and entertain them. The use of these words was an effort to show that Alan wanted to be considered as a teenager so that the audiences can accept his acronym.

5. Conclusion

Critical Discourse Analysis studies of acronyms associated with regional names in Banyumas regency have three levels of analysis, the first is micro analysis in a form of linguistic units including the pronouns aku and kamu, also certain dictions used by Alan as the creator of the acronyms. Second, meso analysis which is an analysis of the text producer, about the purpose of Alan Sprila creating the acronyms. The purpose is simply to entertain netizens especially teenagers, and introduce regional names in Banyumas to the society outside Banyumas. The theme is about love and confusion, adjusted to the teenager’s life nowadays. Third, macro analysis is a relationship between Alan as the text producer with netizens. The result is that they have an equal relationship, because Alan uses informal language, and the dictions used indicates that between text producers and audience have the same age, close, and no one is inferior and no one is superior.

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AUDITORY VS VISUAL STRATEGIES AMONG KURDISH LEARNERS OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Areen Ahmed Muhammed
Charmo University, College of Education and Languages, English Department, Chamchamal, Kurdistan Region, Iraq
E-mail: areen.muhammed@charmouniversity.org

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Abstract
When it comes to the case of Kurdish universities regarding teaching styles and methodologies plenty of obstacles and barriers anyone can face not only due to the low level of the majority of the students; but also other factors like religion, interest, grading system, and most importantly low number of references on the subjects area can be the core cause of the issue. One of those points which drove the researcher to write on the common issue was due to the reason that the researcher could not find enough and adequate sources on the subject area; hence, the researcher tried to enrich the referencing system of Kurdish studies of English language in one hand and provide and broaden the horizon of other nationalities regarding Kurdish EFL learners of English and in English taught programs. As a matter of fact, through decades many scholars have been conducting studies on different teaching methodologies and they provided up to four different styles of language teaching. Apart from that, many other linguists enlightened their studies on Far East Asian countries or European. Even if some Middle Eastern studies were taken into consideration; but still, none can be found in the case of Kurdish university students. The current paper was conducted on English department of Charmo University with a total number of 34 participants from three different stages.

Keywords: Kurdish students; Visual strategy; Auditory strategy; Gender

1. Introduction
Throughout history, many scholars tried to find the best strategies for different learners to absorb a vast amount of information in learning or using a second language. Fortunately, the experts could find some strategies and divided them into four types; visual, auditory, kinesthetic, and tactile learning. Normally, these strategies are used for diverse learners to enhance their learning ability. However, luckily, this paper covers the detail of both visual and auditory learning only since it is very common among Kurdish University learners. The aims of this paper can be shortened into two vital points. First, it is to shed some lights on both types of learners (visual and auditory) and their characteristics. Secondly, it is to show the use of an appropriate style for each kind of learners and their suitability on the learners.

2. Literature Review
2.1 Auditory and Visual Learning Concept

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The term “visual” learning has been defined by many scholars; although, most of their definitions are quite similar to some extent. Recently, Cook (1994, 2004), Felder (2010), and Witterveen (2009) are on the belief that visual learning is one of those strategies in the learning process, which involves explaining any language through showing pictures, diagrams, maps...etc. Naturally, the information that is presented visually helps the students to remember things easily. Besides, the activities performed in the classroom using the visual sense of the students will assist the teacher to achieve better results. Arguably, Dwyer believes that visual learning improves and progresses the learners’ understanding and the ability for an image in terms of reading, writing, and thinking; as he quoted “the capacity to understand reading, writing, images, and to think and to learn in terms of image”. (Dwyer, 2004:3)

Another type of learning strategies is known as auditory learning. The term is defined by Cook (1994, 2005), Hayes (2012), and Lenka (2011) as the process in which triggers the sense of hearing near the learners inside the classroom. The process includes listening, discussion, verbal communication, and activities, such as songs and music with rhyme and rhythm, and CD; whilst, the students are engaged with a task inside the class. Generally, to activate the hearing sense of learners each of tone, pitch, and loudness are very essential; since hearing sounds are the most sensitive and effective method to EFL learners. Apart from the above points, dictation could be a good example for the above concept to be accounted for. Besides, through listening skill, the student will improve faster besides language development. Reluctantly, the learner in such above activities will use each of two skills (reading and listening) in his/her learning process separately. Consequently, the results will be more influential to the students. It is in vital importance to co-use each notion in teaching any skills of any language; as LLC says that “visual and auditory is the interaction of learning styles with reading methods (silent and auditory)” (LLC, 2009: 49).

2.2 Scholars’ View Points

Needless to say, scholars have tried a lot to help teachers in presenting a vast amount of information in the classes. Meanwhile, the information should be absorbed by the learners; thus, they have put many different learning strategies. In addition to this, Chiya believes that each learner has a specific style to understand and gather information. Hence, teachers should be careful in analyzing students’ learning styles. As it was known earlier that diverse learners require diverse learning strategies. Likewise, these different kinds of models will determine learner’s preferred learning style; as Chiya quoted “keen teachers realize students in having different learning preferences” (Chiya, 2003: 1).

In Willamette University, in the USA, an experiment was carried out on Japanese and American learners to find the best method to teach English. The data for learners revealed that visual and auditory learning styles are on the top of the list to learn the English language. They have a huge role in increasing students’ awareness. Importantly, both (visual and auditory) encourage learners to be active and participate a lot in classes (Heuser, 2007).

Naturally, in most college classes, the majorities of students listen to lectures and read the information which is written by a marker on the board, read materials, textbooks, and handouts that implies for auditory learners. Unfortunately, most learners are visual learners. This means that students cannot achieve information as much as they wish to (Chiya, 2003). According to some researchers, the information, which is presented visually in the class, is very easy for the learners to memorize and remember. Moreover, good learners are those who can acquire the information which is presented either visually or through auditory. However, using auditory styles are best for those students who are learning through hearing,
because they learn better when they listen and discuss the knowledge in the class among each other’s and colleagues. Moreover, the main aim of language teaching for students is to speak out and write in English as a Foreign Language (EFL). Therefore, it is very significant that the style of learning should be chosen wisely; because if learners do not like that specific strategy they cannot enjoy learning process then it would be just a waste of time. (Eslami, 2007, and Ahmad et al., 2009)

Namely, it has been mentioned earlier that different learners require different learning strategies. As in Japan, some learners were helped to master English. Subsequently, some of them learned English through presenting slides visually which was based on their personal experience and background. Nevertheless, the others learned via listening to the lyrics of popular singers. Sadly to say, many learners around the world do not study English effectively, since lecturers do not use various styles or the style which suit with specific students; on another hand, most of them do not have access to a wide verity of activities. (Ahmad et al., 2009)

In another case which shows that if the style does not match the student’s interest then the learners and the teachers will face difficulty. As Chiya shows, in the research which was conducted in China, the students preferred visual learning strategies to learn on other styles, but the teachers were interested in auditory strategies to teach. The auditory teachers were asked to teach visual learners by using their auditory style with visual learners. Consequently, the learning process was not very successful, especially for the students. Thus, the teacher should be very sensitive toward students’ learning style, because it is the most crucial when it comes to learning a new language. Furthermore, they should seek for the activities, which will be useful and keep balance in the learning process. (Chiya, 2003)

Another paper was written on Japanese and Asian learners to see whether the culture will determine the types of learners or not. The participants from America (the US) participated in a class discussion using the auditory style. The outcome was that Asian learners were auditory learners because they could easily express themselves and talk about topics, which they have heard. In contrast, Japanese learners were visual, since they could easily talk about topics that they have seen. (Han, 2007)

Another estimation, which was done in Iran/Shiraz University, to know which style is more preferable among learners. The students were introduced to different learning methods, such as reading, listening, taking notes, and witting down ideas on board. Although all of them are important in the field of teaching, it turned out that reading and taking notes frequently will enhance the capacity of the students. However, the majority of them were agreed on the visual learning style. More importantly, the result interpreted that learners, who are involved in classroom interactive and participant, learn more than they just sit and see what is going on in the class (Riazi, 2007).

In short, Visual and auditory learning styles have an important role in learning English for academic purposes. It is the key concept that the style should correspond with learners’ preference. Most of the projects showed that auditory learning has more significance than visual. However, visual and auditory are designed correctly to develop students in studying, reading, and writing skills. (Ahmad et al., 2009)

2.3 Gender and Style in Selecting Strategies

Is it necessary to change the style according to different genders? The scholars and methodologists have different opinions regarding the answer to this question. Each of them has answered the question based on the results of their experiments (Mahmud, 2014).
Commonly, male and female have different ways of communication (Yule, 2010). Due to this reason, they have different ways to learn the English language. Therefore, teachers should treat both genders carefully and equally in classes. Abdul Said indicates that in one of his investigation that female learner uses her auditory senses to learn because she learns through listening to the material(s). On the contrary, male learners receive knowledge by taking notes and reading (Abdul Said, 2014). A research was carried out in Anglo American university, in America, to show whether male or female learners need various styles or not. The documents indicated that female learners need various styles than males. As Abdul Said quoted “female students were significantly more likely to prefer a multimodal learning style and, conversely, male students were significantly more likely to prefer an immoral learning style” (Abdul said, 2014: 160).

Moreover, some writers examined some students from Oxford University to test the ability of both genders in learning. The outcome showed that female learners anticipate social and interactional strategies more frequently. This led to state that girls have more capacity to learn English than the boy in learning English because girls have the verbal ability, which means they can speak and express knowledge easier (Booth and Bitan, 2008). However, some authors investigated on Asian and American learners and claimed that they could not find any effects of gender on learning style. In addition to this, several types of research were implemented in Arab countries. They were unable to find a significant difference between female and male in learning English. (Abdul Said, 2014)

Moreover, in the United States / Northwestern University a questionnaire proved that females and males use different parts of the brain while learning a language. Therefore, the language process works harder for girls than boys, because girls always feel shy and they use a lot of methods that confuse them. According to another opinion, it is easy for male learners to obtain the information from both teaching styles (auditory and visual), because they are better in visualizing and hearing information which is provided in the class by the tutors (Booth and Bitan, 2008). It is chief importance for the instructors to stimulate students’ achievement by using different and mixed methods while offering the information because they learn differently according to different genders as well. Certainly, learning style plays a vital role in students’ accomplishment, especially for girls that they are more sensitive than boys and they feel shy with the opposite gender; well, females always feel comfortable with female genders. In brief, boys and girls communicate differently, since both own different characteristics; for instance: girls are more polite than boys and they have more shyness than boys. Therefore, they both need different ways of teaching. Additionally, most of the researchers are on the belief that has been explained in details with clues above.

3. Methodology

3.1 Research Method

Goddard and Melville (2004) recognize the research method as a way of answering unanswered questions for the topic that was selected by the researchers. The research method is a path for researchers to show the methods which they have relied on during the process of composing. Accordingly, the investigators choose the method of data collection to explain the problems and the results.

3.2 Research Questions

The current paper aims to answer the following research questions:

1. What is the role of teacher and methodologies in solving learning problems?
2. What is the role of each strategy in drilling knowledge?
3. How different genders’ opinions on choosing different styles may change?
4. What could be students’ recommendations and solutions in choosing a specific strategy?

3.3 Participants and Methods

In this research, thirty participants participated in the questionnaire and four participants in the interview. The researcher chose them from different stages and genders to achieve variable opinions. Ten participants were chosen from each of the second, third, and fourth-year students. Then, two of the participants were interviewed in the second stage, and two others were interviewed in the third stage. They were students of English Department / Chamo University. Furthermore, seventeen males and seventeen females have participated.

In this paper, the researcher used two kinds of methods, which are questionnaire and interview to achieve different opinions about using different strategies on different students.

4. Presentation, Analysis, and Discussion

4.1 Presentation and Analysis of the Data

4.1.1 Questionnaire Results and Analysis

This part contains the presentation of the collected information, which is about using auditory and visual strategies in EFL classes. Additionally, this section presents the results of the questionnaire and background of the questions. It clarifies the reasons behind these troubles. Likewise, it will demonstrate those reasons, which may decrease the cause of these problems. Gender: In this research paper, the researcher has received a different outlook from different genders as clarified in section three. Half of the participants were males and the other half were females (equal division).

![Gender](image1)

Figure 1. Gender

Statement One: The first statement is about “Students, who are learning better by reading what the teacher writes on the board”. It can be used for auditory and visual learners. There have been some different views on this question; as (16.6%) of the participants have chosen strongly agree. Additionally, half of the participants (50%) have chosen agree and (20%) of the participants have selected neutral. Furthermore, (13%) of them chose to disagree, but none of the students (0%) tick strongly disagree.

![Statement One](image2)

Figure 2. Statement On
Statement Two: The second statement is about “Students who remember things that they have heard in the classes better than the references they have read”. It implies that the participants have different ideas about this question; as the matter of fact, (26.6%) of the participants have chosen strongly agree, (30%) of the participants chose agree and neutral consequently, (10%) of the students have chosen disagree, and (3.3%) of them took the strongly disagree option.

Statement Three: For the case of statement three as it shows that “Students learn more in class when they participate in the related activities”. There are some different views concerning this statement in which; (43.3%) of the participants have chosen strongly agree option, (36.6%) of them have chosen the agree option, (13.3%) have selected the neutral option, (6.6%) of the participants have chosen disagree option; whilst, none of them (0%) ticked the strongly disagree.

![Figure 3. Statement Three](image)

Statement Four: Regarding statement four, it is exposed that “Learners can learn more by reading textbook rather than by listening to someone”. They showed different ideas about this statement; as (16.6%) of the participants have chosen strongly agree and agree consequently, (20%) of the participants chose the neutral choice, (40%) of the participants ticked the disagree option, and (6.6%) have selected the strongly disagree choice.

Statement Five: For statement five which is about “Students who find that it is useful to read out loud when reading the textbook” different results have been collected among the participants. (23.3%) of them have chosen the strongly agree. (40%) chose the strongly agree option. Also, (33.3%) of the participants selected neutral, (3.3%) have chosen disagree, and none of them (0%) ticked strongly disagree.

![Figure 4. Statement Five](image)

Statement Six: Statement six is about “Participants who participate in group work, pair work, or ask questions in class they learn better” because it has high-quality and utility in the
process of learning any language. Additionally, it should contain both of the skills for the different students. Almost half (46.6%) of the participants have taken strongly agree option, (30%) have chosen agree option, (16.6%) of them have selected the neutral. By contrast, only (6.6%) of the participants chose to disagree, and none of them (0%) chose the strongly disagree.

Statement Seven: For statement seven, this includes those “Students who learn better in class, while they listen to others when they ask or speak”. Almost one-six (16.6%) of them have chosen strongly agree, while one fourth (36.6%) chose to agree and neutral option, but a small number (6.6%) have chosen the option to disagree, and only (3.3%) of them ticked the strongly disagree choice.

Statement Eight: Statement eight is about those “Students who can understand better in class when they participate in role-playing”. The researcher acquired some opinions; more than one-quarter (30%) of the participants have chosen strongly agree, half of the students which covers (50%) of the participants ticked agree, (10%) of them have chosen neutral, (6.6%) of the participants chose disagree, and almost none (3.3%) of them ticked strongly disagree.

Statement Nine: As for statement nine, which is about “Students who would prefer to listen to the lecture rather than reading a course book”, there are some different agreements. Adequately (17%) of the participants chose strongly agree, almost half (40%) of the participants have chosen the agree option, (30%) of them chose neutral, (10%) of them ticked disagree, and only (3%) of the participants selected strongly disagree.

Statement Ten: As for statement ten which is about “Students, when they read instructions, they remember them better”. It focuses on visual skill; none of the participants
(0%) chose the strongly agree option, almost half of them (53.3%) have chosen the agree choice, (33.3%) of them have chosen neutral, (13.3%) of them chose to disagree, and none of the participants (0%) selected strongly disagree.

Statement Eleven: This statement explains that “Students prefer to learn by doing exercises and drills in the class”. A quarter of the participants (26.6%) chose the option (strongly agree), almost half (46.6%) of them have chosen the agree option, (13.3%) of the participants chose neutral, (10%) of the participants have chosen disagree, and almost none (3.3%) selected strongly disagree.

Statement Twelve: As for statement twelve, which is about “Students who have preferred the visual information, rather than the information they hear”. There would be seen some different views. (40%) of the participants chose the option strongly agree, a quarter of them (23.3%) have chosen agree, (36.6%) of the participants chose the option neutral, and none (0%) chose to disagree and strongly disagree.

Statement Thirteen: Statement thirteen proposes that “Students can get benefit more from computer lab classes than usual classes”. The data shows that (23.3%) of the participants have chosen strongly agree choice, a quarter of them (26.6%) chose agree option, (30%) of the participants chose neutral, (13.3%) of them have chosen disagree choice, and lastly (6.6%) of the participants selected strongly disagree option.

Statement Fourteen: In statement fourteen which is about “Students who can learn better in the class when the teacher gives a lecture”; (13.3%) of the participants have chosen the option strongly agree, almost half (40%) of them chose to agree choice, (33.3%) chose the option neutral, (10%) of the participants have chosen the disagree option, and (3.3%) of them selected strongly disagree choice.
Statement Fifteen: For statement fifteen which is about “Students’ learning a new skill, I would rather watch someone demonstrate the skill than listening”. Almost one-fifth (16.6%) of the participants have chosen strongly agree, (40%) chose agree on option, (23.3%) of them have chosen neutral, (16.6%) have chosen the option to disagree, and almost none (3.3%) of them ticked strongly disagree choice.

- Strongly agree: 16.60%
- Agree: 40%
- Neutral: 23.30%
- Disagree: 16.60%
- Strongly disagree: 3.30%

Figure 9. Statement Fifteen

4.1.2 Interview Results and Analysis

Four Kurdish university students participated in this part. Throughout the interview, the participants felt free about giving their views on the subject. Furthermore, the students were asked whether they are aware of the advantages and importance of auditory and visual skills. Moreover, they were also selected according to different genders and it was based on participants’ gender in choosing their learning styles for the subjects. Another question was about the effect of culture on each auditory and visual skill. Besides, the next question was about their understanding of the subject through the use of different styles. Finally, the last one was about suggestions of the participants for the students in choosing appropriate style dependently.

The students were asked several questions. Firstly, three of the participants have the same opinions about the advantages and importance of auditory and visual skills in learning EFL. According to their opinions, the students and teachers have to be aware of each strategy and technique separately, because each skill has its influence in drilling knowledge. Likewise, visual skill tries to realize information while the learners can comprehend the information well, and the learner can speak with and understand native speakers. By contrast, the last student had a different point of view; s/he did not know the exact importance of each technique that is why s/he may not perform them in the process of learning precisely.

In another question, the participants were asked whether the different gender has a diverse style or not. The two interviewers who are a male and a female, they disagreed with it because they thought that the visual skill is the best style for both genders; meanwhile, when the information is presented visually the students can receive and gather information more from those ideas that are seen. However, both of the interviewees were different in genders. They did not confirm this because of both of the styles which are important for the two different gender characteristics in EFL learning via listening and watching the program(s), reading, and lecturing.

Concerning another question, half of the interviewees believed that visual learning is important when the teacher presents some videos and slides before the lecture for visual learners. On the other hand, the auditory style is better if the teacher has a loud voice and
prepares some recordings and songs because hearing sounds are very sensitive and it is effective for auditory learners to learn a language in the process of learning. Including the last question, the students were asked to give recommendations to other students in the English department and those who want to learn English as one of the students agreed with having students’ suggestions. S/He suggested that “everyone has his/her style for teaching which is practised by the teacher while the majority of learners have to select visual skill as a favourite one, to understand easily because it gives more motivation and participation in the class”. Another female interviewee had a different recommendation, she suggested that “everyone should choose the auditory style because hearing sounds are more influential and prominent for learning any language”; moreover, according to this participant, it helps them to speak with native speakers and understand them well. Furthermore, the last two interviewees who had the same recommendations, they agreed with the importance of both skills for all learners; meanwhile, “everyone has to know about all the pedagogies of learning because each skill has a vital role in different sections of the learning process”. The learner can prefer a specific skill which is more suitable and advantageous with his/her learning style because each person can be good in one skill or style more than others.

4.2 Discussion of the Research Questions and the Main Findings

4.2.1 The Role of Teacher and Methodologies in Solving Learning Problems

Regarding those findings that the researcher had received, the teacher should be careful (aware) about all strategies which are being used on learners; besides, for each learner, the teacher should use a specific style to teach, considering how s/he can understand well. Meanwhile, the teacher has to have his/her role in using different styles for different students to drill knowledge. According to one of the interviewees “the teacher has to prepare slides, videos, and lectures before the lecture”. In contrast, (50.3%) of the participants agreed with giving texts and slides by teachers to decrease the problem, and only (13.3%) disagreed with it. Furthermore, the teacher should practice different tests and activities to enhance knowledge in class considering learners, the learner also can learn better when a teacher uses computer lab class than usual common class, in which (49.9%) agreed with it but only (9.9%) disagreed. Besides, the teachers do exercise in the class which has the most beneficial result on learners that (73.2%) of the participants agreed with it and (13.3%) disagreed. It tries to solve the problems that the learner has with using that style which is used by the teacher; as Riazi (2007), and Chiya (2003) supported the notion of a teacher acts in this way almost all the information can be obtained by learners.

4.2.2 The Role of Each Strategy in Drilling the Knowledge

Considering another estimation which is achieved by the researcher, every skill has its influence; temporarily, presentation of visual and auditory skills have vital roles in the improvement of learning any language, because each of them has a major position; likewise, visual skill helps the learner to be good in reading and spelling...etc. Additionally, (63.3%) of the participants agreed with the idea of visual understanding and only (36.6%) disagreed. Additionally, the auditory skill may improve listening and speaking of the learner as (56.2%) of them confirmed it and only a small number as (9.9%) of them disagreed. However, every kind of pedagogies must be included equally in the class because giving many varieties of activities to the class has their importance to EFL learners, to be more active, in which it is found by Heuser (2007). Furthermore, LLC (2009) agreed with it while he selected reading skill (readout
loud) because it contains both skills. In contrast, most of the participants agreed with using just visual skill for all learners as Riazi (2007) mentioned the idea of selecting visual student(s).

4.2.3 Different Genders’ Opinions on Choosing Different Style

In this research, the researcher talked out that different genders have diverse styles to learn any language; as for the moment, the males have different styles compared to the females, which was found and can be supported by the study of Eslami (2007), and Ahmad (2009). Moreover, each learner especially who is different in gender selects a single style to achieve more useful criteria in the process of learning. Moreover, females imply deferent styles more than males which make them face confusion as it was found by Abdul Said (2014). In contrast, it is against the ideas of the participants since most of them selected visual skill, which is more important than others, as Yule (2010) does not confirm it and he thinks that both of them are beneficial to learn English via listening songs, reading, watching...etc.

In another approach, everyone should suggest a style in the language learning process. In which there are different opinions; considering the two interviewees, the learners should know about all skills or styles, also they have to choose a specific style which they think is suitable for them, while the majority of the participants agree with it and the idea can be confirmed by the work of Chiya (2003). In another participant’s point of view who believed that every learner should choose the auditory style because it is the most interesting technique. On the other hand, most of the participants agreed with visual skill. In contrast, Booth and Bitan (2008) disagree with it because each skill should be practised in the process of learning languages.

5. Conclusion

This research deals with the investigation into the use of auditory and visual strategies by university EFL learners in Kurdistan; especially for undergraduate students. After finalizing the project, the researcher reaches these influential points:

1. According to the most scholars who are mentioned in this paper and the participants who are participated in this research, visual and auditory learning are the most important strategies in the process of learning, but visual one is more beneficial than auditory.

2. Teachers should practice different styles for diverse students because each learner has his/her style to learn.

3. The female learners use too many different styles which have a negative influence on them because they will have confusions.

4. Teachers who apply multiple strategies are considered as good teachers because the students receive benefit from those activities and strategies which are used by the teachers.

5. The researcher recommends future scholars to conduct research on the effects of culture on learning style(s) which is out of space in this paper. Another suggestion, as it is intended to give to the next researchers is that they should care about the psychological and social barriers and conflicts of the learner.

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LECTURERS’ POLITENESS STRATEGIES AND STUDENTS’ COMPLIANCE IN ENGLISH FOR FOREIGN LANGUAGE (EFL) CLASS

Fitriyah, Nurmala Dewi, Octa Pratama Putra, Meiva Eka Sri Sulistyawati
Universitas Bina Sarana Informatika (UBSI), Jakarta, Indonesia
E-mail: fimasy74@gmail.com

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Abstract
The aim of this study is to find out the politeness strategies used by the teachers and students, and how the politeness affects to the student’s compliance. The focus is on directive and expressive speech acts in English for Foreign Language (EFL) Class. The subjects of this study were three lecturers and the students of three English classes. In data collecting procedure, the researcher used observation techniques. The observation was used to record the audio and video of teaching and learning process from the beginning until the end of the class. The audio-record of teaching and learning process will be transcribed into convention transcript, and then the transcript will be selected and classified into ten maxims in doing politeness strategies. The analytical part adopts the viewpoints of Leech’s (2014) “The Components Maxims of the General Strategy of Politeness”. In the data analysis, it is found that 1) the teachers used ten maxims in their communication to the students. They are tact maxim, generosity maxim, approbation maxim agreement maxim, Obligation (of S to O) maxim, sympathy maxim, modest maxim, Obligation (of O to S) maxim, Opinion reticence maxim, and feeling reticence maxim. 2) The lecturers dominantly used tact maxim in their directive speech acts to the students. The last part of this paper aims at summarizing the implications that this paper, its theoretical summary, and its research, have for teaching English as a Foreign Language (EFL) class.

Keywords: politeness strategies, politeness maxims, English for Foreign Language (EFL), student’s compliance, teaching and learning process

1. Introduction
To learn a language communicatively, one must know the rules governing the language beyond its structural properties. The rules help the learner to take into consideration the person whom he is talking with, paying attention to the situation, acting in the way required, and choosing the best way of conveying the message, so as not to ruin the self-image of others. (Fitriyah, Emzir, & Ridwan, 2019).

Politeness becomes one of important issues in Indonesian education recently. Most students tend to speak impolitely, and they prefer to use slang or informal language at school. Therefore, a teacher has a responsibility to teach their students how to speak politely and admonish them if they speak impolitely at school especially during classroom interaction. Moreover, a teacher also needs to speak politely in front of the students in order to influence them to speak politely too. In addition, the implementation of politeness
strategy is relevant with curriculum 2013 which emphasize on good character because politeness strategy deals with someone’s ability to show his good character. Therefore, the teacher is obliged to implement it in the language learning activities along with language usage.

One of the purposes of learning English as a foreign language (EFL) is to be able to communicate. Students must have communicative competence that does not only consist of linguistic competencies, but also socio-cultural competencies, interactions, formulas and strategies (Celce-murcia, 2007). Kasper in Senowarsito (2013) says that sociocultural, interactional, and strategic competencies refer to the speaker’s pragmatic knowledge. Pragmatic perspectives can be specifically defined as knowledge of communicative actions and how to apply them, and the ability to use language appropriately in context. Classroom is a sociolinguistic environment and discourse community where we speak using various language functions to build a communication system, and the interaction of teachers and students is believed to contribute to the development of student language (Consolo, 2006).

Classroom is also a place of the interaction process which happens between a teacher and students. It must be effective and polite. If in the classroom interaction runs well, the knowledge that will be delivered by the teacher will be received by students well. Teacher professional role endows them with right to evaluate students’ behaviors, constrain their freedom of actions, control resources and give critical feedback, which unavoidably poses threat to students’ positive and negative face (Jiang, 2010). In addition, teacher is as the model in the class and the students will imitate the way the teacher teaches them. Therefore, in creating good interaction in the classroom, teachers and students should make the good interaction.

According to Rod Ellis (1997), teachers’ language can be termed as teachers’ talk, teachers’ speech, or teachers’ utterance, which is all about the language use in class. English classrooms are places where different cultures interact. Students learn about new cultures. When students enter a language class, they bring along their own cultural background and experience, which may be different from their teacher and classmates. Often students do not realize the importance of culture in language learning. A teacher (educator) not only has the responsibility to introduce students to foreign cultures and languages, but also has an obligation to realize the cultural impact on students' daily lives.

In EFL classroom, English is not only the target language for students to learn, but also a medium for teachers to teach English. EFL teachers are the models for the students to imitate while their language is the most important source for students to gain the knowledge of the language. Krashen in Console (Consolo, 2006) concludes that the purpose of teaching language in a certain sense is to provide an example of the optimal language for the learner to gain the best profit and input for the language learning process. Teachers’ language is a language applied in a special language situation, while politeness is regarded as a most favorable strategy in interpersonal relationship.

Language politeness is often conveyed to language learners implicitly, basically as things they should or should not say and do when interacting in English. Generally, presents politeness as done and should not be done in accordance with the structure of the language being taught. Appropriate polite interaction is reflected prominently in speech acts so that the teacher can help students understand polite communication in accordance with the culture of the target language. If the structure of the communicative language is related to greetings, the teacher can introduce the social context and ask students to explore various forms of greeting in the context of the target language and their own culture. By exploring
greetings and communicative variables that are socially appropriate in their own cultural context, the teacher can then help students understand appropriate communication in the target language. For example, Hey, where are going? maybe linguistically correct, but not proper polite speech in English. Understanding the discourse of manners and how thorough politeness affects all aspects of daily social interaction among students themselves can lead to a deeper understanding and awareness of politeness in the target language.

Normally in EFL classrooms, teachers are unavoidable to correct something that a student has said, done, or written. When this correction involves a negative evaluation of a student’s trying, a face-threatening act happens. When the student is asked for further explanations, teachers’ instructions might be a threat to him/ her because teachers are threatening the student’s freedom of action, thus further threaten his/her negative face. Teachers offering for help might also regarded as an FTA because it threatens students’ negative face when teachers suggest that students may owe a debt to teachers and threaten students’ positive face when teachers imply that students need help (Peng, Xie, & Cai, 2014).

Although many language politeness studies have been carried out, this small study tries to explore the language politeness in the classroom. Other research that investigates politeness in an academic context, including Sabee and Wilson (2005). They research the main goals, attribution, and facework of students in conversations with their teachers about disappointing values, as well as various FTAs and politeness strategies that they do (Sabee & Wilson, 2005).

In this paper, we focused on the phenomenon of teacher’s speech acts to students’ compliance in the context of politeness. It is believed that teacher’s politeness has an indirect effect on student compliance intention to enhance desired outcomes in the classroom. As it is found in some researches that speaker’s politeness relates to the hearer’s compliance. According to Zhang (2009), teachers’ high politeness was found to be more likely to elicit positive emotions such as happiness and lead to compliance and vice versa to the low politeness that evoked negative emotions and caused resistance.

However, based on researcher’s observation of lecturers’ utterances and students’ compliances in EFL at Islamic college Jakarta, it is not as expected. Some of lecturers use impolite utterances to their students and the impolite utterances affect to students’ compliances. Being polite in classroom interaction is very important to create effective teaching learning process. It can be shown by using some principles of politeness. In this research, the effects of lecturers’ politeness on students’ compliance were the focus of the study. Politeness has been proved as one thing that affect to students’ compliance to college students.

In conducting this research, we are interested to analyze the use of politeness strategies used by the lecturer and the students in the teaching process in EFL Class. Therefore, we have two research questions.

The research questions are formulated as:

1) What are politeness strategies used by the lecturers to the students in EFL Class at an Islamic college?

2) What are the most frequent politeness strategies used by the lecturers to the students in EFL Class at an Islamic College?

In this study, we used Leech’s theory (2014) “The Components Maxims of the General Strategy of Politeness”, which introduces ten maxims. They are tact maxim, generosity maxim, approbation maxim agreement maxim, Obligation (of S to O) maxim, sympathy maxim, modest maxim, Obligation (of O to S) maxim, Opinion reticence maxim, and feeling
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reticence maxim. To make the study more specific, we focused just on directives and expressive speech acts.

2. Literature Review

Politeness behaviour is a polished behaviour relying on social conventions, which are socially institutionalized and evaluated. Its main motivations are keeping a cooperative social interaction and avoiding unnecessary conflicts. In other words, politeness works to maintain social status quo and shun devaluation by others. The behaviour or the speech acts perceived as ‘polite’ may vary from speaker to speaker, and from community to community, depending on the social contexts involved in the situation. Politeness is inherent to the communicative acts but is connected to an interactional relationship which is transmediated by a social standard determined by cultural norms. Accordingly, it is important for the members of the society to acknowledge social consensus among the constituent members of the society and to be perceived to be appropriate by the members of the society (Watts, 2003).

Politeness has several characteristics (Song, 2012). First, according to Goffman, a person is obliged to protect both his own ‘face’ and the ‘faces’ of others in social interactions. Goffman defines the concept of face as the positive social value a person claims for himself by the line others assume, he has taken during a particular contact. According to Goffman, ‘Face is an image of self-delineated in terms of approved social attribute … The person’s face clearly is something not lodged in or on his body but rather something that is diffusedly located in the flow of events in the encounter and becomes manifest only when these events are read and interpreted for the appraisals expressed in them’ (Goffman, 1967: 577).

Based on Goffman’s notion of social self, Brown and Levinson (1987: 61) define face as ‘the public self-image that every member wants to claim for himself/herself’. Both Goffman’s and Brown and Levinson’s views argue that face is something to be established, maintained, improved, misplaced, and rebuilt in social interactions. In other words, face is a kind of illustration or reputation that people want for themselves in terms of others’ view of them, which is a typical definition of face in American or European culture (Song, 2012).

On the other hand, the concept of face in East Asia is somewhat different from that in American and European cultures because it contains an element that is group-identity oriented (Song, 2012). For instance, in her study of Thai face idioms, Ukosakul in Lakoff and Ide (2005: 119) defines face as a term which includes ‘personality, emotions, honour, self-esteem, prestige, reputation and pride’. Wakimae’s definition of face in Japan is similar: ‘one’s sense of self and relation to others’ (recited from Ide, 2005). Regardless of nation or culture, however, the concept of face as a social self in the given culture has provided the basis for most politeness theories.

Previous studies on politeness can be categorized into three groups: the conversational-maxim perspective, the face-saving view, and the social norm theory. The first two groups of politeness theories consider politeness phenomena as universal rationality – universal rules and standards – within linguistic pragmatics, which started from a Grecian speech-act theoretic perspective. According to these perspectives, the speaker’s intention receives first priority, which is more or less the same regardless of culture (Song, 2012). The second generation of theoretical studies concerning politeness adopted the face-saving perspective, which was initially proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987). The face-saving view has had a significant impact on linguistics literature by theorizing and analysing
politeness phenomena. According to this view, all members of the society try to save face to maintain their self-esteem, which is the main incentive to employ polite speech acts in communication. The most recent approach concerning politeness is the social norm perspective (Eelen, 2001, Watts, 2003, Lakoff & Ide, 2005). This approach accepts the general argument of the face-saving view, but adds the effects of various socio-cultural factors, such as cultural norms, social approval and consensus on speech acts with respect to politeness in studying linguistic politeness. Thus, this school of thought is more sensitive to cultural differences and its effects of politeness acts.

Leech’s Politeness Theory

Leech (2014) has proposed a way of explaining how politeness operates in communication to other, which is called Politeness Principles. Politeness principles are a series of maxim used in analyzing politeness. They are: tact maxim, generosity maxim, approbation maxim, modesty maxim, obligation S to O maxim, obligation O to S, agreement maxim, opinion-reticence maxim, and sympathy maxim, and feeling-reticence maxim.

(1) Generosity Maxim (Give a high value to O’s wants)

The intent of this maxim of generosity is making the advantages of you as small as possible; make oneself loss as big as possible. In maxims charity or generosity maxim, the participants are expected substitutions being respectful of others. Respect for others will happen if people can reduce profits for himself and maximize profits for others. For example, offers, invitations, and promises are (in default terms) “generous” and, in English, can be direct or even impositioning. In example (1) – (3), insistent directive features are followed:

(1) Let me wash your clothes too. I just have the same thing to be washed, really
(2) No, Mom. I will wash them later today.
(3) No, you don’t! I’ll pay for this. I insist.

The Generosity Maxim can also be seen at work in positive, compliant replies to requests, which can show intensified equivalents of yes, as in Yes, of course; Certainly; Sure; etc. But refusals of requests are “ungenerous” and often must be very indirect or even unspoken.

(2) Tact Maxim (Give a low value to S’s wants)

Tact maxim is meant that the speaker tries to be tactful in communication by minimizing the expression of beliefs which imply cost to other and maximizing the expressions of beliefs which imply benefit to others. For example, requests are often indirect, tentative, giving an opportunity to refuse, and softening, or mitigating, S’s imposition on H. This is such a familiar aspect of politeness that it scarcely needs exemplification here. But here is one rather extreme example of a polite request and a polite reply (illustrating the Generosity Maxim):

(4) A: Could I help myself to a tiny sip of sherry?
B: Of course you can! Have as much as you like.
(5) Could I interrupt you for a second to help me?
(6) Please take your dinner, I have prepared for you.

In this tact maxim, the speakers try to minimize cost to others and maximize benefit to others.
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(3) **Approbation Maxim** (Give a high value to O’s qualities)

This approbation maxim is expressed by expressive sentence by minimizing the expression of beliefs which express dispraise of other; maximize the expression of beliefs which express approval of other. It is preferred to praise others and if this is impossible, to side step the issue, to give some sort of minimal response (possibly using euphemisms), or to remain silent. For example, we like to pay (and be paid) compliments, if it seems appropriate to do so. (Insincere or excessive compliments count as flattery and receive a more mixed reception; here the CP clashes with the PP.) Run-of-the-mill compliments like *Your garden looks so lovely* and *What a pretty dress!* are familiar occurrences. In some activity types complimentary language is a virtual necessity, as when guests praise a host(ess)’s meal, or an academic introduces the lecture of a visiting senior professor:

(7) They are so delicious! Your cuisine is as good as that of a chef at any big restaurant!’

(8) It’s a great honour for us to have invited Professor X who has made great contribution to the field to give us a lecture.’

(4) **Modesty Maxim** (Give a low value to S’s qualities)

Self-deprecation (if sincere, even if exaggerated) is often felt to be polite. In the maxim of simplicity or modesty maxim, participants are expected humble by reducing the praise to him. In the Indonesian language community, simplicity and humility are widely used as parameter assessment of one’s modesty. If the maxim of generosity or appreciation centered on others, modesty maxim is self-centered.

This maxim requires each participant to maximize dispraise of self and minimize praise of self. For example:

(9) “How stupid I am!”

(10) “I don’t think I will do it well. I am still learning.”

In this maxim, we try to minimize the expression of praise of self and maximize the expression of dispraise of self.

(5) **Obligation of S to O Maxim** (Give a high value to S’s obligation to O)

Apologies for some offense by S to H are examples of polite speech acts giving high prominence to S’s fault and obligation to O. Here are some typical brief examples, with the overtly apologetic forms underlined:

(11) I’m (terribly) sorry. | Please excuse me. | I’m afraid I’ll have to leave early.

A similar case is the expression of gratitude for some favor H has done to S:

(12) Thanks. | Thank you very much. | Thank you very much indeed.

(6) **Obligation of O to S Maxim** (Give a low value to O’s obligation to S)

On the other hand, responses to apologies often minimize the fault: It’s OK. Don’t worry. It was nothing. Similarly, responses to thanks often minimize the debt: That’s all right. You’re welcome. No problem. Glad to be of help. It was a pleasure. In Chinese:

(13) A : Sorry        B : It’s all right.

(7) **Agreement Maxim** (Give a high value to O’s opinions)

In this maxim is emphasized that the participants can develop agreement on the speech acts. If there is a match between themselves or speaker and hearer in the speech acts, each one of them will be said to be polite.

For example:
(14) “Let’s have dinner together, ok?”
(15) “Good idea, I will wait for you at Sunda restaurant.”

In this conversation, we can infer that the speakers are able to build their agreement so that they will be polite each other.

(8) Opinion - Reticence Maxim (Give a low value to S’s opinions)

As shown in the last example, people frequently soften the force of their own opinions, by using propositional hedges such as I think, I guess, I don’t suppose, It might be that... In other cases, S consults H’s opinion, deferring to H’s supposed greater understanding, wisdom, or experience. In contrast, there is a low tolerance of opinionated behavior, where people express themselves forcefully, as if their opinions matter more than others’.

(9) Sympathy Maxim (Give a high value on O’s feelings)

In this maxim, the speakers try to minimize antipathy between self and others and try to maximize sympathy between self and others. A constraint of Sympathy (or emotive concern) is needed to explain why we give a high value to other people’s feelings in such speech acts as congratulations and condolences. It is polite to show others that you share their feelings, feeling sad when they have suffered misfortune, and feeling joyful when they have cause for rejoicing. Congratulations, good wishes, and condolences are all intrinsically courteous speech acts and need no mitigation: Congratulations! Well done. Have a good time! Enjoy your meal. Or on a sadder note: I was so sorry to hear about your father. . . . Like condolences are inquiries about people’s health, showing sympathy and concern: How’s your mother? I hope she’s feeling better. . . . Since these are all courteous speech acts, they can be made more pragma linguistically polite by intensification. That is, it is easy to make them more extreme, by heightening the degree of gradable expressions they contain (intensifying expressions are underlined):

(16) Warmest congratulations!
(17)“I was sorry to hear about you father.”
(18) “I take a pity on hearing you didn’t pass the exam.”

(10) Feeling - Reticence Maxim (Give a low value to S’s feelings)

The corresponding negative-politeness constraint places a low value on one’s own feelings. For example, B&L (1978: 240) say “it appears that in English one shouldn’t admit that one is feeling too bad,” and quote the following:

(1) A: Hi, how are you?
   B: Oh, fine. Actually though. . .

The first response to questions like How are you? is likely to suppress any bad news, even though speaker B may be tempted to share his or her troubles.

Students’ Compliance

Individuals are frequently rewarded for behaving in accordance with the opinions, advice, and directives of authority figures. Compliance refers to a kind of response— acquiescence—to a kind of communication—a request (Cialdini & Goldstein, 2004). The request may be explicit, as in the direct solicitation of funds in a door-to-door campaign for charitable donations, or it may be implicit, as in a political advertisement that touts the qualities of a candidate without directly asking for a vote. But in all cases, the target
recognizes that he or she is being urged to respond in a desired way. Although students may respond to teachers’ compliance-gaining requests by resisting, generally teachers expect that their requests result in student compliance because of their role-related authority and because resistance tends to be counter-productive or disruptive in classroom settings. Despite teachers’ best efforts to generate compliance, sometimes their requests incur resistance from students. Thus, it is important to examine how to enhance compliance and reduce resistance in teacher requests.

Many factors (e.g., linguistic, contextual, and relational) may influence students’ responses to teacher requests, such as what the request is, how the request is made, and whether the teacher is perceived by their students as credible. With these questions in mind, we examined how request politeness and legitimacy, teacher-student relationship distance, and teacher credibility affect students’ intention. Students could comply with or resist teachers’ requests. Student compliance refers to students’ going along with teachers’ compliance-gaining attempts, whereas student resistance refers to students’ opposition to teachers’ requests. Given the asymmetrical teacher-student relationships, students are more likely to comply or partially comply with teachers’ requests even if they feel resistant. (Zhang, 2009). Teachers’ authority in the classroom has boundaries, so their requests can be perceived as legitimate or illegitimate, which is largely norm based. A legitimate request is one that is perceived as the same as or better than students’ expectations, whereas an illegitimate request is one that is perceived as worse than students’ expectations. We found that students’ perceptions of teacher request legitimacy help reduce student resistance intention.

3. Research Method

The method of this research is qualitative with content analysis techniques. Krippendorf (2003: 87) states that this analysis must be carried out and justified in relation to the data context. The data is utterances spoken by lecturers and students during teaching and learning interactions. In addition, this study also analyzed conversations conducted by students. Eggins and Slade (1997) stated that conversation analysis is a branch of ethnomologists who focus on a conversation because conversation analysis is specifically in accordance with the data examined in ethnomology, namely what people say and do. Littlejohn and Foss (2008) stated that conversation is a sequence of interactions, namely the beginning of the conversation and the end of the conversation, the turn of speech and the purpose of the conversation. In this study a qualitative approach was used with the following reasons: 1) The data are English- politeness that occurs in teaching and learning interactions in English classes, 2) In this study, the data obtained naturally, that is when lecturers and students interact during the teaching and learning process in English classes.

The respondents in this study are the lecturers and the students in EFL classroom at Islamic College Jakarta. The English for foreign language Class is divided into three classes. They are class A (Speaking class with 22 students), class B (Reading and Vocabulary class with 23 students), and class C (Grammar class with 25 students). In this EFL classroom, the teaching and learning process takes place for 90 minutes.

In this study the researchers use: 1) Observation. The researcher noted things that happened outline during the process of learning English in the class. 2) Recording. When lecturers and students interact in learning English, the researcher recorded using video and tape recorders. After recording the object under study, the next step is to listen to the recording. This technique is by listening to the utterances of the politeness of the language
used in teaching and learning interactions. The recordings are played many times, every observation and series of utterances are examined. What topics are discussed, where the conversation takes place, etc., and 3) Interview. Interviews were conducted to gain a deeper understanding of language politeness conducted by lecturers and students during the process of learning English. Interviews were conducted to verify the results of the study that had been carried out through the context of the conversation that had been previously transcribed.

Data analysis in this study was carried out by content analysis techniques with deductive procedures. This means that the data obtained are analyzed, then grouped into previously defined categories. Aspects of the interpretation of the text following the research questions are included in the categories. These categories can be revised and verified together with the course of the analysis process (Krippendorff, 2003). The procedures are: a) Listen carefully and repeat the recording conversations between lecturers and students during speaking lecture, reading, structure and then transcribed, b) Identify and classify the phenomena found based on the focus of the research, c) Encoding data, d) Compare the phenomena found in the identified segments with other segments contained in conversations in English classes, e) Interpret the findings, f) Interview with the participants, g) Triangulate colleagues who are linguistically based, and colleagues who are non-linguistic.

4. Results and Discussion

According to Leech (2014), there are ten maxims used in politeness principle in analyzing politeness. Politeness involves minimizing the cost and maximizing the benefit to speaker. Theoretically, the politeness principle consists of ten maxims namely tact maxim, generosity maxim, approbation maxim, modesty maxim, agreement maxim and sympathy maxim. The lecturers used Politeness principles in their speech. From the observation conducted in English class at Islamic College Jakarta, it was found that the teachers used ten types of politeness strategies in their communication. The following are the frequency of the ten types of politeness strategies used by the lecturers according to the theory of politeness principles by Leech (2014).

**Types of Politeness Strategies used by the Lecturers and Students in English Class at Islamic College Jakarta.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of Politeness Strategies</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Generosity Maxim</td>
<td>40,98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tact Maxim</td>
<td>87,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approbation Maxim</td>
<td>43,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modesty Maxim</td>
<td>35,33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obligation of To...</td>
<td>43,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obligation of O to...</td>
<td>32,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agreement Maxim</td>
<td>21,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opinion Resilience...</td>
<td>10,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sympathy Maxim</td>
<td>10,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feeling Resilience...</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To be more details, there was data presented on the chart about which politeness principles used by each subject and how many times they used each politeness principles which was delivered according to the sequence of number of all data. By this chart, it is
found which type of politeness strategy was frequently used by the lecturers to the students. We can see the examples of the conversation between the lectures and the students.

a) Politeness Principles in Tact Maxim Used by the Teachers to the Students

Based on the data, the lecturers used tact maxim in their communication to the students because they want to reduce or minimize their benefit and maximize the benefit to others. Because of the researcher focused on the directive speech, the teachers used tact maxim when they are commanding, questioning, begging, and instructing, requesting, warning to the students. It can be seen in the data below.

The examples of tact maxim used by the teachers are follows:

**Situation**: In a speaking class (Class A), the lecturer (L1) discussed about transportation problem and asked the students (S) about it.

*Situation*: In a speaking class (Class A), the lecturer (L1) discussed about transportation problem and asked the students (S) about it.

S1: Congestion, you still can move, but gridlock you cannot move anymore, stuck.

L1: Stuck, we are stuck, okay! Another word for congestion? Traffic congestion is...??

S1: Traffic jam.

L1: Traffic jam, very good. Okay. See the composition here (she’s pointing her left hand around the picture on the whiteboard). So they are not only cars, but also motorcycle. And then, what is this (pointing at the picture on the white board). Ya confused. Confused...? Stress. People are stress, people are confused, people are upset.

In this conversation above, the students explained the meaning of *congestion*. The lecturer thought that the answer is not complete or not enough. Then she asked the students about the other word of *congestion*. She used tact maxim when she was questioning to her students. The lecturer repeats the student’s answer as a sign of her agreement and then asks another word of congestion, for giving an opportunity for the student to answer it. The teacher expressed it indirectly to show her politeness by saying *Stuck, we are stuck, okay! Another word for congestion? Traffic congestion is...??* and *Traffic jam, very good. Okay. See the composition here*). By using this strategy, the lecturer tried to minimize her cost and maximize the students benefit.

According to Leech (2014), not all maxims have the same degree of importance. For example, he argues that the tact maxim is more influential than the generosity maxim. Using the concept of the tact maxim – the more tactful a directive, the more indirect and circumlocutionary it is. He also explains the importance of indirectness in polite speech acts.

Another example of tact maxim used by the lecturer can be found in this conversation below:

**Situation**: In a reading class (Class B) discuss about religion and the lecturer (L2) asked the students (S) about reading comprehension.

S1: I understand that the tone about the writer, it is descriptive.

L2: Descriptive ya. And then?

S1: and then the purpose, discuss about Christianity’s gospel

L2: do you find some, any emotion, here?

S1: No. I don’t

L2: No? So, it means just about descriptive reading, ok, then what about the purpose?

S1: Discuss about Christianity’s Gospel
In the conversation, it is found, that the lecturer used tact maxim in order to maximize benefit for others and minimize her own benefits. The utterances produced by the teacher are Descriptive ya. And then? And No? So, it means just about descriptive reading, ok, then what about the purpose?. They showed tact maxim used by the lecturer. Those are expressed indirectly that usually more polite than the speech acts expressed directly.

b) Politeness Principles in Approbation Maxim Used by the Lecturer to the Students

After analyzing the data, the researcher also found that the subjects also used approbation maxim as their politeness principle. This approbation maxim is to maximize respect for others and minimize the disrespect to others that expressed by expressive speech such as congratulated, thanked, praised, and express condolence. There were found four utterances produced by the teacher using this kind of maxim. The data were showed below:

**Situation:** In class A, the lecturer (L1) asked the students to make presentation for their homework.

S1: Just choose, Mom.

L1: Oh, just choose. Ok. Qotrun! (Lecturer stepped forward to Qotrun and sent her forward, then she sat behind with the students) Why?.....You ask me to choose, and I choose you, because I love you.

S1: May I bring my book?

L1: For glance is okay.

In this conversation, it is found that the lecturer used approbation maxim by saying oh just choose, Ok. The lecturer agreed the student’s idea to choose who will have presentation in front of the class. Then the lecturer chose Qotrun. The utterance for glance is okay used when the lecturer agreed or gave permission for bringing a book when the students have presentation. By looking at the respond, the lecturer succeeded in using the politeness principles to get the students’ attention and responses. Another example is following:

**Situation:** The lecturer (L1) asked the students about their transportation to campus.

L1: Junia?

S1: This is Junia, Mom.

S2: Always used transportation every day. To campus and back to dorm.

S3: Not every day.

L1: Not every day? Every day or not every day? Ok, one by one.

S3: Except Sunday.

L1: **Ooh, except Sunday, ok. Yeah.** I mean working days, every working days, almost every day? You are making me confused (laughing). Ok. And then, what did you take?? What kind of public transportation did you take? (still asking to Junia).

It is found that the lecturer used approbation maxim. In this conversation, the lecturer tried to maximize respect to Junia by using approbation maxim in her utterances. She produced an utterance, Ooh, except Sunday, ok. Yeah. Lecturer’s utterance in this conversation was to praise Junia’s answer and with the purpose of minimizing disrespect for her.

c) Politeness Principles in Generosity Maxim Used by the Lecturers to the Students

Based on the data, the researcher found that the subjects also used generosity maxim. The intent of this maxim is to make the advantages of the speaker as small as
possible. In this maxim, the participants are expected substitutions being respectful of others. Respect for others will happen if people can reduce profits for himself and maximize profits for others. The data are as the following:

**Situation:** The lecturer (Class C) asked the students about synonym words.
L3: What about the synonym?
S1: Beautiful and grace. Last and final
L3: Ok, that’s good and then?
S1: Big and large
L3: Ok, good, and then?
S1: Abundant
L3: Ok, Abundant and?

After analyzing this utterance, it was showed that the lecturer used approbation maxim to praise the students’ right answer by saying “that’s good, ok good, ok”. In this conversation, the lecturer tried to maximize respect to the students because they can answer the lecturer’s question well.

d) Politeness Principles in Modesty Maxim Used by the Students

After analyzing the data, the modesty maxim used by the students is found in this conversation, but not by the lecturers. In this maxim, the speakers try to minimize the expression of praise of self and maximize of dispraise of self. This kind of politeness was one principle of politeness which was not used by the lecturers of Islamic College. They did not use modesty maxim as their politeness principles when they communicated with the students in directive and expressive speech acts at school.

In this research, modesty maxim is self-centered, the students were humble by reducing the praise to them. They dispraise themselves to other audience in assertive and expressive speech acts. The data are as the following:

**Situation:** The students (Class A) had a presentation about home remedies, and then they had answer question session.
S1: I think it would very painful. No, I mean is it painful?? Biting scars, open scars.
S2: No, no, no. I mean beside
S1: Oh beside. I see. You didn’t mention it before.
S2: Sorry, sorry. I think you understand, that’s good, that’s good. Any question again?
Come on just ask me.
L1: Ok. I think that’s all ya? Thank you so much.
S1: Thank you so much guys.

(e) Politeness Principles in Maxim of Obligation (of S to O Maxim) used by the Students

Apologies for some offense by S to H are examples of polite speech acts giving high prominence to S’s fault and obligation to O. Here are some typical brief examples, with the overtly apologetic forms. The data are as the following:

**Situation:** The students (Class A) had a presentation about home remedies, and then they had answer question session.
S1: I think it would very painful. No, I mean is it painful?? Biting scars, open scars.
S2: No, no, no. I mean beside.
S1: Oh beside. I see. You didn’t mention it before.
S2: Sorry, sorry. I think you understand, that’s good, that’s good. Any question
L1: Ok. I think that’s all ya? Thank you so much.
S1: Thank you so much guys.

S1 apology is followed by a statement that justifies S2's opinion. The apology expressed by S1 is an expression of respect for the interlocutor. Thus, in the conversation there has been a maxim of the speaker's obligation to the opponent's speech.

f. Maxim of Obligation of O to S Maxim Used by The Lecturer

In this maxim the reverse or the response to the obligations carried out by speakers (Give a low value to O 'obligation to S) applies. On the other hand, responses to apologies often minimize errors; for example utterance it's OK. don't worry. The speech can be found in the following conversation.

Situation: The lecturer (Class B) discussed about Religion and then he asked the questions to the students.

S1: I am sorry Sir, I don't finish it yet. Because last week I was sick.

L2: You don’t finish it yet. It’s Okay, Oh, you didn’t study last week ya. The previous meeting. Miss…have you? (Pointing at someone). Okay come on, Mr. Adhika, come on what numbers did you criticize?

S2: 50.

L2: 50. Ok.

In this conversation, it is found that the lecturer understands and accept the student didn’t do the task, so the student felt that his face was not threatened. The lecturer carried out the maxim of obligation (of O to S maxim).

g. Politeness Principle in Maxim of Agreement Used by The Student to the Lecturer

Maxim agreement is expressed with expressive and assertive sentences. Maxim agreement outlines every speaker and others to say to maximize the compatibility between them and minimize incompatibility between them. The data are as the following:

Situation: The students (Class A) had a presentation about home remedies, and then they had answer question session.

S1: Water of cigarette maybe (then the whole class laugh together). When I was a child, I always bite by centipede on my feet, so my father always gives it (samsu) to me. And another home remedies like vinegar. You know vinegar? Sour and salty. When the centipede bites me, my father clean it with vinegar and give me bitter coffee for make me, the poisons is neutral. For making the poisons neutral, just like that.

L1: So, you have to drink the bitter coffee?

S1: Yeah. Bitter coffee, I have to drink it and then give a salt in the injury, just like that. And it’s for kids.

In this conversation above, when L1 gives a question or at the same time as an emphasis on the intention of the speaker So, you have to drink the bitter coffee? Then S1 justifies what L1 asks by repeating what is stated in question L1 Yeah. Bitter coffee, I have to drink it. In this conversation, there is a maxim of agreement between the students and the lecturer. Politeness Principle in maxim of agreement also used by the lecturer to the student, as the following data:

Situation: The lecturer (Class B) discussed about Religion and then he asked the questions to the students.

L2: About Christianity, and its belief?

S1: Yes.

L2: Then for course?
Lecturers’ Politeness Strategies and Students’ Compliance in English for Foreign Language (EFL) Class, Fitriyah, Nurmala Dewi, Octa Pratama Putra, Meiva Eka Sri Sulistyawati

S1: Religion.
L2: Okay, it's a part of religion. Ok, kategorinya berarti ini masuk ke..? masuk ke Religion. Ok, the others? Ms. Rany, have you? Ok Rany, come on
S2: I don’t finish it Sir.
L2: You don’t finish. Okay, Ms. Mela? Oh, you didn’t study last week ya. The previous meeting. Miss...have you? (Pointing at someone). Okay come on, Mr. Adhika, come on what numbers did you criticize?
The conversations above L2 stating the agreement of the answers given S1 and S2.

h. Politeness Principle in Opinion - Reticence Maxim Used by The Lecturer

In this maxim, people frequently soften their own opinion (Give low value to S’s opinions) by using propositional hedges, such as; I think, I guess, I don’t suppose, It might be that. The data are showed below:
Situation: The lecturer (class A) discussed about transportation then asked students (M) about their daily use.
S1: Except Sunday
L1: Ooh, except Sunday, okay. Yeah. I mean working days, every working days, almost every day? You are making me confused (laughing). Ok. And then, what did you take?? What kind of public transportation did you take? (still asking to student)
The lecturer’s statement implies that the lecturer wants to clarify her statement so that it is understood by the student, without being confused by it. The lecturer’s statement saves student’s face. Thus, the lecturer carries out the maxim of reticence.

i. Politeness Principle in Maxim of Sympathy Used by Lecturer

Maxim sympathy is expressed by assertive and expressive speech. The maxim of sympathy requires each participant to maximize sympathy and minimize the sense of antipathy to the opponent he said. The data is as followed:
Situation: The lecturer (class A) gives a greeting when she starts the lesson and hopes that the students are all good.
L1: Assalamu’alaikum warahmatullahi wabarakatuh, Good morning, boys and girls..
S1: Waalaikumsalam warahmatullahi wabarakatuh, Good morning Mam...
L1: I hope all of you feeling fine to day
S1: we hope so, Mam.
In this conversation, it is found that the utterance of lecturer about the condition of the students is to fulfill the principle of politeness of sympathy. Another data is as follows:
Situation: The lecturer (L1) discusses Home Remedies then asks students (S) to present their assignments. After the students present their assignments, the lecturer appreciates the assignments of students.
L1: Well.... we already heard about our experience in using home remedies, now, let’s come back to our new topic ...it’s our transportation problem. Now let me ask you some questions, like ...how do you go to school? Do you use public transportation or not?
S1: I’m not using public transportation every day, because when I go, I just enough walking.
L1: Poor you
In this conversation above, the lecturer states *poor you*. The lecturer’s statement expressed her concern about the condition of his students.

**j. Politeness Principle in Feeling - Reticence Maxim**

In this maxim someone does not want to express their true feelings (Give a low value to someone's feelings). This maxim puts a low value on someone's feelings. Example of the utterances are in the following conversation.

**Situation:** The lecturer (class A) asked about the condition of some of her students who had just recovered from illness.

L1: Hi, Qotrun. Are you feeling better now? You were sick yesterday, right?

S1: I am getting much better, Mam

L1: Good, and Agus, are you OK now?

S1: Yes, Mam. I sometimes still feel dizzy, but I’m much better than yesterday.

These utterances reflect that the speaker (S1) was still in a state of illness; but, because he was asked by L1, he tried to explain her condition, thus eliminating the worry from the lecturer (L1). Thus, S1 carries out the maxims of hiding his feelings, in order to respect his lecturer’s utterance.

Based on the data above, in a process of learning English, there are various ways to display politeness. In general, when communicating, each person will try to respect the wishes of other people’s faces. The act of saving faces in communicating is often known as the politeness principles. This research is English politeness in class situations (*speaking, grammar and reading*). The interaction between lecturers and students creates a rather tense or rigid atmosphere, so they are less able to express themselves more freely so that variations in the use of language are less visible. It is necessary for the lecturer to apply politeness strategies in teaching and learning process, especially in EFL class which has different cultures. In this research, it is shown that the lecturer employed politeness strategy in their teaching process and how the students’ compliance. Therefore, the use of politeness strategies needs to be applied by other lecturers in teaching. It is believed to stimulate students’ learning motivation. The lecturers have to pay attention to their use of language in the classroom because it contributes to the learning process.

**5. Conclusion**

After analysing the data, the conclusions were stated that the lecturers of EFL class in Islamic College use ten types of politeness principles in directive and expressive speech act to communicate with the students at school. They were generosity maxim, tact maxim, approbation maxim, modesty maxim, agreement maxim, maxim of Obligation (of S to O Maxim), maxim of obligation (of S to O), Opinion - Reticence Maxim, sympathy maxim and feeling Reticence maxim. The dominant type of politeness principles used by the lecturer was tact maxim, because the lecturers were easier and felt more appropriate in using this type in directive speech acts as mostly focused on by the researcher. The students of EFL Class in Islamic College Jakarta don’t comply with all the lecturer’ utterances although they were already in polite way. They gave their compliances to some teachers’ utterances. In the process of learning English, it is necessary to pay attention to the actual language function, namely as a communication tool. Thus, in the process of teaching English, the lecturer must not focus only on language rules grammatically, but also concerning to the use of practical language in everyday life. Especially the knowledge of politeness concepts in English which use may differ from our cultural background.
References


CHILDREN’S RESPONSE TO THE UTTERANCES OF THEIR PARENTS’ NEGATION: COMMUNITIES IN KARTASURA

Kurniawan
Doctoral Student in Humanities, Faculty of Cultural Sciences
Universitas Gadjah Mada, Yogyakarta, Indonesia
E-mail: kurniawan_kec@yahoo.com

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Abstract
The act of obeying parents’ right to control them or refusing the directives by challenging their parents’ authority are two preferences children may opt for. This present investigation concerns to what extend children respond upon hearing negative utterances aimed for them. This qualitative research applies a theory of speech acts proposed by Austin (1962) to analyze data classified as negation utterances. Four families living at the Kartasura become this research data source. To collect the data, the researcher implements direct observation by recording audio and taking notes on the parents and their children’s interaction within a period of approximately an hour. The result of the study implies that mostly Kartasura children do what their parents tell them to do, while few data indicate children’s refusal of parents’ negations. One reason is due to the cultural value held tightly and bequeathed by Javanese through a number of centuries that is the act to honor and obey parents’ directives. To sum up, the implementation of negative utterances in the parenting world is not prohibited; however, parents must keep in mind the use of proper portion.

Keywords: speech act, negation utterances, children responses

1. Introduction
Directive claims an entitlement to control the hearer’s actions since it involves authority, social status, as well as cultural dimension (Cutting, 2002 and Kent, 2012). This speech act category is one of the parenting language styles mostly occurring in family communication. Erlanti, et al. (2016) agree that parents are required to own competency and ability with the result that their speeches can be categorized as right parenting communication patterns. What parents speak determines and ultimately affects the language development and mental health of children. Furthermore, children are offered two choices upon facing to directions uttered by parents; they obey and accept their parents’ right to control them or reject the directives by challenging their parents’ authority.

What will children do when a parent tells them what to do? One impulse that every parent must have is to prevent, warn, and even forbid their children from not doing something. This action is considered necessary as parents assume that they have better comprehension on what is good and not rather than their children. One reflection can be seen from one phenomenon. The directive words “Don’t eat by your left. Use your right hand.” is an example of parental directive intended to negate and warn children. This
negation is based on Indonesian cultural value held tight by parents’ beliefs that the use of right hand is a must while people are at mealtimes. Rijal (2015) highlights there will be parties who are more in charge of the communication process, in this case parents. This dominance occurs because parents have a greater interest in the growth and development of children.

Children development phase supposes parents to reprimand their children with various types of utterances. The fact says negation speech acts is one of the most frequently utterances used. Negation means negative words such as don’t turn around or don’t cry. The exploitation of that negation’s speech will have a psychological impact on children inasmuch as subconscious mind is difficult to process and accept the utterances involving negative meaning. The words, as the result, captured by children’s subconscious mind are turn around and cry. What will happen then? that children will turn around and keep crying. One of the phenomenal thoughts of Freud (1980)—a father of Austrian psychoanalysis—writes in his book that people subconscious mind is only able to recognize positive words, and indeed it will be in adversity situation to grasp negative words. Nevertheless, the use of negation utterances in practice is much more common than positive utterances.

The objective of the study is to explore children’s response to utterances involving parents’ negation in parental environment. It will be seen how children act, whether they do what their parents tell to do or refuse their parents’ words by giving arguments or keep doing what they want to do. This is considered a crucial to investigate that case since negation utterances spoken by parents to their children hold significant impact toward children’s psychology as well as language development. Children whose age are 2 to 5 year will be the object of this present study. An approach proposed by Austin (1962) is adopted in this paper in order to achieve research objective. The researcher analyses the data by collecting negation words uttered by parents and investigates how children respond to those utterances.

By focusing on children’s response of parental negation, it is believed to fill the research gap and contribute an understanding how negation utterances are able to influence the action as well as language development of children under 5 years old. Afterward this study is expected to be useful in developing and expanding insight regarding the urgency and role of language in connection with pragmatics and parenting field. In doing so, comprehending what interlocutor means in the phase of children’s language acquisition is essential for the development of children communicative abilities. Children aged 2 to 5 years is a period where they experience the stages of learning and gaining language. Parents, as the consequence, need to pay much attention toward the lexical choices used to direct their children as they will automatically copy what their parents say.

2. Literature Review

Parents’ Negation

According to Austin (1962) and Yule (1996) directive speech acts mean speech uttered by speakers who have intended purpose that the interlocutors take action in accordance with the speakers mean. Negation is a kind of this speech act. Negation is defined as an act of expression that denies and refuse the speeches uttered by interlocutors. One example of the negation implementation is negative words usage. In bahasa Indonesia, it is well-known the word “tidak”, “bukan”, “jangan”, “dilarang”, and so forth. This argument is not in line with the thought of Diharti (2013) and Mappau (2017) who state that negation markers does not only deal with the negative word “no” or “not”, yet it can also relate to the
meaning of rejection, negation, as well as denial utterances. As penned by Givon (1979) and Lyons (2013) say that the main function of negation is to refute utterances or actions considered to infringe the rules and norms. This language style is commonly utilized by speakers to designate a contrast or prohibit their interlocutors to do something.

Discussing negation utterances aimed at disallowing children will automatically get in touch with mind. Freud (1980) assumes that humans consist of two consciousnesses, that is, 88% influenced by the subconscious mind, while the conscious mind, obtained from knowledge background, only possesses a 12% percentage. Then a question raises, does it also occur in children’s life? The fact portrays that the unconscious dominates children mind since they utilize it upon communicating and interacting with others. Zainurrahman (2016) opines that unconscious mind has a large portion in affecting behavior of every human compared to individual conscious mind as it becomes the basis of every movement.

Conscious mind is the initial process of human mind to receive, analyze, and think about information gained. This is a thought process that someone does consciously and enables to be controlled. For instance, people desire to determine which meal is worth to be ordered in a restaurant based on their conscious logic. In another side, the subconscious mind is a dimension where all information is stored into mind programs, such as beliefs, values, and skills. This can be considered as a virtual storage where the data are accessed and run by humans for their daily lives. For instance, someone will automatically find water to drink when thirst surges. (Freud, 1980; Rijal, 2015; Zainurrahman, 2016)

3. Research Method

This study is classified as qualitative since it deals with examining how children respond to their parents’ negation utterances. Aspects to be described are in the form of utterances done by children, therefore, this is categorized as a descriptive study (Creswell, 2012; Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). It involves the utterances of parents and children as the
participant of study to find new insights related to speech acts in parenting field. This data source was located in family’s environment living at Kartasura city. The fundamental reason for choosing this location was due to community diversity, including highly educated families and owning an established economy dominated by migrants; and the other one was family whose educational and economical ownership was not classified as good. The utterances were investigated by pragmatics theory proposed by Austin (1962) used as a tool for analyzing the research data. It focused on directive speech acts that contained negation utterances to warn and prohibit hearer not to do something.

To collect the data, the researcher implements direct observation by recording audio and taking notes concerning conversation undergone by parents and their children. Both participants were set to have a verbal interaction within a period of approximately an hour which took place at public market and playground. After the data had been gathered, they were analyzed though these procedures: the recording was transcripted according to Jefferson’s transcription conventions (2004) and determined which data belong to negation utterances. Finally, the researcher looked into in depth how children responded to those words by exploiting speech act approach. The analysis was primarily concerned on children responses toward parents’ negation words recorded specifically to this present project.

4. Result and Discussion
4.1 Research Result

The result of this study was carried out on four families living at Kartasura. The researcher detected 38 data categorized as negation utterances and children’s responses to utterances addressed. This data were taken in various diverse locations, including parks, supermarkets, and children’s playgrounds. Here are the data in details and the analysis:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Parents’ Negation</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Fathers’ utterances</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Mothers’ utterances</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Datum: 5/father’s

**Ayah**: Jangan banyak-banyak ya.
(don’t eat too much)

**Anak**: Satu aja.
(one?)

**Ayah**: Iya satu aja. Tadi kan sudah makan jajan. Jadi ini jangan banyak- banyak ya. Nanti giginya?
(yeah, one is enough. You have eaten snack. So, don’t eat this too much. Otherwise your teeth....?)

**Anak**: Kropos
(Cavity)

Situational context: A father forbids his son from eating large portions because he ate Oreo snack a couple of minutes ago.

The datum portrays that a farther did not allow his child to eat much. The lexeme “jangan (do not)” at “jangan banyak-banyak ya” utterance is a negation marker exploited by a father in the application of speech act. That prohibition was spoken with the aim that children would not consume sugary meals. Otherwise his teeth will be increasingly eroded.

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As the response, he nodded his head while saying that he only consumed a packet of food upon listening to his father’s words. This reaction was as the same as what the father expected.

Datum: 10/mother’s

*Anak*: tak kasih daun ya  
(can I feed with leaves?)

*Ibu*: jangaaannn  
(No...!)

*Anak*: la emangnya kenapa?  
(what’s wrong)

Situational context: A child asked her mother whether she could feed a deer with a leaf, and the mother did not allow her.

Datum 2 above is a reflection of the phenomenon of a mother’s effort to warn her daughter that feeding deer with a leaf was disallowed. That prohibition utterance was conveyed as the leaves, in mother’s belief, held by the child were too dirty so they were not worth for animal consumption. This negation utterance realized by the word “*jangan*” is frequently utilized by the Indonesians to inhibit speech partners. On hearing that negation, the child then did not immediately follow the instruction. However, a question raised on her mind why it was not allowed. The mother answered in detail that the leaves on her daughter hand are not deer food, or might be contaminated by mud.

Datum: 13/mother’s

*Anak*: Aku sekarang udah ganti SGM  
(I’ve changed to SGM mom)

*Ibu*: nanti perutnya nggak kuat lho  
(your stomach will hurt)

*Anak*: halahhh. SGM ma….  
(Come on mom, SGM yeah?)

Situational context: Mother forbids her son from buying milk labelled SGM because he had ever got stomach-ache after consuming this product.

One of the negation utterances of commonly exploited by the Indonesians is lexeme “*nggak*” or known in English as “no / not”. It can be seen from a piece of conversation between mother and son in a supermarket. The son requested his mother to buy milk labelled SGM. The mother did not grant the son in consideration that her son had experienced stomach problem due to this milk. As the effect of mother’s negation, he replied by saying “*SGM ma...!*” in response to persuading mother. He was not in line with his mother’s suggestion.

Datum: 15/father’s

*Ayah*: eh jangan gitu nanti jatoh  
(Don’t do that, or you go into a skid)

*Anak*: tetap berlarian  
(keep running)

*Ayah*: Sssstttttt dek!  
(Ssssttttt son)

*Anak*: berhenti berlarian  
(stop running)

Situational context: Father forbade his son to make tracks on the playground.
Generally speaking, children served two choices upon hearing to parents’ directions; they obey to be controlled or reject the directives by challenging their parents’ authority. The above example is the condition where a son refused parental speech aimed at telling him to stop running. He kept running even his father told him what to do. Subsequently, the father uttered the word “Ssssttttt dek!” with high as well as loud pitch to catch his son’s attention. The son immediately stopped running instead.

Anak : ehh... onok ngo wangi
(mam.... There is a perfume)
Ibu : iho itu kan anak udah SD. Nggak usah ya?
(no.... that’s for elementary children. Find another?)
Anak : gak mau. Hemmm pewangi anak kecil ini
(no, this is for kids)

Situational context: The child points at and takes a perfume, but the mother forbids him to take that perfume since it is made for a child older than his age, while he is still a toddler.

Child’s response is marked by the words “gak mau. Hemmm pewangi anak kecil ini” which implies that the child disagrees with his mother’s assumption. Mother—after reading the information written on the packaging—opined that the perfume was intended for children over the age of 7, while her son was only 5 years old. However, the child denied that opinion by arguing this perfume was able to be put on by a child at his age. He insisted on owning the item.

4.2 Discussion

The analysis of the data presented in previous statement has revealed that compliance is a response to actions that often appear (but not always) to comply with parental directives in speech negation. Children whose age under 5 years old have not yet gain capability to express their wishes with their language. This incompetence unconsciously makes mostly children, in this data, obey parents’ utterances involving prohibition. Nonetheless, researchers found a couple of cases (9 of 40 data) indicating children’s non-compliance against negation utterances. The analysis highlights that refusal speech acts is difficult to be undergone by toddlers. When children as hearer expresses rejection, their action can lead to increased control efforts by parents (speaker) to show power legitimation they have. Parents will try to get children to take action as what they expect. Then there will be obedience from the authority built by parents in parenting.

This research has an opposite result with the findings in the study conducted by Arcidiacono & Bova (2015). They highlighted children aged 6–9 years use arguments to refuse and refute the parental eat-directives. Children will propose an argument concerning parents’ commands. It portrays that they express what is believed by words. On the other hand, children aged 2-5 years on this study mostly do what their parents tell them to do. Only few actions indicate disapproval of parent’s authority. Kent (2012) took into account to what would children do when their parents told them what to do. His study assumes that it is inconvenient and tough for children to refuse parental directive speech acts. They, therefore, obey and choose to ratify parents’ control attempt. They undergo actions as what their parents expect them to do.

The result of this present study is on the contrary to theory proposed by Freud (1980) as the founder of psychoanalysis concerning human consciousnesses. He declare that children subconscious mind is not capable to accept and difficult to process information in
sentences or utterances containing negative words. Subconscious mind is only able to recognize positive words, based on his argumentation. This research finding brings to light an interesting insight on children language competences. They still take part in parents’ directions though these are classified as negation speeches. This present investigation provides us more information regarding children’s responses to negation utterances. It challenges the view that processing negative words to prohibit children will be declined.

The conversational exchanges between parents and children have been proposed as examples of Javanese cultural values that have been instilled in children’s mind from birth. The value held tightly and bequeathed through various centuries is the act to honor and obey commands, advice, and prohibitions given by parents. Infallible power attached in parents’ authority cause them entitled to regulate and children’s development. Parents get children to follow their directions as well as respect (Irawan, Prasetyo, & Arsi, 2016; Rochayanti, Pujiastuti, & Warsiki, 2012). This pattern is familiar with the term Authoritative Parenting. Parents take full control and dominant influence in shaping children character from an early age. As a result, they set rules for children to carry out, such negation utterances to prohibit (Santrock: 2011) in his book entitled Child Development for detail information).

On the other side, there are three patterns portraying children non-compliance in responding to speech acts of their parents’ negations. Firstly, children totally neglect to what parents tell them not to do. They are not willing to lend an ear to parents’ directives. Second pattern is the act of raising interrogatory. Children will propose question (s) what cause them not to be afforded an opportunity undergoing a certain action. In this case, parents have to provide answers to convince that their actions should not be carried out. Last but not least, counter-arguments are advanced by children as the sole indicator to support and justify their resistance to parents’ negations. They pronounce opinions due to their disagreements toward interlocutors’ point of views.

Researchers give credence that the implementation of negative utterances is not prohibited, however parents must keep in mind the proper portion level of this utterance usage. Rijal (2015) asserts Linguistic encodings consisting negative words must be limited since human right brain memory of children is not capable to store negative encodings. Right brain in early childhood is only adequate to respond certain words that have positive meaning. In addition to right brain performance, Al-Qur’an—the holy script uses as a guide for Muslims’ life guidelines—containing the word “لا” which is defined as “don’t” 358 times (Ahmadi & Shobahiya, 2017; Hasan & Sunardi, 2018). This indicates parents may utter negation words as long as they are still within the scope to instill the values of the Aqeedah, Morals and Shari’ah towards children.

5. Conclusion

The speech acts of parental controls have been shown repeatedly based on this finding. This research result indicates that compliance is an action response which mostly arises (but not always) as a result of parental direction in case of speech negation. Incapability to express their wills through language and Javanese cultural values instilled in their mind causes children to honor and comply with parents’ directives. It is discovered three varieties, how children do non-compliance; not lending an ear to parents’ utterances, proposing interrogatory with some questions, as well as stating counter-arguments toward parent’s negation.
Parents need to underline lessons learned from this research. The implementation of negative utterances is not prohibited; however, parents must keep in mind the proper portion level of this utterance usage. It should be taken into account when negation utterances should be applied and vice versa. It remains to be seen how far the patterns of parental directives affect children’s response in other contexts. It is interesting to follow up research on conversational exchange in parenting field involving gender and ethnic. Gender differences affect the response patterns that emerge from the children’s side.

References


TABOO AVOIDANCES IN KARO LANGUAGE

Jumat Barus
Institut Agama Islam Negeri Lhokseumawe, Aceh, Indonesia
E-mail: jumatbarus@iainlhokseumawe.ac.id

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Abstract
Civilized society like Karo knows taboo culture and how to avoid it well, so that they can be avoided from social conflict and can live peacefully. However, taboo in language and the way to avoid them are considered increasingly scarce as globalization develops among the current millennial generation. As an effort to provide an understanding about the matter concerned towards future generations, this study describes various ways of avoiding the three types of taboo in Karo: taboo in kinship, i.e. among bengkila and permain, turangku and turangku, and mami and keila; context-specific taboos, i.e. words derived from non-taboo words, and words related to social and physical defects; and general taboos, i.e. swearing and unmentionable words. This research was conducted using descriptive qualitative with ethnographic method. The data were obtained from the key informants who were from indigenous people of Tanah Karo Regency. It is found that taboos in kinship can be avoided by strategy of third-person intermediary, strategy of metaphor through object, and strategy of using the word nina. Context-specific taboo and general taboo can be avoided by various forms of euphemism. However, taboo of swearing type does not have form of refinement because of its purpose and function as emotive expression.

Keywords: taboo, euphemism, kinship, context-specific

1. Introduction
Every cultured tribe certainly has a cultural product which is named taboo. It exists in all cultures, generally related to sexuality, supernatural, excretion, death, and various aspects of social life. It is generally considered sacred, should not be touched or spoken, since it is considered as a prohibition (Danesi, 2004: 128). While, Allan and Burridge (2006: 27-33) state that taboos are more than prohibitions and avoidance in tradition. He further says that taboo normally arises from social restrictions on individual behavior that can lead to inconvenience and danger.

Taboo in Karo language, according to Barus et.al. (2018), is mainly classified into three categories, they are: kinship, context-specific, and general. The kinship taboo is generally known as rebu, that is a taboo term refering to communication activity that violates cultural rules when it is carried out directly in a kinship among bengkila ‘father-in-law’ (husband's father) with permain ‘daughter-in-law’ (son's wife), turangku ‘husband's sister's husband’ with turangku ‘wife's brother’s wife’, and mami ‘mother-in-law’ (wife's mother) with keila ‘son-in-law’ (daughter's husband). In addition, they are also prohibited to sit face to face and side by side without intermediaries. Rebu, according to Sembiring (2013) starts when Karonese get
married. After the wedding there is a ceremony called the mukul marriage rite, held in the groom’s parents’ house. This is when the bride and groom have dinner from the same plate and the menu has been determined by the groom’s parents. Further, Barus et.al. explained that the context-specific taboo includes words that have no taboo meaning lexically, but their use in certain contexts make them taboo. This category is further divided into two subcategories: non-taboo words and words related to social and physical defects. The general taboo consists of swearing and unmentionable words. These context-specific taboo and general taboo are known as kemali or sikemali in Karo language.

The verbal and nonverbal expressions that are considered taboo by the Karo society can be avoided in various ways according to their respective contexts or words, however the swearing which is one of the sub classifications of general taboo has no form of avoidance for its purpose and function as an emotive expression that reflects, or seems to reflect the feelings or behaviours of the speaker.

2. Theoretical Framework

This study is a small piece of interdisciplinary science named Linguistic Anthropology, that is “the study of speech and language within the context of anthropology” (Hymes, 1963: 277). Based on these, Duranti (1997: 2-3) explains that Linguistic Anthropology is a study of language as a cultural resource and speaking as a cultural practice. While, Foley (1997: 3) uses the term anthropological linguistics and calls this term a sub-field of linguistics which is concerned with the place of language in its wider social and cultural context, its role in forging and sustaining cultural practices and social structures. This study views language through the prism of the core anthropological concept, culture, and as such, seeks to uncover the meaning behind the use, misuse or non-use of language, its different forms, registers and styles. It is an interpretative discipline peeling away at language to find cultural understandings.

Regarding the taboo avoidance strategy, this study uses the concept of euphemism as explained by Allan dan Burridge (2006: 32). Euphemisms are words or phrases used as an alternative to a dispreferred expression. They avoid possible loss of face by the speaker, and also the hearer or some third party. Wardhaugh (2010: 249) explains that euphemism is to avoid mentioning certain matters directly. He further explains that language is also used to avoid saying certain things as well as to express them. Certain things are not said, not because they cannot be, but because ‘people don’t talk about those things’; or, if those things are talked about, they are talked about in very roundabout ways. Related its forms, Allan and Burridge (2006: 128) explains that euphemisms are created by circumlocution, phonological modification, extending the meaning of a near-synonym (thus reintroducing rarely used words into the basic vocabulary), borrowing from another language, or even by coining a new word.

3. Research Method

The research applied qualitative approach with ethnographic methods. By applying such approach and method, the research achieved better results, for it was considered a very appropriate method in investigating accurate information from local people about various strategies they used in avoiding the taboos. In this case, the researcher used the ethnographic method initiated by Spradley (1979), which was by following the twelve steps of developmental research sequence. It was conducted in Tanah Karo Regency, North Sumatra Province, Indonesia, specifically in Berastagi district, Kabanjahe district, Tigapanah district, Barus Jahe district, and Simpang Empat district. The data were obtained from 9 indigenous
informants who understood the culture and language of Karo very well, so that the researcher had strong confidence to the data obtained.

4. Results and Discussion

4.1 Avoiding Kinship Taboo

Avoiding taboos in communication among three types of relationships, namely among *bengkila* with *permain*, *turangku* with *turangku*, and *mami* with *keila* can be done using three strategies. In communication, people who are included in these kinds of relationship must maintain a distance between one another (should not be too close) and it is highly recommended not to look at each other’s interlocutors. Besides, such conversations can be carried out under compulsion and conveyed only very important things. The three strategies are as follows:

a) **Strategy of third-person intermediary**

Communication among two people who are prohibited from communicating directly can be avoided through the intermediary of others as a media to convey messages and as a messenger to the actual interlocutor. Communication as such can be described as follows:

![Figure 1: Strategy of third-person intermediary](image)

The figure above is the flow of communication among the member of kinship taboo “A” and “B”. As a result of the prohibition in their relationship, both of them need other person “C” as their intermediary. C as a third person is needed and functions as a recipient and messenger of messages from A to B and vice versa. When A wants to convey or ask something to B and vice versa, they must do that through C. Communication like this can be seen in the following example:

(1) **Bengkila (A)** : *O Jenni, sungkun sitik permain ena kuja atena.*
‘O Jenni, please ask *permain* where she is going’.

**Jenni (C)** : *Kuja ateindu e Eida?*
‘Where are you going, *Eida* (sister in law)?’

**Permain (B)** : *Ku tiga Jenni, kai kin?*
‘To supermarket Jenni, what happen?’

**Jenni (C)** : *Ku tiga Nina, Pa.*
‘She’s going to supermarket, *Pa* (father)’

**Bengkila (A)** : *Suruh tukurna sitik isapku da.*
‘Ask her to buy cigarettes for me, okay.

In the short conversation above, the people who actually need communication are *Bengkila* and *Permain*, but because they are considered the members of taboo, they cannot speak directly, so they must convey their expression through a third person as their intermediary, namely Jenni (a daughter of *Bengkila*). *Bengkila* asked *Permain* through Jenni,
then she passed on his question to *Permain, and Permain* answered the question through Jenni, then Jenni passed her answer on to *Bengkila*, and so on. Communication like this also applies to two other members of taboo relationships, namely among *Turangku and Turangku*, and *Mami and Keila*. By using this strategy, communications among those members of kinship taboo can run well and not violating the norms of customs in Karo society.

**b) Strategy of Metaphor through Object**

Communication as in the previous strategy cannot always be done, because there are times when there is no third person who can be used as an intermediary. In emergencies and urgently needed to communicate, the taboo participants can use strategy of metaphor through objects, as it is in the previous strategy, by representing any object existing around them. In this case, it is considered as if the object can receive and convey messages as done by the third person in the previous strategy. When A wants to convey or ask something to B, A conveys to the object concerned about what he/she wants to convey or ask, and as if the object hears it and then forward it to B, the interlocutor, and vice versa. However, this type of communication needs both of the taboo participants to hear each other about what they are saying to the object.

![Figure 2: Strategy of Metaphor through Object](image)

This taboo avoidance strategy can be illustrated in the short conversation among *Turangku and Turangku*, as follows:

(2) **Turangku** : *Sungkun sitik turangku eina, tah tehna kuja bapa Badi ndai, pintu.*
(A) ‘Please ask *Turangku*, does she know where Badi’s father went, *pintu* (‘door’).

**Turangku** : *O pintu, kataken man turangku eina, la kuetehe kuja bapa Badi ndai, tapi kuakap pak kedai ia, pintu*
(B) ‘*O pintu*, tell *Turangku*, I don’t know where Badi’s father went, but I think he went to the coffee shop, *pintu*.’

**Turangku** : *O.., bujur ningen man turangku eina, pintu.*
(A) ‘*O..*, please say thanks to *Turangku*, *pintu*.’

The conversation above can be done by the members of taboo in a very urgent situation, because *Turangku* (A) does not find other people in or around *turangku*’s house (B) as an intermediary, while *Turangku* (A) have to convey something important to *Turangku* (B). In such circumstances, both *Turangku* (A) and *Turangku* (B) treat *pintu* ’door’ as a projection media to reflect their conversation to their interlocutor. When conducting this communication, it is also very important to be obeyed that the taboo participants must not look each other as much as they can.
c) Strategy of using word ‘nina’ (‘said x’)

Besides using the previous strategies, the members of taboo can use the word "nina" (‘x said’). Karo society call the strategy "ernina". In conducting conversation, the two members of taboo involved in a conversation use the word nina in every sentence they convey. Uniquely in using the word nina, each directs his or her utterances to the interlocutor, so as if it is not he himself says it, but the interlocutor. Besides, the word nina is also considered as a means of conveying or delivering messages to the interlocutor. This can be showed as follows:

\[ \text{A(B)} \leftarrow \text{nina} \rightarrow \text{(A)B} \]

Figure 3: Strategy of Using the Word nina (‘said x’)

The figure shows the role and flow of the usage of the word nina to legalize communication among taboo members in Karo language. It is clear that in carrying out the conversation, A uses nina as if he is B and vice versa, B uses nina as if she is A. For more details, the usage of this strategy can be seen in the following short conversation among Turangku (A) and Turangku (B):

(3) Turangku : Kuja idahndu silihndu ndai? Nina Turangku.
(A) ‘Where does your brother-in-law go? said Turangku?’

Turangku : E, la kuete, nina turangku, ku jah kuakap, nina Turangku.
(B) ‘I don’t know, said Turangku, maybe going there, said Turangku.’

Turangku : O... bujur, nina turangku.
(A) ‘O...thank you, said Turangku.’

In the short conversation above, Turangku (A), in delivering his statements and questions, always uses the word nina turangku (‘said turangku’), as if he is not the person speaking, but turangku (B). It is the same with turangku (B), when giving statements and questions, Turangku (B) also uses nina turangku (‘said turangku’), as if she is not the one speaking but turangku (A). This strategy is applied as an effort to avoid direct conversation in kinship taboo in Karo language.

4.2 Avoiding Context-Specific Taboo

Taboo of this kind is different from those in the previous part, that the context-specific taboo is in the form of words or phrases that basically have ordinary meaning, but they can mean taboo in certain contexts. Some words or phrases that belong to this group can be avoided and some cannot be. Words or phrases that cannot be avoided are all non-taboo words used in curses or swearing. The use of non-taboo words in the form of names of organs of body (such as babah ‘mouth’, mata ‘eyes’, tokal ‘head’), and names of animals (such as babi ‘pig’, biang ‘dog’, kerbou ‘buffalo’, bengkala ‘ape’) is in profanity, whether it is swearing, insulting, cursing, blaspheming, etc., and this cannot be avoided because of the context and purpose. It is understandable that someone who swears is a result of his high temperament soul, so he curses, blasphemes, and swears, and so on with the aim to give bad effect to the interlocutor. That is the reason why non-taboo words of this group cannot be avoided, in other words, swearing can be avoided only by not mentioning such words. It can also be said that expressions which avoid taboo are not part of swearing.
Unlike some words that derive from non-taboo, the use of names of wild animals (such as nipe ‘snake’, gajah ‘elephant’, arimo ‘tiger’) and supernatural beings (begu) in certain places, which are usually not used in swearing, can be avoided by language refinement or euphemism. To avoid the use of taboo language, generally, these four words are replaced by specific appellation nini ‘grandmother’ or nini si njaga kerangen ‘grandmother the jungle guardian’. The use of the word nini is intended as a tribute, because nini in Karo language is the parent of father, and is a figure that must be fully respected. The guardian of jungle is used as a tribute because the wild animal is positioned as a guardian entity that has extraordinary powers in the forest area. This title is considered as a tribute, and is believed by the tribute and praise to the beast, and by this the karo community can avoid the anger and fury of these creatures.

Specifically, the mention of nipe ‘snake’ is usually replaced by the word weren ‘creeping grass’ and si gedang gendit ‘the long belt’. Both of the euphemisms are the form of refinement of their original name which is considered taboo. Nipe creeps like grass that creeps in forest, so that this reptile is called weren ‘creeping grass’. By using this word, society is considered to understand what it is referring to, and by using it, it will not provoke the animal’s anger. While, si gedang gendit is used to refer to snake because of its physical shape which is similar to a belt which in Karo is named gendit.

The wild animal arimo ‘tiger’, in addition to the name of nini si njaga kerangen ‘grandmother the jungle guardian’, the name of arimo is usually refined with si belang awak. Si belang means ‘the striped color’ and awak means ‘body’. Altogether this phrase means 'striped colored animal'. This phrase is used as a form of euphemism of arimo, because of its wide body shape and its yellow-black fur. With the phrase of si belang awak, the Karo people understand about the entity referred to and is considered to have moved away from the taboo so as to avoid possible dangers.

Gajah ‘elephant’ is one of the wild animals that are feared to mention its name in Karo, especially in jungle and farming areas. To avoid the danger that is believed to be caused by the animal’s anger, the Karo people use another name as a form of euphemism that refers to an animal called an elephant. As the form of refinement, Karo society usually called it datuk ‘ancestor’ (a person who is glorified). By using the word datuk, the Karo community believes that these wild animals will be respected so that they will not be angry and damage the citizen’s plants.

Likewise with the so-called begu ‘ghost’, the name of this supernatural entity also has a form of euphemism to avoid undesired things. The form of euphemism that is often used as a refinement to the spirits (begu) is also nini. Begu in the beliefs of ancient Karo people is the soul or spirit of dead people. The deceased person deserves to be called the one who has preceeded, and in the family tree of the former or the oldest is nini, so the form of euphemism for this entity is called nini. Begu in Karo language is a disturber entity, therefore this creature must be respected or honoured, by using a name that makes him feel respected. With this name ‘nini’, those spirits or begu will not do undesirable things, such as causeing sickness and fear.

As creatures, humans have their strengths and weaknesses. Basically, humans will feel happy when others greet him or express their strengths or good sides, and vice versa, they will feel hurt when others express or greet him with the weaknesses or bad sides. Therefore, greeting someone by showing his weaknesses is considered taboo and has bad ethics towards fellow human beings. That is why, this must be avoided through refinement or euphemism.
In Karo language, mental illnesses such as *mehado* 'crazy' and *tabun* 'epilepsy' have another form which is considered more polite, namely by paraphrasing techniques. *Mehado* and *tabun* can be refined with the phrase *la seh-sehsa kal ukurna, lit sakte, la bagi kita e kal oratna* 'having mental disorder'. All forms of euphemism lead to the lack of normal systems and ways of thinking.

Physical disease named *gadam* 'leprosy' also has a form of avoidance. Its euphemism form is the phrase *pinakit lau simou-mou* 'desease of lau simou-mou'. *Lau Simou-mou* is a place in Kabanjahe where there is a hospital for lepers. The hospital is a place for people who have leprosy, a very scary disease and believed very difficult to be cured in ancient times. As the existence and function of the hospital have been widely known by Karo community as a place to cure such disease, finally this makes the community accustomed to call it by *pinakit lau simou-mou*. These also happen to physical deseases as *pentang* 'blind', and *pasek* 'deaf'. The word *pentang* can be refined by paraphrase *la erpengidah/lanai erpengidah* 'unable to see' or 'blind', whereas *pasek* 'deaf' and can be avoided with paraphrasing of *la erpemegi* 'unable to hear'.

Words related to death, namely *mate* 'die' is also considered taboo. In Karo language, the word *mate* has several forms of euphemisms, all of which are paraphrased. The paraphrase is used according to the circumstances, but in general the use of the word *mate* is said *enggo idilo Dibata* 'has been called by God'. *Enggo idilo Dibata* can be used in every circumstance. *Enggo lawes* *ku ingan si rasa lalap* 'has gone to eternal place', *enggo leben negiluk nandangi kita* 'has preceeded us', *enggo ngadap man Dibata* 'have faced God'. However, all forms of language euphemisms about death can be represented by the phrase *enggo idilo Dibata*. This phrase is commonly used in all circumstances. Taboo verbal expressions related to murder, namely the word *bunuh* 'kill', can be avoided by using the word for *buat kesah* 'take a breath'. For example, a taboo expression related to murder, *bunuh* 'kill' can be avoided by *buat kesah* 'take a breath'. For example: *Enggo bunuhna preman ah ndai* 'he killed the gangster' can be avoided by *enggo buatna kesah preman ah ndai* 'he has taken the gangster’s breath'.

### 4.3 Avoiding General Taboo

Some of taboo words that are classified as general taboo can be avoided, but some others cannot, except by leaving them. All the taboo words in swearing, namely skatology (*taim!, nengekmul* 'Your shit!' and *patatamu/ikurmu* 'Your ass!'); sex organs (*natum* 'your dick!', *teki amem* 'your mother’s pussy!'); and *pepekmu* 'your cunt!'); sexual activities (*entek/entek-entek* 'getting fuck'); mother (family) (*amem* 'your mother!' and *bapam* 'your father!'); ancestors (*ninim!* 'your grandmother!', and *ninimu bulangmu* 'your grandfather!'); animals (*babi* 'pigs', *biang* 'dogs', *bengkala* 'monkeys/apes', and *kerbo* 'buffalo'); death (*mate/tes* 'dead', *bunuh* 'kill', *geleh* 'cut', *takil* 'chop', *tebak* 'stabbed', *munggil* 'dead', and *ndelis* 'suicide'); disease (*mehado/odon* 'crazy', *pentang* 'blind', and *pinangko* ‘thief’); and prostitution (*fonde* 'bitches'), cannot be avoided by refinement or euphemism.

The group does not have better forms and ways to avoid the taboo because of its unique context, method, and purpose. It is understandable that someone who does a
swearing is in a high emotional state due to things or treatments that are not in accordance with his wishes. These profanity words or phrases are spoken in a harsh and abusive manner, and with glances and sharp eyes towards the interlocutors. The words chosen and the way conveyed in such a way are considered to be able to vent their deep emotion and at the same time have an adverse effect on the interlocutor. This is why it has no forms of language refinement or euphemism. In other words, swearing whose words are replaced with finer forms, delivered with a low tone and fainter eyes, make this communication no longer considered swearing.

In contrast to swearings, taboo groups which cannot be mentioned can be avoided by their respective forms of euphemism. This is due to the context of its usage only in the context of ordinary conversation. Sub group of dirty words are divided into sex organs, sexual activity, bodily impurities, and disposal of bodily contaminants. All of these types have finer words as the avoidance of the taboo.

Male sex organ *natu* ‘dick’ can be refined by the word *manuk* ‘chicken’, *piduk* ‘bird’ and *Dibata* ‘god’. Karo people use *manuk* and *piduk* to represent male genitals due to their shared characteristics. Physically, the male sex organ *natu* has fur, and in the experience of Karo societies, hairy animals that are widely known by the society are *manuk* and *piduk*. Unlike the case with these two forms of euphemism, *Dibata* ‘God’ is used to refine the word *natu*, because it is considered to have little in common, namely as a creator. Basically God does not have similarities in His substance, nature, or deeds. However, the Karo community regards the male genital as the "creator" and puts the fetus in the womb of a mother. This makes the Karo people use the word *Dibata* as a subtle form of the word *natu*.

Part of male genitals that are included in the taboo is *naru-naruh* ‘testicles’. Although frequency of the usage of the word *naru-naruh* is less frequent than the other organs. This word is also considered taboo in the Karo language. To avoid using this word of taboo, Karo people use the phrase *baban-baban dilaki* "male's luggage". The phrase is due to its existence which hangs on the male genitalia, as if it were a luggage, so that it is likened to a male's luggage.

The female sex organ *teli/pepek* ‘vagina’ is a very prohibited thing to say in Karo. To avoid this taboo, the Karo language uses *juma* ‘fields’, and *sabah* ‘rice fields’, and sometimes using *lesung* ‘thing used to pound rice into flour’. *Juma* and *sabah* are areas where farmers place seeds to grow, while *lesung* is something used to put rice to pound using pestle. From its function, the three words have the same function which is the same as a place to put things. This has been considered the same function as the sex organ *teli/pepek* which is a place where men put their seeds into their women’s wombs which will later develop into fetuses. The similarity of functions becomes a reason why Karo people use *juma, sabah, and lesung* as euphemisms for female sex organs.

In a woman's body, there are also other organs that are considered taboo to be mentioned. The organ is *nonon/nenen* ‘breast’. To avoid mentioning the name of this organ, the Karo people use the word *poula* ‘roomie’ as its euphemism. In general, *poula* tastes sweet and is beneficial for health. Likewise, milk produced by or coming through the female organs *nonon/nenen*, becomes the main drink and source of energy for a baby. The similarity of these characteristics is used as a reason for the Karo people to refine the word *nonon/nenen* with *poula*.

Besides the organs above, mentioning *gerem* ‘pubic hair’ for male or female is also considered taboo in Karo. To avoid this, Karo people call it *buk teruh* ‘bottom hair’. In addition to *gerem* ‘pubic hair’, there are several types of hair grow in human body, such as hair grows...
on head which is called buk 'hair', above the eyes is called alis 'eyebrows', on the eyelids is called mbulu mata 'eyelashes', above the mouth is called gumis 'mustache', under the chin is called jenggot 'beard', on the armpit is called mbulu kikik 'armpit hair', and on the legs is called mbulu nahe 'leg feather', and none of these types are considered taboo.

To mention the activities carried out with the sex organs presented above are also considered taboo in Karo language such as entek-entek/ngentek 'fuck', merus-merus 'masturbation', and tegir 'erection'. Therefore, these words must also be refined to avoid taboo. The word entek-entek/ngentek 'fuck' can be refined by using the phrase sipanganen 'eating each other'. Sipanganen is intended that man and woman make a love as if they eat each other. Furthermore, merus-merus 'masturbation' is replaced by the word nggelukuki 'curling up', because this act is a sexual stimulus for a man by grasping his dick and sliding his hands in front and back to provide excitement to him and release semen. Furthermore, tegir 'erection' can be refined by the word nggeloh 'life'. Nggeloh is not considered taboo because it has a general meaning, but if it is associated with sexual activity, the Karo community can understand its connotative meaning, that the word refers to the activity of male genitals.

Words related to human bodily impurities such as ciah 'urine', teges 'semen', kesut 'fart', and tai/ngengek/berak 'shit/feces' also have euphemism forms to avoid mentioning these prohibited words in Karo. In its finer form, ciah is called lau 'water'. The word lau is used to obscure the meaning of urine, so that it can be used in a public conversation. The euphemism form of word teges 'semen' is lau baban dilaki 'man’s default water'. This form of paraphrase is considered to be able to shift its taboo meaning to be more subtle. Then, wind released through the rectum is called kesut 'fart', and its form of euphemism is gas 'gas'. The diversion of a special form to the general form makes this word spared from taboo, because gas does not only come from stomach which is released through the rectum but more than that, like natural gas, gas that is released through mouth called belching, and so on. Then, to avoid the taboo of the word tai/ngengek/berak 'shit', Karo people use its euphemism kotoren 'filth'. This word is used to dissipate its taboo meaning.

An activity to defecate, which in Karo language is called ngengek/ciret/berak 'defecating', is refined with the word ku turai 'to back veranda' or kiduru 'to the vert'. In the past, many Karo people lived in rumah siwaluh jabu (=karo traditional house usually inhabited by 8-10 families). The siwaluh jabu had a veranda called turai which was usually used as a place where people defecate, and the defecation that fell down would be eaten by pigs. This is the reason why the Karo people used the words ku turai towards such activity. Whereas kiduru 'going to vert' is used because in general the Karo people in the past used to defecate at the edges of the village or bushes. However, the two phrases ku turai and kiduru are almost no longer be used in Karo language, because the existence of the rumah siwaluh jabu is almost extinct. These phrases are gradually replaced by ku belakang 'backward/to the back' or ke kamar mandi 'to the bathroom'.

The urinating activity ciah 'urinate' can also be refined as kiduru, and sometimes they use litap 'wet'. The word litap is used because this activity releases urine which is strongly associated with the wet nature. In addition, urinating is also commonly referred to by the phrase ku kamar mandi or ku belakang as it is explained in previous paragraph. While, taboo words for the activity of removing air through the rectum, namely erkesut 'farting' can be avoided by saying buang gas 'flue gas', because fart is in the form of gas or air coming from the stomach.

In Karo, mentioning parents’ names and senior or older relatives’ names are considered taboo, and they have no forms of euphemism, that is why Karo culture avoid the
societies to mention their names. While, the taboo of mentioning specific pronouns *engko* 'you' with all words related to the pronoun such as *entei* 'you go there', *ariko* 'you come here' and possessive adjective *–ko, -mu, -m* 'your' can be avoided with their polite forms. When someone wants to greet his parents or ancestors or relatives that are older than him/her by using such possessives, she/he is considered breaking the taboo, that is why Karo language has their forms of euphemism or their forms of subtle possessives. The pronoun *engko* ‘you’ as subject and object should be changed with *kam* (=the subtle form of you), *entei* ‘you go there’ be changed with *tau* ‘you go there +polite’, *ariko* ‘you come here’ be changed with *mari*, and *–ko/-mu/-m* ‘possessive forms of you’ be changed with *–ndu*.

However, for the word *entei* ‘you go there’, there is a more polite way than the word *tau*, that is by using the phrase *ku jah kam*. The words *tau* and *ku jah kam* are considered to have slightly different levels of politeness. The word *tau* is considered a little lower polite because it still contains an element of ordering the interlocutor to leave, while the phrase *ku jah kam* shows that the interlocutor’s departure is on the basis of his/her sincerity to leave, and not on the basis of orders.

5. Conclusion

The taboo rules in Karo language have several meanings and functions, all of which lead to noble values which are used as a tool to limit the community in communication so that harmony and good relations can be maintained well. From the research, it can be concluded that the ethnographic methods play comprehensive processes and results in investigating various taboo matters and forms of avoidance that are prevalent and acceptable in accordance with the rules of language and culture. This study finds three types of relationships that are considered taboo to communicate in kinship relationships; various words and phrases classified as context-specific taboo and general taboo in Karo. Then, this study specifically finds various ways and forms of euphemism to avoid these taboos. Kinship taboo can be avoided by strategy of third-person intermediary, strategy of metaphor through object, and strategy of using word *’nina’* (‘said x’). There are various forms of euphemism used as taboo avoidance of context-specific taboo and general taboo. However, taboo in the form of swearing does not have its form of euphemism because of the purpose and function of this type of taboo as an emotive expression.

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LOCAL WISDOM IN COFFEE CAFÉ IN MEDAN: ANTHROPOLINGUISTIC APPROACH

Hidayati, Arifuddin, Aflina, Zainab MZ
Fakultas Bahasa dan Komunikasi
Universitas Harapan Medan, Indonesia
E-mail: yatihida853@gmail.com

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Abstract
The tradition of drinking coffee, as a cultural heritage of Indonesia, has existed for generations in the city of Medan, the capital of the province of North Sumatra and Sumatra is also a coffee-producing region in Indonesia, so it is not surprising to see the rise of coffee shop business with the current name of coffee café in Medan. Drinking coffee at the café is not just a necessity, it has become a lifestyle and is not limited to age, profession or social status; all the people gather and unite in this place and produce a togetherness. By means of Anthropolinguistic approach, the one referring to the study of humans and cultures related to linguistic functions and all the dynamics inherent in human activities, the research, aimed at revealing local wisdom in coffee cafes in the city of Medan, and based on the notion of cultural heritage preservation, is conducted using descriptive qualitative methods, revealing a series of community activities related to coffee café in Medan, supported by validity data in the form of interviews and questionnaires, with the key instruments, respondents, who truly understand the phenomenon of the tradition of drinking coffee. The results show that local wisdom is found in the coffee café in Medan, with a percentage of 96, having three points of discussion: Social Interaction Establishment through Polite Language (88%), Cultural Heritage Preservation (96%) and Economic Growth Improvement (92%).

Keywords: local wisdom, polite language, cultural heritage preservation, economic growth improvement.

1. Introduction
Understanding and preservation of culture, in this case the diversity of cultures in Indonesia, serves as a fortress to maintain the wholeness and the existence of culture from the influence of the drastic changing of times. Socialization about culture up to the internalization stage must be done through cultural studies, so that the existing cultures in Indonesia are not easily eroded by time and space. Through a culture a person can learn about life, improve the quality of life, care about the environment, have a sense of sympathy and empathy and help each other to get a better standard of living, prosperity and peace.

Cultural studies in general are theoretical perspectives on an object through the perspectives of various fields of science, meaning cultural studies are not limited only to the studies of human activities because all forms of human knowledge are basically included in cultural studies; thus the meaning of cultural studies can be simplified as an interdisciplinary...
field that uses the views of other fields of science to examine the relationship between culture and politics, economics, society and sovereignty. The object of cultural studies is not limited to the arts or is often paired with cultural arts, but rather all forms of human activity aimed at improving the welfare of life again including physical and spiritual well-being.

Culture derives from human creations, tastes and initiatives. The scope covers many aspects of life such as law, beliefs, art, customs or habits, moral, and also expertise. Its presence is able to influence one’s knowledge and ideas. This is in line with Koentjaraningrat (1993) stating that culture is the whole system of ideas, belonging to humans obtained by learning supported by seven elements: Language, Knowledge, Social Organizations, Living Equipment and Technology, Livelihoods, Belief and Arts.

This research is focused on the changing of human behavior related to cultural traditions, the phenomenon of the rise of coffee café business in the city of Medan, the capital of North Sumatra province, Indonesia, by means of anthropolinguistic approach. The study of culture in the field of anthropolinguistics means understanding the intricacies of culture from the study of language or understanding culture through language from a linguistic perspective. Other aspects of human life besides culture such as politics, religion, history, and marketing are also studied through language in the framework of anthropolinguistic studies. On that basis, anthropolinguistics not only examines language, but also culture and other aspects of human life (Sibarani: 2015). So when language politeness is studied, the focus of the study lies in the practice of language politeness; likewise, the preservation of cultural heritage and the improvement of the economy also focused on the practice or effort made by the community not to forget the past and find ways to improve the welfare.

The tradition of drinking coffee in a coffee shop with the contemporary term coffee café, is not a new thing for the people of Indonesia, especially those of Medan. This tradition is not only found in the city of Medan, but in various places outside Medan and this tradition has existed since ancient times and has become a cultural heritage. Cultural heritage is not just a monument or heirloom, but also contains traditions or expressions of life passed down from time to time such as performing arts, social practices, rituals, knowledge and skills to improve the standard of living in various lines.

In every accepted tradition, local wisdom exists. Local wisdom is an ideology or the way of life of a group of communities in the form of activities carried out by the local community to solve problems related to daily needs. Local wisdom encompasses a variety of policies based on the values of goodness that are believed to be used as guidelines for life and are always preserved. Other terms used are local knowledge and local skills or genius (Hidayati: 2018).

The research based on the Anthropolinguistic approach, is carried out to describe the local wisdom in the coffee café or the tradition of drinking coffee in the city of Medan having three points of discussion: Social Interaction Establishment through Polite Language, Cultural Heritage Preservation and Economic Growth Improvement.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Cultural Heritage

Cultural heritage is not only based on monuments, historical buildings or library objects simply because cultural heritage has a broad scope. Life management, as well as
traditions or rituals as well as all forms of social activities to improve living standards also enter the realm of cultural heritage because basically all activities found today are flashbacks of all past activities with different versions.

Cultural heritage according to Davidson in Asfina and Ririn (2016) is concrete cultural product or woks resulted from a numbers of tradition (tangible heritage) and spiritual values from the past (intangible heritage) which become the identity of a group or a nation. There are many tangible cultures such as temples, artifact, historical building and places spreading all over the country. Not only tangible cultures, Indonesia also has many intangible cultures such the songs, stories, norms and values.

However not all cultural heritage is worth preserving or revitalizing; those that can provide benefits for human life today must be preserved and generally contain local wisdom. The interrelationship between cultural heritage and local wisdom can be used as a reference to be guided.

2.2 Local Wisdom

Local wisdom is also passed down through generations through oral or written media and becomes an inseparable part of a community. A concept of thought that has been inherited can only be said as local wisdom if it has the ability to control, can be used as a filter and accommodate the influence of outside ideology, and has a view or concept to develop its potential.

Mindset and good behavior, love of the birth land, consistency of thought patterns and behaviors that have been inherited, are features of a local wisdom. Wisdom is not only in the form of cultural norms and values, but also in all elements of ideas that have implications for technology, handling social problems, and aesthetics. By this concept, what is included as a meaning of local wisdom is a variety of patterns of actions and material cultural outcomes. This is in line with the view of Jundiani (2018) stating that local wisdom is defined as a view of life and knowledge as well as the various life strategies in the form of people's activities in answering multiple problems regarding in the fulfillment of their needs.

Then Manugeren (2017) states that local wisdom is a set of ideas or policies based on the values of virtues found in a community and often applied, believed to be the guidance of life, and handed down from time to time. Local wisdom can be in the forms of local knowledge that functions to adapt to the environment; local values, serving as guidelines or rules for right or wrong actions, local skills as a source of inspiration to earn a living; local resources referring to local natural resources with proper balance; decision making mechanism, used to solve a problem; solidarity referring to togetherness.

2.3 Social Relationship Establishment through Polite Language.

Every human being cannot live alone because humans are social creatures who need others; therefore, it is important for every human being to establish good social relationships with others. Establishing social relationships with family, friends, relatives, neighbors and people around is a form of affection and care for others.

Another virtue of social relationship is that it can increase empathy and avoid selfishness. One is accustomed to respecting other, and listening to their stories and problems. For that reason, indirect social relationships, run consistently can form empathy and put someone away from selfish attitudes and finally making life happier and healthier. This is in line with J. Holt-Lunstad (2017) stating that social relationships are adaptive and
crucial for survival. Social connections to others have powerful influences on health and longevity and that lacking social connection qualifies as a risk factor for premature mortality. Those who curb themselves from society can experience various health problems. From this it is clearly illustrated that building social relations is crucial in human life.

The basic thing needed to build a good social relationship is good communication through polite language. Everyone likes to communicate with people who use polite language. Language skills reflect a person's personality. Good language skills, full of politeness, portray a good and virtuous personality. Through language too, a nation will be known by the world community. Since politeness is crucial to the construction and maintenance of social relationships, politeness in communication goes to the very heart of social life and interaction; indeed it is probably a precondition for human cooperation in general (Brown: 2015).

2.4 Cultural Heritage Preservation and Economic Growth Improvement.

The advancement of science and technology is not a barrier to preserve cultural heritage; on the contrary it can be used as added value to maintain cultural heritage. Such rapid delivery of information makes it easier for everyone to provide a description of the importance of maintaining the values inherent in each of these cultural heritages. There are at least four arguments behind the preservation of heritage: (1) scientific (re-search and increased knowledge), (2) political (messages and symbolism), (3) social (sense of place and cultural identity) and (4) economic (attracts tourists and visitors to the region). Cultural heritages play a strong role in both economic and social life even though the majority remains informal, without public protection and without explicit management as they are the main institutions that connect history, territory and society, defining the cultural context of social life (Nilson and Kristina: 2018).

Each region in Indonesia has a variety of cultural heritages that characterize the life of the nation and state and at this time, due to the rapid change of age, cultural heritage is easily eroded; then each individual, community group, and government must work together to rebuild or maintain the existing cultural heritage because the values of local wisdom contained therein are very beneficial for the harmonization of life. The effort to improve the standard of living by increasing economic growth is also a value of local wisdom which in this study is related to running a coffee café business. Increasing economic growth is not absolutely the responsibility of the government because every individual is also responsible for this problem because every individual is part of the government.

When the economy is growing rapidly, all parties, the government and the community can benefit: government and community revenues will increase; poverty can be overcome well, life expectancy also increases and the education system is getting better. Historically nothing has worked better than economic growth in enabling societies to improve the life chances of their members, including those at the very bottom (Rodrik: 2013).

3. Research Method

This research is conducted with a descriptive qualitative method and also supported by a phenomenological quantities, namely expressing events, and analyzing phenomena, events, social activities, attitudes of beliefs, perceptions, thoughts of people individually or in groups (Creswell: 2009), in this case related to the rise of coffee café business in the city of
Medan, and subsequently producing descriptive data in the form of written or oral words from people and observed behavior (Moleong: 2011).

The locations are three coffee cafes randomly chosen as representatives of all coffee cafes in the city of Medan, supported by primary data and secondary sources. Primary data are obtained directly from the locations while secondary data from various sources such as: interviews, questionnaires, random sampling and also related references. Another additional technique is observation, documentation, quick notes referring to data analysis leading to local wisdom based on interactive data analysis (Miles and Huberman: 2014).

Non-structured interviews are applied in this study meaning that 25 respondents could answer all the questions freely related to the discussion of local wisdom. The respondents are academics in the fields of sociology, culture and enonomy knowing well benefits of coffee cafe business and other respondents are from among students, and community leaders. Regarding reliable validity, comparative techniques are used: data from observations with interview results; utterances in the community with those in privacy; community comments about the research situation with those outside the research situation; and the results of interviews and questioners with the contents of related documents.

4. Results and Discussion

Drinking coffee is no longer just drinking coffee, but has become a routine for the community. Discussing or chatting while drinking coffee is the cultural tradition of Indonesian society. At this time people come to the coffee café in the city of Medan not only to enjoy a cup of coffee, but they come to chat with each other and exchange ideas. Nowadays Indonesian people especially millennials are looking for a good place or Instagramable places to take pictures and post them on social media, they are more concerned with a good and unique place than the taste of coffee drinks.

Over time, the world of coffee is growing very rapidly. People who previously only enjoy instant coffee at home are now starting to move to coffee cafes in the city of Medan and this phenomenon can be seen with the rise of the opening of coffee cafes in the city of Medan. Coffee cafés are also experiencing rapid progress. Initially the coffee shops in the city of Medan are simple, and the facilities given are only long benches and stalls usually found on the side of the streets. This is the initial phase of the coffee shop and at this time, the coffee shop which is also called café is growing with the presence of contemporary facilities such as internet, television and also music and food. Coffee drinks are also of various variants such as black and cold coffee, milk coffee, espresso, and capuccino.
4.1 Local Wisdom

Local wisdom can be understood as human efforts based on the use of cognitive ability to act wisely towards the circumstances, objects, or events that occur in the local space and subsequently can be guided to a harmonious relationship, not only among humans, but also with the surrounding environments and nature. Thus it can be said that local wisdom has limited interaction space with limited values or norms, meaning that local wisdom in a community may not necessarily be applied to other communities, although it has the same goal of obtaining prosperity, harmony, and peace. This happens because the values and norms existing in the society originate from cultural inheritance. That is why local wisdom can also be said as traditional local wisdom.

Local wisdom or traditional local wisdom refers to locality because it is owned by a local community or certain community; but that does not mean that local wisdom is not universal. To say that local wisdom is not in line with modern science is only because the concept of it is wrongly interpreted. Science or technological progress is always considered universal and this is a reality; however local wisdom is also universal with the premise that local wisdom is related to humans and nature, and humans and nature are universal; then without being deliberately designed local wisdom is also universal.

4.2 Social Interaction Establishment through Polite Language.

Coffee cafes in Medan are built with different motivations. Coffee cafe business owners build their coffee cafés as business land, or also a hobby. For coffee drinkers, the function of a coffee cafe is as a place to drink coffee and at the same time establish social relations with new people or increasing the friendly relations that have existed before. A good coffee cafe is a place of diverse excitements, knowledge and learnings. A coffee cafe has a noble function, a meeting place for many people leading to friendship among them. The coffee cafe is a small universe where people meet and have exciting conversations. This is a coffee sho café, all the differences from various levels of society blended into one through this marvelous coffee. Much information is obtained at the coffee cafe and so many friendships are forged.

Surely the whole friendship or social interactions in a coffee cafe must be supported by polite communication. Politeness is an important element in social life, because by showing good manners, a person can be wherever he is. In social life norms or ethics are there. Good manners could provide benefits or good influence on people. Polite means rules of life arising from the results of association with a group of people in society and are considered to be the demands of the community and then manners can also be reflected through polite language as well.

Therefore politeness in language is very important especially if someone wants to make friends in a coffee cafe. When someone meets a new person or communicates with unknown people he must use polite language so that the persons could have a kind of acceptance. Then the coffee café is a forum for polite language learning.

4.3 Cultural Heritage Preservation

The tradition of drinking coffee is a cultural heritage in Indonesia and this tradition is not only found in the city of Medan, but in all parts of Indonesia. Indonesia is famous for being rich in cultures. These diverse cultures are one of the strengths which is at the same time characteristics of the Indonesian nation. One form of culture is the tradition of drinking
coffee, which comes from the past. These cultural heritage from the past can be a bridge to know the life of the present as well as the future.

However the process of globalization and social transformation causes the occurrence of symptoms of intolerance, also poses a serious threat that can cause deterioration, extinction and destruction of cultural heritage. The cultural heritage referred to here is various representations, expressions, skills and related instruments, objects, artifacts and cultural environments including various communities, groups, and in certain cases, individuals recognized as part of their cultural heritage.

Basically, coffee cafés entrepreneurs as well as the customers in the city of Medan have made a major contribution to the preservation of cultural heritage, namely the tradition of drinking coffee having local wisdom in the midst of the changing of times with all its knick knacks that can keep people away from their own culture. Without realizing it, people in Medan, especially millennials, have a good place to spend leisure time and at the same time get entertainment. In this way their activities can be more controlled and also prevented from going to other entertainment places of a higher risk.

4. 4 Economic Growth Improvement.

Improving the welfare is a part of local wisdom and the usual reference given to welfare is the improvement of the economy, both of individuals and groups. When a person’s life and group prosper, then they always keep themselves away from conflict, especially internal conflict because they want to live in peace and happiness. From this it can be said that the economy plays a very large role in solving social problems.

In connection with improving the economy, Indonesia as the third largest coffee producing country in the world has great potential to improve the welfare of the community if the natural resources can be managed properly, transparently and equally. The productions of Indonesian coffee is currently ranked the world’s third largest. Coffee does not only provide the experience of taste but also cultural identity of Indonesia. With the climate condition in the country, coffee can grow very well (Ditjen PEN: 2014).

This illustrates that the coffee supply in Indonesia, including the regions around Medan, is quite large and can be used to run a coffee cafe business smoothly, which means that coffee café entrepreneurs in the city of Medan need not worry about the lack of coffee supply. This can also stimulate coffee farmers to produce more coffee because of the availability of buyers; besides that coffee farmers of course also need more labor and with the existence of jobs like this the community's economic level will also increase.

Coffee cafes in Medan also open employment not only to those who work directly at the cafes, but also to those who do not work directly at the coffee cafes like other food vendors selling directly at the related coffee cafes or who entrust their food at the cafes. Economic growth is the economic condition of a place during a certain period that is better or increased than the previous period based on several indicators. These indicators are the increases in income of a person or group and the number of labors bigger than the unemployed, and the reduction in poverty levels. Based on this description, the existence of coffee cafes in Medan, also contributes to economic growth.

From the description above based on data obtained in the field, it is seen that the coffee cafe in Medan has points of local wisdom having data validity as follows:

Local wisdom in the coffee café in Medan is studied using 25 samples taken randomly, sourced from respondents from four community groups: millennial generation, academicians, community leaders, and practitioners who all settle in Medan and know very
well about the condition of the city of Medan. The research instrument used is a structured interview and questioner. The results show that there are three points of local wisdom in the coffee café in Medan. The results of the questionnaire and interview show that of the 25 samples, 96% or 24 people agree that there is local wisdom in the coffee café in Medan, one does not give answer. Furthermore, for points of local wisdom, the results show that 88% or 22 people agree that there is a Social Interaction Establishment through Polite Language in the coffee café, three do not give answer; 96% or 24 people agree with Cultural Heritage Preservation, one does not give answer and 92% or 23 people, for Economic Growth Improvement, two do not give any answer.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Answer Result/Number of Respondent</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Local Wisdom in Coffee Cafe</td>
<td>Agree: 24, Disagree: 0, No Answer: 1</td>
<td>96%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Interaction Establishment through Polite Language</td>
<td>Agree: 22, Disagree: 0, No Answer: 3</td>
<td>88%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural Heritage Preservation</td>
<td>Agree: 24, Disagree: 0, No Answer: 1</td>
<td>96%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic Growth Improvement</td>
<td>Agree: 23, Disagree: 0, No Answer: 2</td>
<td>92%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thus it is illustrated that all the answers are close to 100% meaning that there is local wisdom in the form of Social Interaction Establishment through Polite Language, Cultural Heritage Preservation, and Economic Growth Improvement in coffee cafes in Medan city

5. Conclusion

The tradition of drinking coffee, a cultural heritage deserves to be preserved because there are points of local wisdom to be used as guidelines in carrying out and improving living standards so that eventually social problems can be resolved wisely and the community can live in peace and happiness. Through this research, with an anthropolinguistic approach, it is illustrated that the coffee cafe business which is very popular lately in Medan has three significant points of local wisdom: Social Interaction Establishment through Polite Language, Cultural Heritage Preservation and Economic Growth Improvement. Data validation of the three forms of local wisdom is supported by questionnaire and interview data collection techniques.

The locations of the research are coffee cafés chosen randomly in the city of Medan. Medan City is a multiracial city, inhabited by various ethnics having good relations with one another. This relationship is certainly based on politeness in language so that the people of Medan are easy to get along with. By tolerance, empathy and sympathy between one and other tribes, they can maintain the existing cultural heritage with mutual respect. Furthermore, individuals who inhabit multiracial areas are generally determined to earn a living with a high level of innovation and creativity to maintain their tribal prestige and these are all points of local wisdom that are also found in coffee cafes in the city of Medan. These three points of local wisdom enter the realm of language frameworks referring to the Anthropolinguistic approach.
References
MORPHOLOGICAL AND ANALYTIC CAUSATIVE CONSTRUCTION IN DELI JAVANESE DIALECT

Zuindra, Mulyadi
Universitas Sumatera Utara, Medan, Indonesia
E-mail: zuindraigris@gmail.com

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Abstract
This article discusses causative construction of Deli Javanese dialect which focuses on morphological and analytic causative construction. This study aims to reveal how morphological and analytic causative constructions in Deli Javanese dialect are formed. The theory of causative construction concept is based on Comrie (1989). The research data were obtained from text books, journals and interview. The causative construction in this analysis was elaborated by using tree diagram. The result showed that the morphological causative construction of Deli Javanese dialect utilized the verbs, which were shown by prefixes and suffixes. The causative construction in the verb nggodoke ‘boil something for somebody’ is derived from nggodok ‘boil’; thus, it is indicated by the suffix –e. Meanwhile, the analytic causative construction utilized nggawe ‘make’ in which it indicates an action with desire. Furthermore, Analytic causative construction in Deli Javanese dialect is a clause construction, which has two predicates. This research finally provides some contributions and references for any further research related to the causative construction within any languages.

Keywords: Javanese dialect, causative construction, morphological causative, analytic causative.

1. Introduction
The types of causative constructions that each language has are different from one language to another. At least there are three ways to express causation: analytic causative, morphological causative and lexical causative (Comrie, 1989). Some languages have all the three types of causative constructions and some others have only two types of causative construction such as lexical causative and analytic causative.

In Indonesian language, analytic causative construction can be formed by such verbs as membuat ‘make’, menyebabkan ‘cause’, mengizinkan ‘allow’, memerintahkan ‘order’, and menyaruh ‘ask’. Such a construction is very productive because Indonesian language consists of a combination of several regional languages so that it is interesting to examine the similarities and differences in the causative construction of the Indonesian language and the related regional languages. One of them is Javanese language which is mainly spoken in Java Island and has spread to various provinces across the country in various dialects, including to the province of North Sumatra in a certain dialect. Based on the level of speech, Javanese can be divided into three main strata namely Ngoko Javanese, Madya Javanese and Krama Javanese (Wedhawati 2006: 11). Ngoko is the Javanese language, which is used as the source of data in this research. It is frequently spoken by Sumatran people known as Deli Javanese.
Morphological and Analytic Causative Construction in Deli Javanese Dialect, Zuindra, Mulyadi

dialect for daily conversation in informal situation.

Furthermore, in Javanese there are also three types of causative construction as proposed by Comrie (1989) covering analytic causative, lexical causative and morphological causative. The verbs are to express their causer and causee as depicted in the Javanese language like the word *nggawe* ‘make’ and *marakake* ‘cause’. The construction of the cause with the verb *nggawe* is different from that with *marakake*. The use of the verb *nggawe* in causative construction implies an action with a will, while the use of the verb *marakake* does not indicate an action with a will. In this research, the lexical causative is not analyzed because it simply contains general meaning not as the other two. In the analytic causative construction in Javanese the suffix used in the verb carries a similar meaning. In addition, this language uses separate verbs that express their causer and causee as in the following example.

1. Bejo *nggawe tetongone sengsoro* (analytic causative)
   Bejo nggawe.ACT tetonggo.POSS sengsoro
   ‘Bejo makes his neighbors miserable’

2. Bejo *nyengsoroke tetonggone* (morphological causative)
   Bejo sengsoro. ACTtetonggo.POSS
   ‘Bejo torments his neighbors’

3. Bejo *nggangngoni tetonggone* (lexical causative)
   Bejo nngangngoni.ACT tetonggo.POSS
   ‘Bejo disturbs his neighbors’

Sentence (1) is an analytic causative which consists of two predicates: *nggawe* ‘make’ and *sengsoro* ‘miserable’, while sentence (2) is a morphological causative because this sentence uses morphological markers or prefix *ny-* and suffix *-ke* to change a non-causative verb to become causative. Whereas, sentence (3) is a lexical causative because one predicate already contains the idea of cause and effect.

Based on the explanation above, this research discusses: 1) the form of morphological and analytic causative construction in Deli Javanese dialect, and 2) the process of forming a morphological and analytic causative construction in the language. This analysis is seriously done to provide linguistic knowledge on the forms of morphological and analytic causative construction in the language under research.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Causative Concept

The concept of causative construction is expressed by Goddard (1998: 266) who states that causative construction is an expression which contains an event that is caused by someone's actions or because something happened. The concept of causative is also given by Artawa (2004: 48) who states that almost every language has its own way of forming or expressing causative construction. In general, causative construction describes a micro or event consisting of (1) the event of causee that causes an event and (2) the event that occurs or the result happens caused by the action of causee (Shibatani, 1976: 239, Comrie, 1989: 330).

Generally, causativity in several languages in the world occurs on three basic clauses, namely the intransitive basic clause, the monotransitive basic clause, and the transitive basic clause (Comrie, 1989). In each part, the different relation shifting occurs after experiencing a
causative process. In this case, relation is the relationship between verbs and arguments that are respectively interdependent in the structure of the clause. The causativity event was described by Comrie (1988) and Purwiati (2012) as follows:

Tabel 1. Alteration of Valence of Non-causative Basic Verbs to Causative Verbs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Clause</th>
<th>Non-Causative Basic Verbs</th>
<th>Causative Verb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intransitive</td>
<td>SUBJ, OL</td>
<td>SUBJ, OL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monotransitive</td>
<td>SUBJ, OL, OL, OBL</td>
<td>SUBJ, OTL, OBL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ditransitive</td>
<td>SUBJ, OL, OTL, OBL</td>
<td>SUBJ, OTL, OBL</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.1.1 Morphological Causative Construction

Morphological causative construction is characterized from the verb makes use of a prefix or/and a suffix, for example in Ndari nyenengke mbakyune ‘Ndari makes her elder sister happy’. The suffix -ke is a marker of morphological causative construction. Furthermore, in Deli Javanese dialect, an example of morphological causative construction is generally depicted as follows:

(1). a. Suratman nggodoke wedang kanggo dayohe. ‘Suratman boiled drinking water for his guest.’
   b. Bapak ngeleboke kereto. ‘Father put into the house someone’s motorbike.’

The verb nggodoke shows that wedang ‘drinking water’ in (1a) is a target that becomes direct object of the verb nggodoke ‘boiled something for someone’, and dayohe ‘his guest’ is the indirect object, which is preceded by the preposition kanggo ‘for’. In the sentence (1b), the verb ngeleboke ‘put into the house’ has the direct effect to the object kereto ‘motorbike’.

2.1.2 Analytic Causative Construction

Analytic causative construction consists of two predicates or verbs, which function as predicate1 and predicate2. In accordance with the example below, in Deli Javanese dialect, predicate1 is filled with the verb nggawe ‘make’ or marakke ‘cause’, and predicate2 is a condition, process, or verb that performs an action or results in an event. Nggawe and marakke causative verbs differ semantically in the sense that with the verb nggawe ‘make’, the event that occurs is caused by the desired action, whereas with the verb marakke, the action on the causer is undesirable. It can be depicted in the following examples:

(2). a. Ponirin nggawe bojone sengsoro. ‘Ponirin makes his wife suffer’
   b. Nindi marakke tokone ambrok. ‘Nindi causes the shop to collapse.’
The verb *nggawe* in sentence (2a) shows that the predicate has an indirect object *bojone* ‘his wife’. It seems that the meaning of the sentence is wider compared with the form of morphological causative as *Ponirin nyengsoroke bojone* ‘Ponirin makes his wife suffer’. In sentence (2b) the predicate shows an action done unpurposely or undesirably. The two sentences have the same pattern in grammatical SVOV. In other words, between predicate1 and predicate2 there are noun phrases (NP) as the grammatical objects of the causative verbs.

### 2.2 Types of Causative Construction

The types of causative constructions that each language has are different from each other. Some languages have all the three types of causative construction (lexical causative, morphological causative and analytic causative) and some languages have only two types of causative construction: lexical causative and analytic causative. Languages that have all the three types of constructions generally belong to agglutinative language type because this type of language has affixes that can be attached to a verb that function to increase or decrease the valence of the verb. Meanwhile, a language that has only two types of causative construction is a type of language known as isolating because the language in general does not have an affix that functions to increase or decrease the valence of the verb.

Goddard (1998: 266) explains that causative construction is an expression which contains an event that is caused by someone's action or because something happens. Opinions about causative construction are also expressed by Artawa (2004: 48), which reveals that almost every language has a unique way of forming or expressing causative construction. In general, a causative construction is a construction that describes a macro-complex situation that contains two micro situations or events consisting of (1) causee of events that cause an event to occur and (2) events that occur or the effect caused by the action of causee (Shibatani 1976: 239, Comrie, 1989: 330).

In this research, it is necessary to describe the syntactic categories of the language under discussion as this is concerned with a syntactic approach. Syntactic categories refer to the types of syntactic units that theories of syntax assume, known as parts of speech or word classes in traditional theory. In generative grammar, a syntactic category is symbolized by a node label in a constituent structure tree. The forms of syntactic categories can be listed below as composed by O’Grady (1997: 169), and divided into two categories:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lexical Categories</th>
<th>Non-Lexical Categories</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Noun (N)</td>
<td>Determiner (Det)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verb (V)</td>
<td>Degree Word (Deg)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjective (A)</td>
<td>Auxiliary (Aux)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proposition (P)</td>
<td>Conjunction (Conj)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

One of the most common ways to create a visual representation of syntactic structure is through tree diagrams. Symbols (Art=article, N = noun, NP = noun phrase) are used to label the parts of the tree to capture the hierarchical organization of those parts in the underlying structure of phrases and sentences.

Baker (1998) defines that “Tree diagrams are used quite widely in scholarly works and textbooks. Their major justification is that they provide quick and efficient representations of some important organizational properties of individual sentences”. Tree diagram depicts the representation of syntactic structure as shown below:
3. Research Method

The method used in this study is called marking techniques. The markers indicate the occurrence of certain lingual units or constituents and the ability to read the role of the markers themselves to determine the intended event. The practice of its use is very typical, not using tools as other techniques but rather seeing the markers directly concerned, which can be done syntactically. Besides corporal markers, there are other types of markers, which are not specifically related to each form but cover many different lingual forms with the same pragmatic intent as there are varied voices of adventure. Therefore, this study uses the marking technique as a research method and morphological causative construction as the basis for determining the marker. Furthermore, this research includes data collection and data analysis. The research begins with the process of capturing data, collecting, identifying and classifying them. Furthermore, the data that have been classified are analyzed with the appropriate steps. To find out the use of the causative construction in Javanese sentences, we need data that supports the analysis. Therefore, this study began with data collection and continued with the data analysis to achieve the objectives of this study. To broaden the understanding on the analysis result, it is necessary to design a tree diagram based on its syntactic categories of each finding that follows the concept of Brake (1998) and O’Grady (1997).

4. Result and Discussion

4.1 Morphological Causative

As stated by Whaley (1997: 194-195), the degree of causativity is the movement from indirect to direct, following the sequence of Analytical-morphological-lexical causative construction. When using certain morphological devices, for example affixation, the construction is morphological causative (Comrie 1989: 167). The Morphological causative constructions were found in the sentence below.

(1) Paiman *mateni* lampu.
   PaimanACT.mati lampu.
   ‘Paiman turned off the lamp.’

The suffix -ni is a marker of morphological causative construction. The subject Paiman is the agent which is followed by a transitive verb *mateni* ‘switch off’ with the object *lampu* ‘lamp’ as the patient. The verb *mateni* has a direct effect to the object *lampu*.

(2) a. Guru *notok* mejo karo tangane.
    Guru totok mejo prep tangan-poss.
    ‘The teacher hit the table with his hand.’
b. Guru notoke tangane nang mejo.
   Guru notok+Caus tangan+poss prep mejo.
   ‘The teacher hit his hand on the table.’

2. (a) Guru Notok mejo karo tangane.

   (b) Guru notokke tangane nang mejo.

   The verb notok shows that mejo (2a) is a target that becomes a direct object, whereas the verb notoke, the target which formally becomes a direct object is tangane. There is a change in the verb form morphologically in which the word notok is added by suffix –e to become nototke. It shows that the morphological causative construction occurs. It is also similar to example (1) which also shows a causative construction that distinguishes concretely, whose target formally becomes a direct object, but it has no affixes on the verb. In Deli Javanese dialect, this becomes important because there is a direct/nonsemantic effect, like the following finding:

   (3)   a. Bapak tuku lereng baru kanggo Bejo.
   BapakACT. lerengbaru PREP Bejo.
‘Father bought a new bicycle for Bejo.’

b. Bapak nukokake Bejo lereng baru.
BapakACT.tuku Bejo lereng baru.
‘Father bought Bejo a new bicycle.’

3. (a) Bapak tuku lereng baru kanggo Bejo.

If analyzed through a valence sequence converter (Whaley 1997: 188), the direct object in (3a) is lereng, while (3b) is Bejo. The problem is that kanggo bejo in (3a) can be removed, while the NP lereng baru in (3b) cannot be eliminated. Here, it means that there is no addition of valence. Syntactically gawe bejo in (3a) becomes optional. Thus, (3a) has 2 arguments, while (3b) has 3 arguments. The relationship with the causee accessibility hierarchy is that (3a) has the following pattern; (3a) ibune> lereng baru, while (3b) ibune> Bejo> lereng baru. Deli Javanese dialect also describes a construction of intransitive pattern. Does it also show a direct effect semantically? Let us see the following finding:

(4) Dokter ngombekne obat kanggo pasiene.
DokterACT.ngombe obat PREPPasien-DEM.
‘The doctor took the medicine to her patients.’
The suffix -ne in ngombekne is a marker of morphological causative construction. In this case, Dokter is the agent for the patient of the word obat and it becomes the first object as well. Pasiene is the second object, which is preceded by the preposition kanggo. The word ngombekne is a transitive verb, which gives an immediate effect. Similar to example (4), the following example is a sentence pattern with verbs that undergo a morphological causative construction.

(5) Pak Mahmud nggawe Budi dadi menejer.

Semantically, nggawe contains an immediate effect. Budi is the first object, while the menejer is the second object. Although the word nggawe and jadi show the cause and effect likely occurring in the syntactic causative construction, it also depicts the form of morphological causative with the affixes of the verb nggawe in which it derives from the word gawe becomes nggawe with the prefix –ng. The level of control is very large in the morphological causative verb.

4.2 Analytic Causative

Analytic causative construction is a causative construction which has a predicate that expresses cause and effect, the cause is expressed by a word separated from the word that
shows what is caused (Comrie, 1989: 165–171). The forms of analytic causative were found as follows:

1. **a. Joko teko nang pesta.**
   
   Joko ACT PREP pesta.
   ‘Joko came to the party.’

   b. Raden nggawe Joko teko nang pesta.
   
   Raden ACT. Gawe Joko ACT PREP pesta.
   ‘Raden made Joko come to the party.’

2. **(a) Joko teko nang pesta.**

   ![Diagram of (a) Joko teko nang pesta]

   **(b) Raden nggawe Joko teko nang pesta.**

   ![Diagram of (b) Raden nggawe Joko teko nang pesta]

2. **a. Murid nggoleki gurune**

   Murid ACT.golek guru-DEM
   ‘The students look for the teacher.’

   b. Tugas oma nggawe murid nggoleki gurune

   Tugas oma ACT.gawe murid ACT. golek guru-DEM
   ‘The homework made the students look for the teacher.’

2. **(a) Murid nggoleki gurune.**
Based on the finding above it can be seen that the causative construction in (1-b) and (2-b) is formed from the noncausative construction (1-a) and (2-a). From the type of predicate, the noncausative construction (1-a) makes use of an intransitive verb, while the noncausative construction (2-a) makes use of a transitive verb. Observe that the change from noncausative construction with an intransitive verb (1-a) and with a transitive verb (2-a) to causative construction (1-b) and (2-b) requires the presence of causative verbs nggawe. The presence of the causative verb nggawe causes analytic causative construction with two different predicates in each construction. The effect of adding a causative verb is the addition of an argument that functions as a causer. The presence of the verb nggawe in sentence (1-b) demands the presence of the word Raden as a causer so that it raises the result of Joko teko nang pesta. Likewise, with sentence (2-b), the causative verb nggawe causes tugas omah ‘homework’ causes something to students so that murid nggoleki gurune ‘the student look for the teacher’.

3. a. **Pandi nggawe ibu bungah.**
   PandiACT.gawe ibu bungah
   ‘Pandi makes mother happy.’

   b. **Pandi nggawe bungah ibu.**
   PandiACT.gawebungahibu.
   ‘Pandi makes happy to mother.’

   (a) **Pandi nggawe ibune bungah.**
Analytic causative construction in Javanese usually has an SVOV word order; the same happens to most other ethnic languages in Indonesia. In other words, between predicate1 and predicate2 there is a noun phrase to be the grammatical object of the causative verb. However, when the predicates use verbs with the intention to convey as the word *bungah*, then the predicate2 can be immediately paired after the predicate1, resulting in SVVO pattern which is a variation of the canonical pattern of SVOV word order.

5. Conclusion

In Deli Javanese dialect, causative construction has a few forms in its process. After describing the process, it is concluded that morphological causative construction implies that the meaning of *cause* and *effect* is indicated by prefixes and suffixes as in the verbs *mati* ‘die’ and *mateni* ‘kill’; it is indicated by the suffix *-ni*. On the other hand, analytic causative construction in Deli Javanese dialect can be formed by using the verbs *nggawe* ‘make’, a verb stating a cause either a condition or an action verb. The use of the verb *nggawe* in a causative construction implies an action with an intention. Analytic causative construction in Javanese is a ‘biclausal’ construction. In general analytic causative construction can be formed with more productive causative verbs, such as *make, cause, allow, order* and *ask*. From the categories, the analytic causative construction in Javanese has two verbs, the one in the noncausative construction which is the basis for the formation of analytic causative construction and the other one in the causative construction which can be in the form of intransitive verbs, transitive verbs, adjectives, and nouns. The emergence of a cause and effect
component explicitly makes it easy to identify micro situations in analytic causative construction.

References
PSYCHOLOGICAL STUDY OF THEMES IN TONI MORISON’S
THE BLUEST EYE THROUGH INFERIORITY COMPLEX

Zanyar Kareem Abdul
Department of English, College of Education and Language,
University of Charmo, Sulaimany, Iraq
E-mail: zanyar.kareem@charmouniversity.org

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Abstract
Toni Morrison’s The Bluest Eye (1970) is one of the controversial modern American novels. She is a Noble Prize winner whose works are praised for addressing the harsh consequences of racism and colour issue in America. The story is written during 1941, the Great Depression in which a black family suffers from poverty, colour skin, and familial issues. Pecola Breedlove, as the protagonist, suffers from Inferiority Complex in a dysfunctional family whose desire is to have white skin and blue eyes. The inferiority complex theory was taken from Alfred Adler, whose works are significantly backbone in the world of psychology. The aims of this research are to analyse the personality of Pecola through which she searches for an ideal beauty as a black female character in the novel and to demonstrate the impact of racist attitude and incestuous relationship within a family. The research result shows that Pecola’s lives provide an example of the pain which results from facing Inferiority Complex on which she never sees herself as a complete image of being. It is somewhat broken and lacks self-esteem through which she was seen as a mad woman in the attic.

Keywords: black, sex abuse, beating, inferiority complex, psychology

1. Introduction
Toni Morrison is one of the most compelling American writers whose works are seen as the revolutionary spirit, Noble Prize winner. The Bluest Eye (1970) is one of the novels which brought a lot of discussion and close critical attention. Morison again focuses on one black female, Pecola, who longs for having blue eyes. Failure to having so, she suffers, cries, and saddened by her inability to be beautiful like other beautiful girls in the town. Morison’s themes go around blackness, patriarchal society, raping and female suffering. She is seen as one of the feminist writers in the American history. She was born in Ohio in 1931, died in 2019. Song of Solomon (1977) and Beloved (1987) are the two major works which positions Morrison in the world of literature.

The Bluest Eye (1970) locates in Lorain, Ohio, and the story is about a young African-American lady named Pecola who grows up during the years following the Great Depression. Set in 1941, the novel tells the readers dark skin is a significant issue for her; she is consistently regarded as "ugly." As a result, she suffers inferiority complex, which fuels her desire for the blue eyes she equates with "whiteness." The theory belongs to Alfred Adler, Sigmund Freud’s colleague.
1.2 Literature Review

Morrison’s story categorizes specific themes such as “Patriarchy, female suffering, rape, and black skin,” it is thus regarded as one of the pioneering female novelists in the history of America. Many critics have confirmed Morrison is the wave of feminism by herself. The novel was written when she was 39, was proudly reviewed by Leonard John in The New York Times, stating, "prose so precise, so faithful to speech and so charged with pain and wonder that the novel becomes poetry ... But The Bluest Eye is also history, sociology, folklore, nightmare, and music." (1970) It has to be stated that Morrison’s works reflect black women; but did not call herself a feminist as clarified in one of her interviews that she wanted to be free from all the obstacles as much as possible, confirming that "off-putting to some readers, who may feel that I’m involved in writing some kind of feminist tract. I don't subscribe to patriarchy, and I don't think it should be substituted with matriarchy. I think it's a question of equitable access, and opening doors to all sorts of things." (Jaffrey, 1998).

1.3 Research Method

Okonjo Ogunyemi claims the novel presents an indirect attack of the values of the white majority through the presentation of these values (354). However, Morrison’s novels are analyzed and interpreted from different point of views: applying some theories by which the value of her works deem suffice. The argument is chosen in the research is the Inferiority Complex, which belongs to the Austrian Psychologist, Alfred Adler. Adler’s theory is about Individual Psychology, which is a direct connection to the psychology of children, a journey from childhood to adulthood. What is taken to the point is that there is “no gap” left between theory and practice; it is somewhat tightens the unity of personality. On account of the method of approach of Individual Psychology, its doctrines hang together as an organic whole. Because it sees the behavior of individuals as motivated and directed by the unity of personality, whatever Individual Psychology has to say about human behavior reflects the same interrelation that is manifested in the activities of the psyche.” (The Education of Children, Adler: 4)

1.4 Discussion

Psychonalaysis is always a subject in analyzing a novel, especially Morison’s novels. Thus, Adler’s inferioty complex is nifty in relation to the analysis. Regarding the construction, applicable to Pecola, related to its unity, i.e., it has goals which are built on objective reality, on the contrary, it is on a subjective vision that the individual takes the facts of life. Each person tries to organize himself/ herself according to his personal view, thinks, decides, and sees according to his judgment whether it is right choice or no. Although Adler takes his examples from his clinical cases, the researcher takes into account of literature. Inferiority Complex is another primary concern in Adler’s psychology, which in inevitable and thus becomes a part of human nature. From this, compensations and satisfactions are required to complete the gaps. Definitions and analysis are given further in the following sections related to the novel The Bluest Eyes, and Pecola as a young female protagonist, will be the centre-analysed character. The themes are organized according to the following: skin/Blue eyes, sexual abuse/rape, and finally familial issues.

Alfred Adler brings one example of a boy who faces shuttering and tries to hide, or even having thoughts of committing suicide. This becomes a kind of accurate constitution of his life’s pattern. But he still needs to overcome the struggle even though he is in the centre of attention. Pecola is taken as one example that faces the Inferiority Complex through which
obstacles are found in making proper personality. She longs for having the white skin and bluest eyes, which becomes obsessed with that, and as result she goes through challenges and complexity in not deeming what she wants to achieve. She is marked at the first place stating, “Our house is old, cold, and green. At night a kerosene lamps light on the large room. The others are braced in darkness, peopled by roaches and mice. Adults do not talk to us- they gave us directions. They issues orders without providing information. When we trip and fall down they glance at us; if we cut or bruise ourselves, they ask us are we crazy.” (The Bluest Eye, 8)

The very beginning of the novel, Pecola is seen as facing the Inferiority Complex by complaining and attacking neighbours and people around her area. A young girl from a poor who believes her black skin is the barrier and lacking white skin with blue eyes; people see them as nothing except an object. Due to lacking the blue eyes, she suffers psychological malaise and needs to recover it, compensation in Adler's term. This produces negative feelings on her, making her isolated in the community in which she cannot be accepted. Uncontrollably, she uses some harsh words, which are the reflection of the Complex she suffers, such as “nigger, fuck, and crazy”. She keeps staring at people who have white, and beautiful white body including the teeth; she cannot help it and thus becomes a gap of her personality. She even envies dolls which “blue-eyed yellow-haired” because they are treasured, “This is beautiful and if you are on this day “worthy” you may have it. I fingered the face, wondering at the single-stroke eyebrows; picked at the pearly teeth stuck like two piano keys between red bowline lips. Traced the turned-up nose, poked the glassy blue eyeballs, twisted the yellow hair.” (The Bluest Eye, 19)

Children, such as Pecola, with this type becomes critical and starts nagging about everything which later becomes some sort of hatred towards others, as Pecola’s anger is detected to decide ‘to destroy white babe dolls’. Pecola prays for blue eyes and being accepted in her community of African American society. She is not valued for what she is and what has been given. Pecola becomes obsessed with what she longs for; fair complexion and blonde hair with blue eyes are always in her imagination. She sees herself “ugly”, and it destroys her both physically and psychologically because it devalues women by proposing all women’s price lies in her beauty. She wants to define the word “ugliness”, “Long hours she sat looking in the mirror, trying to discover the secret of the ugliness, the ugliness that made her ignored or despised at school, by teachers and classmates alike” (43). Failure to do so, instead, she asks God to make her disappear, vanishing into thin air. The whole community is under the control of beauty by which Pecola cannot identify herself; instead she becomes a prey in it. A community, Morrison criticizes, in which race becomes a nightmare and black girls continuously compares themselves with others such as Shirley Temple. The physical attractiveness is found on the cover of the cup in which Pecola compares herself with the photo, touching the eyes, nose and her skin. The wishes all come out wholeheartedly to cover the Complex according to which she sees herself as nothing except a piece of object on the road. “But their ugliness was unique. No one could have convinced them that they were not relentlessly and aggressively ugly [...] the rest of the family – Mrs. Breedlove, Sammy Breedlove, and Pecola Breedlove- wore their ugliness,
It is seen then Pecola does not see herself as an integral part of her community, she believes that the value of African American culture has diminished. She is left all over and becomes a victim of her community. Adler in *Understanding Human Nature* (1927) confirms that children have inferiorities may suffer struggles and experience a bitter life. They are always obsessive with themselves then soon will become conscious about their inability to cope with life and their existence, This feeling of inferiority is the driving force, the starting point from which every childish striving originates. It determines how this individual child acquires peace and security in life, it determines the very goal of his existence, and prepares the path along which this goal may be reached.” (70) It applies to Pecola when she finds emptiness in her life and existence. Failure to have what she wishes for, she is also raped by his father, Cholly. Leaving Pecola pregnant, her dreams and hopes all fade away. Morrison signifies the seasons artistically concerning the characters such as Spring and Autumn, Pecola’s babe dies after a while. She left alone and has to carry her colour, blackness. The feeling of Inferiority brings up insecurity of oneself. Instead, she creates an imaginary picture for herself,


She notes different girls around her neighbourhood, checking every single individual scanning their eyes. She is not yet satisfied, but rather a sharp focus on Mary Jane, little picture on the candy cover who has blonde hair, white skin and blue eyes. She believes that by eating the candy is to have the blue eyes, sort of compensation of the Inferiority Complex. Adler in his *Individual Psychology* (1925) again focuses on Striving for Superiority in which “self-esteem” and “security” are given under the category, relatively this is what Pecola fails to achieve so; she realizes lacking the two and impossible to compensate it. As a result, she remains as she is and left alone as a victim in the community. Adler reckons that everyone strives for superiority and Pecola is one of the examples in the frame of Adlerian Psychology. Familial issues are also significant in the novel especially in the relationship between Cholly and his wife. Cholly is an irresponsible father who is careless and drunk all the times, his “habitual drunkenness and omeriness, provided them both with the material they needed to make their lives tolerable” (The Bluest Eye 36).

At the beginning of the novel, readers are introduced to the fight that Pauline had with her father, Cholly. She is angry and keeps her father to push his fight away from the house, their fighting “relieves the tiresomeness of poverty” (The Bluest Eye 36). It is a failure
in creating her being, and it rather creates a crisis and delays any attempts for creating themselves. Pettis notices,

Pauline's aggressiveness would seem to distinguish significantly between her response to violence and Pecola's passivity, but in response to the psychological violence perpetrated on black women by the dominant culture, Pauline, like Pecola, practices passivity rather than resistance and succumbs to a fantasy of reality.” (28)

Pecola wants to make herself disappear, fed up from that tension she is in. Pauline is also tired listening to the continuous fight between her parents. No solutions at hand when it comes to avoiding being in that bitter reality, difficult survival. In terms of acceptance, Pauline, like Cholly and Pecola, remain “frozen in a world of being-for-the-other and consequently live a life of shame, alienation, self-hatred, and inevitable destruction”. (Samuels and Hudson-Weems “The Damaging Look” 10-11). There is no place for him in the community and also regarded as the dead soul in the family. The dysfunctional family has also affected Pecola’s inferiority through which an incomplete personality appears, which includes anger, hatred, and self-pity.

1.5 Conclusion

Morrison’s harsh message in attaching the white community is undeniable, and it denotes the victims in a way readers become a part of it. The path of self-love and self-creation in identifying themselves become a nightmare. Pecola’s non-stop attempts in assuring herself owning white skin, and blue eyes are inevitable. Longing for what she wishes for and her painful images in front of her eyes make her insane at the end of the novel. In The Bluest Eye, Morrison encourages questioning of black society’s value where black females are the victims and heartbroken. Pecola’s lives provide an example of the pain which results from facing Inferiority Complex on which she never sees herself as a complete image of being. It is somewhat broken and lacks self-esteem through which seen as a madwoman in the attic. In The Bluest Eye, one can see a journey in which self-creation and self-acceptance have lost their ways. Thus, nothing is left except the fact of accepting society’s norms.

References


EVALUATION ON LANGUAGE ATTITUDE OF PRESIDENTIAL CANDIDATES IN THE DISCOURSE OF DEBAT CAPRES 2019: APPRAISAL ANALYSIS

Dian Marisha Putri
Faculty of Cultural Science,
Universitas Sumatera Utara, Medan, Indonesia
E-mail: dian.marisha@usu.ac.id

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Abstract
General Election in 2019 is considered as the biggest party in democracy; it was used as the source of data from the third and the fourth segment on March 30, 2019. They were then transcribed and analyzed by using appraisal pattern study based on three analyses: engagement, attitude, and graduation in the appraisal pattern attitude. The result of the research in DC discourse consisted of engagement, attitude, and graduation. The attitude pattern of the presidential candidates comes from personality and the ‘order’ of political parties. Negative attitude is conveyed in the forms of expressions in dissatisfaction, injustice, greed, ambition, moral messages, noble values, and generosity. The function of presidential candidate debate is in the series of democratic system. Positive attitude identified in the Presidential Debate discourse through the utterances of Presidential Candidate 1 and Presidential Candidate 2 was analyzed through their implicit and explicit expressions such as a) acting in the firm way, b) acting hesitatingly, c) patience, and optimistic, and d) attitude toward gender.

Keywords: Appraisal. Presidential Candidate Debate, Attitude

1. Introduction
The 2019 General Election is the biggest democratic event by combining Pilpres (Presidential Election) of 2019 in a series of elections which agenda is presidential election. The data of Presidential Candidate (henceforth, DC) debate of 2019 were analyzed by using appraisal pattern which was obtained from DC segment-4 on March 30, 2019. The discourse of DC was transcribed in the written form and analyzed by using appraisal analysis consisted of three types of analysis – engagement, attitude, and graduation.

Appraisal analysis is concerned with the language of evaluation, attitude, and emotion. The meaning used by the speakers or in the text is to distinguish the level of their engagement in own language. There are three types of Appraisal system – engagement, attitude, and graduation.

Appraisal study analyzes attitude correlated with social interaction and is focused on attitude and values negotiated with readers as what Martin points out that “Appraisal is concerned with evaluation: the kinds of attitudes that are negotiated in a text, the strength of the feeling involved and the ways in which values are sourced and readers aligned (Martin, 2003:22).”
Appraisal analysis is focused on the evaluation on attitude in a text. It is the combination of the power of feeling found in a text with the way how to get the values and its readers (Martin, 2003: 16). Appraisal study analyzes attitude related to social interaction. The focus in attitude and values is negotiated with the readers.

Attitude is related to evaluation on object, people’s character, and feeling. It consists of 3 basic evaluations - affect (one’s feeling), judgment (one’s character), and appreciation (value of an object).

Affect can be expressed through verbs which are related to the process of emotion (mental processes) such as to love, to hate, to frighten / to reassure, to interest / to bore, to enrage / to placate. It can be expressed through adverbs (adverbs of manner) such as happily / sadly and through adjectives which are related to emotion (adjectives of emotion) such as happy / sad, worried / confident, angry / pleased, keen / uninterested.

The system of attitude related to three semantic areas is emotion, aesthetics, and ethics. Evaluation system includes evaluation on behavior; for example, self-esteem (positive: to admire, negative: to criticize), or social sanction (positive: to praise, negative: to condemn). In consequence, evaluation on self-esteem is related to a lower or a higher status of a person evaluated by the other people (White, 2001).

Graduation/Amplifying attitude is how an attitude is applied. One thing which should be heeded about attitude is its gradable nature. Amplifying attitude has two types: force which is related to the fluctuation of voice and to intensifiers (word strength), attitudinal lexis (a word which has attitude), metaphor, and swearing. Martin and Rose (2003) point out that evaluation system is a framework which is aimed to map attitudes in a text, the structure of lexico-grammatical terms, and grammatical sources used by writers to position them among the participants and various events.

2. Research Methodology

Descriptive qualitative approach is a clear writing style of a research which makes a reader be able to know the substance of DC. The discourse of DC 2019 as primary and secondary data was obtained from literature. An analysis of qualitative data, according to Bodgan and Bikle in Moleong (2005: 248) is an attempt to work with data, to organize them, to sort them to be a unit which can be managed, to synthesize them, to seek, to find the important ones and what should be learned, and to decide what can be told to someone else. McDrury in Moleong (2005: 248) mentions the stages of analyzing qualitative data as follows: a) reading and studying the data and transcribing the discourse of the debate, b) identifying the keywords and ideas in the discourse of the debate, c) studying the keywords, d) writing the model, e) coding all which have been done, and f) concluding the result of the analysis of the discourse.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1 Attitude of Presidential Candidates

The appraisal analysis of the vocabulary on the data in the discourse of DC 2019 dialogues was based on the three types of analysis – engagement, attitude, and graduation. Ideology in the DC 2019 discourse was latent and the analysis on appraisal discourse was to evaluate and interpret the realization of the ideology. The result of the analysis on the data of DC 2019 was to identify its ideology. The DC discourse was analyzed as the expression of the feeling of the presidential candidate (henceforth, candidate) toward the phenomena conveyed in the DC as the candidates’ attitude expressed implicitly and explicitly such as a)
acting in a firm way, b) acting hesitatingly, c) patience, d) optimism, and e) attitude toward
gender. All of them will be discussed in detail.

3.1.1 Acting in a Firm Way

A leader’s firm behavior can be seen from his positive attitude, either explicitly or
implicitly, identified by a feeling in responding to various things as the perspective of idealism
which has been developed by the candidates, refracted through their characteristics. The firm
attitude of candidate 2 as positive idealism in criticizing social reality or an attempt to get
defensive when he is criticized (apologies).

This is seen from the clauses of firmness expressed in optative desiderative clauses or
expectation clauses strengthened by lexis “will” as follows: 1) “…therefore, I will upgrade all
law enforcement officials, I will instruct…”, 2) “I will confirm that there will be no
discrimination on any tribes, any religion, any ethnicities. The essence is that they have the
responsibility for the executive.” 3) “Thus, I guarantee that if any government officials violate
the law, I will fire them, keep my words, ladies and gentlemen.” 4) Probowo-Sandi team: “We
will uphold HAM, and it is a must. All of us will be proper.”

The candidate 1 said, “If there is persecution, as what Pak Sandi accuses, it is easy, let
me know and I will punish the perpetrator.’

3.1.2 Acting Hesitatingly

Organizing emotion is the form of patience which can affect the balance and the stability
of emotion as what has been expected by everyone. However, hesitation as an emotive
attitude of distrust against one of the candidates is the result of distrust against his leadership
as a political opponent. Distrust attitude as the form of hesitation will yield failure in leading
Indonesia in 5 years ahead.

The candidate 2 used lexis “maybe” four times in clauses: 1) I think maybe we are the
majority in all parties.” 2) Sir, we maybe reach 40 percent or maybe not reach 40 percent. I
have to say (that) maybe Pak Jokowi’s team does not work efficiently.”

Candidate 2 also used the lexis “must” 14 times while candidate 1 mentioned it 4 times.
The clauses are “I must say that it is most possibly that Pak Jokowi’s team does not work
efficiently.” “Infrastructure must be provided for the people, not the people for infrastructure,
we must calculate economy.” The attitude of distrust as the form of hesitation will yield failure
in leading Indonesia in 5 years ahead.

3.1.3 Optimistic Attitude

The candidates who have the insight for the future have to have optimistic attitude in
looking on various complicated problems of the State. Optimistic attitude is an attitude which
is reflected in the self-confidence of the candidates in considering the power of natural
resources and human resources. In this case they used “can” in 26 lexies and “have to” in 8
lexies. This was reflected in the DC 2019 with the clauses as follows: “The prerequisite is that
foreign workers who work in Indonesia have to speak Indonesian fluently or at least they can
speak English.

The use of lexis, “can” was found in 26 frequencies of clause. One of the examples used
by candidate 2 in the clause, “We can count numbers but we talk about output, we can have
more. So, what we are waiting for is what we cannot do right now.”
Candidate 1 also used the lexis “can” in 8 clauses; for example, “Our country can protect its people.” “Law has to be able to (= can) provide certainty.” Law can provide peace and comfort to all Indonesian people.”

Optimistic attitude is also identified by the use of lexis “must” which was mentioned 12 lexies by candidate 2 and 4 lexies by candidate 1. Candidate 2 said, “Law must be enforced for little people.” “We must provide welfare for them.” “HAM must be present in Indonesia.” “Infrastructure must be for the people.” “We must preserve cost and infrastructure must be oriented to the interest of all people.” Candidate 1 said, “The position must be given to professionals and not only to the persons from political parties.” “Why we must differentiate which party is.” “Philanthropy must be given to them.”

3.1.4 Negative Attitude

Negative attitude toward government institutions or toward individuals always exists due to dissatisfaction with the reality or discrepancy. Based on the analysis on the perception of the candidates in the form of affect was identified that in the DC discourse, one of the candidates expressed the contradicted attitude toward the government, the negative attitude of candidate 1 was as follows: “But I see that in the management structure of the political parties, strategic positions such as General Chairperson, Head of Board of Patrons, Head of Board of Advisors, Head of Executive Committee, Vice Head of Executive Committee, General Secretary, and Treasurer; all of them are men. Can you explain this inconsistency?” “Actually, I don’t need to answer it since Pak Prabowo admits it.” Based on the analysis on the data about the perception of the candidates in the form of affect, it was identified that the candidates in the DC discourse text often expressed negative attitude toward his opponent with the perspective of management structure of the political parties. This clause is a cynical remark to the authorities as the realization of self-expression toward candidate 2.

Negative attitude was also expressed by candidate 2 to candidate 1 in the lexis “must” as in “I also must say that it is most possible that Pak Jokowi’s team does not work efficiently.” “Infrastructure must be for the people, not the people for infrastructure. Infrastructure must be oriented to the interest of all people.” “We must think clearly in seeing that infrastructure must increase our economic power. I also must say about the possibility that Pak Jokowi’s team does not work efficiently.”

The analysis on the data about the perspective of candidate 2 as the affect of negative attitude toward candidate 1 showed in the clause, “Pak Jokowi’s work does not work efficiently, infrastructure must be for the people; it is strengthened by the clause, “It is mostly possible (that) Pak Jokowi’s team does not work efficiently” as a cynical remark toward the authorities as the realization of self-expression of candidate 2.

3.1.5 Attitude toward Gender

Human ambition can mean the attitude of coercion adhered to man. Ambition is surely related to loose and contradicted dichotomy since it is a strong desire to reach what is wanted, either properly or improperly. Excessive ambition is called ambitious which is the end justifies the means which should be avoided.

Prabowo Subianto: “OK, I think that’s it, but today the people evaluate what you have praised for, but it, of course, causes a great loss for the country and the people. We don’t need to talk about individuals, and we are proud of women’s good position, but they have to be skillful and pro-people; they should not make policies which harm people. This is the problem!
Thus, I will never be proud of their position because they are women. They are women but they do not take side to people, what should be proud of?”

Lexis which has negative attitude toward gender conveyed by candidate 1 and candidate 2 indicated the injustice toward women. But later it is denied by Prabowo with the clause, “We don’t need to talk about individuals, and we are proud of women’s good position. We need women, but they have to be skillful and pro-people.” Critical attitude of candidate 1 toward gender had been denied by candidate 2 about inappropriate facts.

The expression of dissatisfaction realized through the attitude of injustice, greed, and ambition as the form of social reality can be analyzed in the following clauses: heteroglossia: inter-vocation: open. In the analysis on sub-heteroglossia in the sub-analysis of inter-vocation is divided into interpolation and assimilation. In the post-analysis of the data on engagement: sub-heteroglossia: inter-vocation: open, they were divided into modality, sensory, and rumors which were identified through the data of DC 2019 discourse.

The response of candidate 2, “OK, I think that’s it, but today the people evaluate what you have praised for, but it, of course, causes a great loss for the country and the people.” This clause was strengthened by the clause, “But I think we don’t need to talk about individuals, and we are proud of women’s position, but they have to be skillful and pro-people; they should not make policies which harm people, that is the problem. So, I will not be proud because they are women; they are women and they do not take sides to their own people, I think we don’t need to be proud of them.”

Paradoxical lexis was found in clauses, 1) “You’ve just said you were proud of” versus “it indicates a great loss.” 2) “We’re proud of women’s good position” versus “they have to be skillful and pro-people.” 3) they are women and they do not take sides to their own people,” versus “I think we don’t need to be proud of them.” Positive appreciation in the lexis “credible”, positive appreciation clause attached to negative appreciation clause will yield negative clause.

4. Conclusion

The result of the analysis on DC 2019 discourse in the candidates’ perception in the form of affect shows that hesitating attitude constitutes emotive attitude toward distrust in his political opponent’s leadership as it is seen in 1) The attitude of distrust as the form of hesitation will yield failure in leading Indonesia in 5 years ahead, as it was used by candidate 2 in the lexis, “maybe,” 2) optimistic attitude is an attitude reflected in candidate’s self-confidence by using the lexis of “can” and “must,” 3) candidate’s negative attitude toward government’s institutions or toward personality always appeared due to dissatisfaction with the reality and discrepancy, 4) optimistic attitude is reflected in candidate’s self-confidence in searching for opportunity by using the lexis of “can” and the lexis of “must, and 5) negative attitude toward gender which has conveyed by candidate 1 reflects the injustice toward women.

The expression of dissatisfaction realized through the attitude toward injustice, greed, and ambition as the reflection of social reality can be analyzed in the following clause: heteroglossia: inter-vocation: Open in the analysis on sub-heteroglossia in the sub-analysis of inter-vocation by using paradoxical lexis.

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Evaluation on Language Attitude of Presidential Candidiates in The Discourse of Debat Capres 2019: Appraisal Analysis, Dian Marisha Putri


QUESTION WORDS IN THE INTERROGATIVE CONSTRUCTION IN JAVANESE: IN X-BAR THEORY

Mayasari, Mulyadi
Universitas Sumatera Utara, Medan, Indonesia
E-mail: mayasarispdmsi@gmail.com

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Abstract
This study examines the syntactic behavior of question words (tembung pitakon) in the interrogative construction in Javanese. This study aimed to analyze the question words of all interrogative types in the language. Therefore, the research data cover question words known as tembung pitakon in Javanese which are derived from the relevant literature. The theoretical framework used in this study is the X-bar theory proposed by Haegeman (1992). The data analysis techniques used in this research were distributed methods which use the language element determination tool itself. The results show that the Javanese partial sentence has a grammatical and complementary grammatical function, while the total question sentence has a complement function. Javanese question words can be constructed by specifier, complements, and adverbials. The Javanese question sentence formed by specifier functions as an internal structure occupied by the NP and joined by I’ to form an IP. Furthermore, the question words formed by complement functions as an internal structure occupied by PP or NP and joined by V to form the first V’. Finally, the question words formed by adverbial functions as an internal structure that can be occupied by PP or NP to join the first V’ then form the second V’.

Keywords: interrogative, question word, X-bar theory, specifier, complement, adverbial.

1. Introduction
Aarts and Aarts (1982: 94-95) sentences into four types, namely, declarative sentence, interrogative sentence, imperative sentence, and exclamation sentence. Declarative sentence is a sentence which always has a subject which precedes the verb such as Paris is the capital city of France. Interrogative sentence is a sentence that contains a subject and can be formed with an auxiliary verb preceding the subject or with question words, as Are you all right? or Who wrote this letter?. Imperative sentence is constructed by a bare infinitive verb as Get out! and exclamation sentences are closed with an exclamation mark as What a building!

Interrogative sentence is used in communication involving a second person in a dialogue in the form of question and answer. The question sentence is used with the aim of getting a reaction in the form of an answer from a question or reinforcing something that the questioner already knows. What is called a question sentence is a sentence that functions to ask something (Alwi, 2003: 358; Ramlan, 2005: 28). When someone just meets another person also uses the question sentence to ask about their identity. Thus, question sentence is widely used in every day conversations.
Research on the structure of the question sentence has been conducted by many researchers such as Hafrianto & Mulyadi (2018) who discusses the structure of the sentence in Tamiang dialect using the X-bar theory. The results of this study explain that the types of total question sentences in Malay language of the Tamiang dialect use the answer Yes or No, while the partial question sentence requires an answer with an explanation.

Caesar (2016) analyzes various means of marking interrogatives in Dangme dialect covering polar, alternative, affirmative and negative content questions. Dangme dialect belongs to the Kwa group of languages from the Niger-Congo family of languages. It is spoken in parts of the Greater Accra and Eastern Regions of Ghana. A number of works on interrogative structures of Dangme dialect have been done so far because it is considered to be a vital feature of African languages. This paper examines various kinds of interrogative structures in Dangme dialect. The paper also examines negative interrogative sentences. The grammatical feature in the negative question constructions implies that it belongs to interrogative content questions.

Another research on X-bar theory was conducted by Mulyadi (2010) about Indonesian prepositional phrases. This study provides an internal structure of the prepositional phrases in Indonesian that are formed by complement, information and specifiers. Thus, it can be seen that the research of the structure of question sentences using the X-bar theory in Javanese is rarely found, whereas in other languages, a number of research have been conducted using X-bar theory.

Javanese has question words which make up question sentences. Many researchers review question words in various languages more deeply. In this study, the researchers used the X-bar theory to analyze the structure of question words in Javanese. The X-bar theory is an advanced theory of Generative Transformation Grammar which aims to divide the grammatical elements systematically in one complete sentence.

The purpose of this study is to analyze question words in the interrogative constructions in Javanese in the question words (tembung pitakon) in Javanese, they are apa (menapa) “what”; sapa (sinten) “who”; ing ngendi (wonten pundi) “where”; kepriye (kepripun, kadospundi) “how”; geneya (yagene, kena apa, kenging menapa) “why”; endi, pundi, ingkang pundi; ing ngendi “where”; menyang endi, dhateng pundi “to where”; saka ngendi, saking pundi “from where”; saka apa, saking menapa “from what”; saka sapa, saking sinten “from whom”; nganggo apa, ngangge menapa, ngagem menapa “with whom”; karo sapa, kaliyan sinten, kanggo sapa, kange sinten, kagem sinten “with whom”; pira, pinten “how much”; kapan, dhok kapan, kala menapa, besuk kapan, benjang menapa “when” used in the Javanese question words as a dominant form of interrogative construction and its formation. To find out the form of interrogative construction in Javanese this study analyzes data by linking the use of X-bar theory.

Thus, this study discusses question words in the interrogative constructions of the Javanese language. Then, it suggests that this is a syntactic study as it involves the discussions of interrogative sentences. This is because syntax is the study of the rules of sentence formation from the combination of words in a language (Crystal in Putrayasa, 2017). The combination of words will form phrases and clauses, then clauses in a more perfect form will form sentences.

In Data 1, the interrogative sentence sentence makes use of a question word opo ‘what’.

Data 1: Opo omonge wong mengko?
What say people later
‘What people will say later?’

Verb Preposing: Comp omonge wong opo mengko
Wh-movem. : Comp omo omo wong mengko
SS : Opo omonge wong mengko?
‘What people will say later?’

Data 2 : **Sopo** sing **teko** kae?

‘Who came?’

Data 3 : **Sopo** jenengmu?

‘What is your name?’

Thus, this study aims to analyze the structure of Wh-words in question sentences in Javanese using X-bar theory covering the grammatical functions found in these types of question words, as well as lexical categories which include complement, adverb, and specifier.
2. Literature Review

Interrogative sentences are used to elicit information that may or may not be known to the questioner to either seek for information or for clarification of what has already been uttered. König and Siemund (2007: 291) assert that interrogative sentences are conventionally associated with the speech act of requesting information. According to Dixon (2012), an utterance may be interrogative in structure but may function pragmatically as a command with or without non-verbal cues such as a smile.

Research on the structure of the question sentence has been conducted by a number of experts. Fitriyani (2018) conducted a study on question sentences in Minangkabau language. The result showed that a partial question sentence has two grammatical functions, namely the specifier and complement. The interrogative word iyonyo ‘is it right?’ in the total interrogative sentence functions as a complement.

This study uses the X-bar theory. In X-bar theory all phrases are dominated by one lexical nucleus. The core is the final node that dominates the word. The lexical core of the projection is a blank projection (Haegeman, 1992: 95). The syntactic categories of phrase constituents such as NP, PP, AP, VP, and AdvP are lexically determined. For example, the core of NP is a noun, the core of PP is a preposition, and so on. So, the core of PP nang ladang ‘in the padi field’ is nang ‘in’. The nucleus is also located one level lower than the constituents that form the core. In the X-bar hierarchy, P as the core of PP lies one level lower than the phrase (Mulyadi, 2008: 23).

Next, the X-bar theory is represented in the tree diagram as below:

![X-bar Tree Diagram](https://example.com/xbar-diagram.png)

The X symbol in the diagram above is a substitute for a lexical category such as nouns, verbs, prepositions, or adjectives and the dots on the left and right are filled with three grammatical functions, namely complement, specifier, and adjunct. The format for phrase structure is seen in the following rules.

a. \( X'' YP; X' \)
b. \( X' X'; ZP \)
c. \( X' X; WP \)

Explanation:
YP : Specifier
ZP : Adjunct
WP : Complement

Complement combined with X forms X-bar (\( X' \)) projection; an adjunct combined with X-bar (\( X' \)) forms a higher X-bar (\( X'' \)) projection, and a higher specifier that combines with X-bar (\( X' \)) forms the maximum projection of the phrase X (\( X''' \)). The bar category is the X projection and the phrase with the highest bar is the maximum projection from the X category. In this case, the specifier is not only located at the beginning, but also at the end.
3. Research Methods

This study applies descriptive methods that are closely related to qualitative methods and the characteristics of natural settings. Descriptive method is used with the consideration that this study focuses on the characteristics and nature of language naturally (natural language) as well as the reality of language as it is empirically still alive in the use of the language concerned.

The data in this study are question words (*Tembung pitakon*) in Javanese. This study aims to analyze the question words of each interrogative type. The research data in the form of question words in Javanese known as *tembung pitakon* in the language.

The data analysis model used in this study is the model of distribution. The distribution method uses the determinant of the language element itself such as words (prepositions, denials, adverbial), syntactic functions (subjects, objects, predicates), clauses, syllables, and so on (Sudaryanto, 2015: 15). In this study there are 18 data in the form of question words that mark each type of interrogative sentences and have a variety of patterns, including question words which can correlate with various syntactic categories such as words, phrases, or clauses.

From these 13 data, there are 3 of them which are analyzed by the distributional method and the substitution technique and used to identify the lexical and grammatical functions of question words.

Data 4. *Keprüye carane kowe nggawe tahu?*

```
Adv.P  NP  VP
How     you   make  tofu
```

‘How do you make tofu?’

Data 5. *Kena opo kowe ora teko ing dino Seloso?*

```
AdvP     NP       VP       PP
why     you  not  come   on  day  Tuesday
```

‘Why didn’t you come on Tuesday?’

Data 6. *Kowe lunga menyang endi?*

```
NP     VP  Adv.P
You  go   where
```

‘Where do you go?’

The NP *kowe* ‘you’ in data (3) and (4) is placed in the middle of the question sentence, while in data (5) it is placed at the beginning of the sentence. At this stage it can be seen that the question word *kowe* has a lexical function as a noun, so the question word has a position dominated by the specifier.

To analyze and identify data, X-bar theory is used. X-bar theory can explain whether in a phrase or clause can provide a function of each category of words. The X-bar theory uses tree diagrams that can see the structure in question sentences in Javanese.

4. Results and Discussion

4.1 Results

The Javanese question sentence can be formed by the specifier as an internal structure occupied by the NP and joined by I’ to form an IP. Furthermore, the question word in Javanese...
can be formed by complement as an internal structure occupied by PP or NP and joined by V to form the first V'. Furthermore, it can be formed by adverbial as an internal structure that can be occupied by PP or NP to join the first V' then form the second V'.

The following are a few examples from the data.

1. *Dheweke asli soko ngendi?*  
   He really from where  
   ‘Where does he really come from?’

2. *Jajan iki digawe soko opo?*  
   Snack this made (passive) from what  
   ‘What is this snack made from?’

3. *Piro cacahe dhuwit sing kok duweni?*  
   How much variant money that you have  
   ‘How much money do you have?’

The Javanese question sentence consists of a total question sentence and a partial question sentence. The structure of a partial question sentence that begins with a question word is not always an interrogative sentence because it may function as a noun clause as the object of a verb in the principal clause as in the following sentences.

4. *Kapan kowe mulih seko Jakarta, aku ora weroh.*  
   When you come back from Jakarta, I not know  
   ‘I don’t know when you are coming back from Jakarta.’

In (4) the main clause *Aku ora weroh ‘I don’t know’* is preceded by the complement cluse *kapan kowe mulih seko Jakarta* ‘when you come back from Jakarta’ in which the complement clause begins with a question word *kapan* ‘when’ but it is not an interrogative sentence as illustrated in the following phrase markers.
In the above data, the N' kowe 'you' is located after C when and forms NP which is a specifier of IP. PP merge with V' then immediately form VP because PP is an adverb of VP. VP is a complement of IP because it joins I and forms I'. C when is joined by C' and forms CP.

In the data above, it can be seen that the sentence structure with all the sentences is the same. It's just that the question word "when" changes its location to after NP "kowe". Whereas in that data, there is a slight difference. Where the NP "kowe" position moves to the beginning of the sentence and functions as a specifier.

The analysis in that figure above has specifier and complement functions. It is said to have a specifier function if the question word is placed in front of the sentence because the question word is joined by C' which will form a maximum projection of CP. If the question word is placed at the end of the sentence, it has a complementary function because the question word joins directly with V and forms the first V'.

Thus, the question word in Javanese, they are apa (menapa) "what"; sapa (sinten) “who”; ing ngendi (wonten pundji) “where”; kepriye (keprimun, kadospundi) “how”; geneya (yagene, kena apa, kenging menapa) “why”; endi, pundi, ingkang pundi; ing ngendi “where”; menyang endi, dhateng pundi “to where”; saka ngendi, saking pundi “from where”; saka apa, saking menapa “from what”; saka sapa, saking sinten “from whom”; nganggo apa, ngangge menapa, ngagem menapa “with whom”; karo sapa, kaliyan sinten, kanggo sapa, kange sinten, kagem sinten “with whom”; pira, pinten “how much”; kapan, dhek kapan, kala menapa, besuk kapan, benjang menapa “when” have the same function and the lexical function of the question word is a noun.

4.2 Discussion

It is found that interrogative sentences in Javanese can be formed from the specifier, complement, and description. Lexical categories that can occupy the position of the specifier are NP as in (12).

(12) Opo tenan_tuku_buku iki_nang pasar?
Spec. VP NP PP
‘Is it true to buy the book at the market?’

(13) Opo iso_kowe_mbukak_lawang iki?
Spec. NP VP NP
‘Can you open this door?’

From the data analysis above the rules of the Javanese question sentences can be described as follows:

The total question sentences

\[
\begin{array}{ccc}
C & \text{SPES} & \text{ADV} \\
\text{QW} & \text{NP} & \text{NP/PP}
\end{array}
\]

5. Conclusions

Based on the research conducted so far, it can be concluded that the question sentence in Javanese is a partial question sentence and a total question sentence. In the partial question sentence if the question word is placed at the beginning of the sentence it functions as a specifier. Conversely, if the question word is at the end of a sentence it functions as a
complement. On the other hand, total question sentences in Javanese must be with the addition of a particle so that the question word has a complement function.

Further research on related topics are still open such as the structure of Javanese interrogative sentences in order to provide deeper analysis on the topic in the language.

References


EMOTIONAL VERBS IN ANGKOLA-MANDAILING LANGUAGE: 
A NATURAL SEMANTIC METALANGUAGE APPROACH

Ilham Sahdi Lubis, Mulyadi
Universitas Sumatera Utara, Medan, Indonesia
E-mail: ilhamsahdilubis@gmail.com

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Abstract
This study examines emotional verbs in Angkola-Mandailing language. This study aims to look at the semantic structure of the emotional verbs in Angkola-Mandailing language to obtain an appropriate picture in interpreting the words of angry emotions after being paraphrased and expressed according to the respective theory used. This research uses the theory of natural semantic metalanguage pioneered by Wierzbicka. This research is expected to be a reference for Angkola-Mandailing community to clarify the real meanings behind the verbs of anger by means of descriptive qualitative method. The research results show that there are 15 elements of emotional verb referring to 'anger'. The words are paraphrased and applied to determine the final meanings of the words so that there is no ambiguity in the meaning. The basic emotions of anger in Angkola-Mandailing are limited by ‘X doing something bad to Y but Y does not necessarily want to be treated so.’

Keywords: Verb of Emotion, Angkola-Mandailing Language, Natural Semantic Metalanguage

1. Introduction
According to Mulyadi (2000: 2003) by language people get to know the world around them. Language is a means related to other people, a bond in human life. Language is also a reflection of human feelings covering set of mind and ideology. This is applied to all human languages, especially in matters of emotional verbs, verbs usually used when a language user is angry. In Bahasa Indonesia, emotional verbs are of different types, all of which goes to express someone’s angry feelings such as kesal, marah, jengkel, and jijik. All these words are similar in use, the difference only lies in the social context. The same points are found in Angkola-Mandailing language. The community members also use emotional verbs to express their bad-tempered mood.

The study is conducted by means of semantic structure of emotional verbs focused on Angkola-Mandailing language to get a more accurate pictures of how and in what contexts are the verbs used based on Natural Semantic Metalanguage (MSA) theory which has been considered successful in analyzing various meanings of emotional verbs across languages. The Natural Semantic Metalanguage (NSM), was developed by Wierzbicka (1996) and his followers (Goddard, 1996), with a surgical tool of word mapping.

2. Review of Literature
The theory pioneered by Anna Wierzbicka (1991, 1992, 1996a, b, c) is considered capable of expressing a semantic nuance among members of stative emotional verbs. The
implication of its meaning seems to be easily understood by many people, especially the teak speakers of the language in question, because its exploitation is framed in a metalanguage that comes from natural language. According to Goddard, (1994: 3), MSA theory, is very suitable for practical applications, because it has four basic principles to avoid the occurrence of blurring and rotation in the analysis of meaning. First, the definition of a word or an expression is explained in natural language. This characteristic feature is embodied in the Principles of Natural Language which states that the basic meaning of syntax and syntax is a minimum set of natural languages. Second, human concepts are hierarchical. This means that besides complex concepts, there are also concepts that are simple and intuitively easy to understand. The third principle is that the original meaning is used as a universal metalanguage, meaning that these concepts are localized in natural language. The concept of lexicalization in this theory has a broad understanding because primitive concepts are not only encoded in words or morphemes, but also encoded in bound morphemes and phrases. Fourth, the MSA theory advocates the "isomorphic principle" of the original meaning based on the lexicon and syntax. This principle assumes that although there is a 'resonance' difference between two different exponents on the same original meaning of two different languages, the two exponents correspond semantically.

In this theory, the application of meaning is framed in a metalanguage source of natural language which is generally understood by all native speakers (Wierzbicka, 1996: 10 and Mulyadi, 2003: 34). The basic assumption of this theory is related to the semiotic principle which states that the analysis of meaning will be discrete and complete, in the sense that any complex can be explained without having to spin around and without residue in the combination of other discrete meanings (Goddard, 1994: 24; Wierzbicka, 1996: 10; Mulyadi, 2003: 35).

Oatly and Jenkis (1996) see the importance of the dimensions of assessment in arousing individual emotions by adding to the aspects involved, namely the goals to be achieved by individuals. The word emotions can be grouped into two, namely emotions that are related to good (positive emotions) and emotions that are associated with bad. Positive emotions can be grouped into joy, pleasure, and pride. Negative emotions can be grouped into sadness, anger, fear, shame, disappointment.

3. Research Methodology

This research uses several techniques to examine the meanings of angry verbs in Angkola-Mandailing under descriptive qualitative method (Moleong: 2018). The first step is collecting data from several sources, primary and secondary data sources, then followed by observations, questionnaires, interviews, tests, and documentation. While the Data Collection Instrument is a tool used to collect data.

After the data collection procedures are done, the researchers then move to data grouping. The function of data grouping is to make it easier for the researchers to analyze the existing data to be more practical. Then comes the data analysis step. The final step of the research method is to present the results obtained in the discussion.

4. Results and Discussion

In this discussion, the theory used to analyze the emotional verbs in Angkola Language is the NSM pioneered by Wierzbicka.
Table 4.1 Emotional Verbs in Angkola-Mandailing Language

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Num. Data</th>
<th>Emotional Verbs in Angkola-Mandailing Language</th>
<th>Meaning in Indonesian/English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Mangamuk</td>
<td>Marah/Angry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Gusar</td>
<td>Gusar/Upset</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Muruk</td>
<td>Murka/Wrath</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Goyak</td>
<td>Benci/Hate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Sundet</td>
<td>Merajuk/Sulking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Butcut</td>
<td>Merajuk/Sulking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Dongkol/mandemes</td>
<td>Palak/Resentful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Gutgut</td>
<td>Iri/Envy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Domdom</td>
<td>Dendam/Revenge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Genja</td>
<td>Geram/inflamed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Angkola-Mandailing language there are several emotional verbs referring to 'anger'. The words are found through a number of native speakers of the Angkola-Mandailing language; the researchers in this case are also native speakers, appropriate to support the validity of the data.

Subcategory of Emotional Verbs in Angkola-Mandailing Language

Group A: Mangamuk, Gusar, Muruk, Goyak (Subcategory 'something bad has happened')

**Mangamuk (Marah/Angry)**

X does something bad to Y.
Y feels hurt because of X.
Y does not like the treatment of X causing Y to get angry.
Y overflows his emotions to X by saying something to X.

In the analysis above it is seen that the word mangamuk is equivalent to being angry in Bahasa Indonesia. From some information that has been interviewed it is stated that the equivalent of the word 'angry' is Mangamuk.

Examples of the Mangamuk case:
When X does something bad to Y then Y feels Mangamuk to X. Then Y feels hurt by X's actions so. These actions cause Y to say something bad to X both verbally and in action.

A brother woke up his younger sister as she was late for school; but according to the younger sister, she was not late and she was angry and said something rude to her brother.

**Gusar (Gusar/Upset)**

X does something bad to Y.
X makes a mistake to Y.
X is unable to carry out Y's orders.
Y feels furious at X because of his inability.
So, Y says something bad to X.
X has done a useless thing.
In the analysis above it is seen that the word *Gusar* is due to the action of X who cannot carry out Y's orders. X makes a mistake because the work given to X is not done well. There is an upset feeling between X and Y when viewed from the context. In one condition X does something that is not in accordance with Y's wishes then Y is upset, on the other hand, X acts unfavorably causing Y *Gusar*.

The context of the situation causing *Gusar* is someone wants to do something in the hope of helping someone else, but the work is not done properly so that *Gusar* comes to that person.

A mother told her child to fix the television, but the television got damaged and the mother became upset.

*Muruk (Murka/Wrath)*

X does something bad to Y.
Y is not happy.
X does something that violates a rule so Y does not like it.
X knows that Y does not like the act.
Y feels that he is a respected person.
Then X cannot do anything carelessly.

In the analysis above it is seen that the word *muruk* is related to the word wrath, but in the context of the formation of the word *muruk* if viewed from the relation of other angry words then this *muruk* is at the highest level. The context occurs when someone commits a fatal violation in one custom, then an elder who does not like the act expresses his emotions verbally or in action. The action taken by X is fatal to Y.

Case examples of *Muruk:*

In a traditional work if a person does not understand his position in customs then the person will not understand what he is supposed to do, then the elders or *harajaon* will be angry with him because he does not understand the customs. Besides that, the procedure for speaking to members of the *Dalian Natolu* must also be understood or the elders or *harajaon* will be angry with that person. Wrath in this context gives a picture of something that is true in a firm and straightforward tone so that someone feels guilty of his actions.

*Harajaon* was angry with *Anakboru* for not understanding ethnics
So *Harajaon* made a high tone to the daughters

*Goyak (Benci/Hate)*

X does something bad to Y
Y feels offended by X's actions
X knows that Y does not like the act
Y is hurt by X's actions
Then Y does not like X
Y expresses anger to X
But Y does not express his emotions to X

The analysis above shows that the verb *Shake* originates from an angry relationship. However, its formation when viewed from the context leads to the displeasure of Y with X's treatment, so Y feels hurt by X's actions. As a result of the X's treatment, Y does not like X and
harbors anger at X but the angry outburst is only in the heart, not in action.

Shaky Emotions:
An act that is unpleasant will cause anger, anger in this context is called wobble. In this case the offense between Y and X's actions result in anger or tearing. When X tells negative things about Y, then Y will feel offended and Y will feel hurt by it, so Y will be angry with X.

Group B: Sundet, Butcut, mandemes, Gutgut Subcategory ‘something bad can/will happen’

**Sundet (Merajuk/Sulking)**
X does something bad to Y
X does something that Y does not want
Y does not really bother X's actions because it is not a big deal
X has to solve the problem of Y

A mother gives something to her first child, but her second child does not like the treatment of the mother who only gives something to the first child. The second child feel mischievous. However, sundet felt by the second child is not too fatal because the problem is only simple.

**Butcut (Merajuk/Sulking)**
X does something bad to Y
X does something to Y so Y closes himself
X does something to Y both intentionally and unintentionally
So Y closes himself to X

In this analysis the formation of Butcut emotion when viewed from an angry relationship is of low type because basically these Butcut emotions do not provide any treatment either verbally or in action. Butcut is identified in the lower class because there is no response. X treatment causing Y to become Butcut only gives a silent effect to Y, so Y closes himself to X.

**Mandemes (Palak/Resentful)**
X does something to Y
Y forces X's orders
Y does not like X's command
Y carries out X's command even if he does not like it
X takes something belonging to Y
X uses something belonging to Y without permission

In the above analysis, it is seen that X's actions by giving orders to Y is not liked by Y, but X still forces Y to do the order. Then X takes something belonging to Y without Y's approval and X uses the item so Y feels mandemes but Y does not prohibit the treatment.

X gives orders to Y to buy rice but Y cannot refuse X's orders, then Y will Mandemes though still carrying out X's orders. X borrows goods of Y and Y can only Mandemes with X's
actions.

Sister *mondames* to mother because she was told to wash clothes because the mother knew that washing clothes was a woman's work.

*Gutgut (Iri/Envy)*

X does something to Y  
X does something because he is not happy with Y  
X hates Y  
Y does not like X because he has something

In this phase it is seen that X is unhappy with Y and occasionally hates Y because Y has something more than X. *Gutgut's* emotional verb is also included in the lower class because it is associated with a heart that is unhappy with Y. X also hates Y because Y has an advantage over X, therefore X is stuck with Y.

Examples of *Gutgut* emotional verbs:  
*Gutgut* is included in liver disease which causes someone to be jealous of others. For example, if Y has a good item, X will pout Y by making a negative story about Y so Y will feel hurt. Besides that, *Gutgut* can also be used to blame X's inability to get an achievement like Y, therefore X becomes nervous about Y.

Andi has a new car so Ali becomes *Gutgut* to Andi  
Andi won 1st place in the Chess match while Ali only got 3rd place then Ali became *Gutgut*.

**Group C: Mangarar, Mangangguk Subcategory ‘something bad is happening’ Domdom (Dendam/Revenge)**

X does something bad to Y  
Y is hurt by X's treatment  
Y wants to have revenge on X

In the above paragraph X's treatment to Y makes Y hurt so Y wants to revenge X's treatment. However, Y does not necessarily realize his desire to reciprocate X. This is only stored in the heart called *Domdom*.

*Genja (Kesal/Growled)*

X does something bad to Y  
X does wrong to Y  
Y is hurt by X's actions  
X gives orders to Y that is not appropriate  
Y leaves X because he does not like X's orders

In the above paragraph it is seen that X does something bad to Y. Y feels hurt because of the treatment of X, besides that X gives an order to Y but the order is not in line with Y's expectations, as a result Y leaves X.
This incident usually occurs in married couples, if the husband gives orders to the wife but the orders are contrary to the wishes of the wife, the wife will refuse to the final level and the wife will leave the husband. This is called Genja. This treatment does not only occur to the wife but also to the husband.

5. Conclusion

In Angkola-Mandailing language there are 15 elements of emotional verb related to 'anger'. The words are paraphrased and applied to determine the final meanings of the words so that there is no ambiguity in the meaning. Ambiguity, if not clarified either verbally or in actions, could also cause problems as most of the problems in human life derive from the wrong uses of words. The basic emotions of anger in Angkola-Mandailing language are focused by 'X doing something bad to Y but Y does not want to be treated so.’ The reactions may vary according to the contextual situations, some are silent, and others react harshly.

References


THE TRANSLATION OF PHRASAL VERBS
IN THE NOVEL THIRTEEN REASONS WHY BY J. ASHER

Ance Elsy Saragih
Universitas Sumatera Utara, Medan, Indonesia
E-mail: anceelsysaragih01@yahoo.com

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Abstract

The form of a phrasal verb may be the same but they bear different meanings in accordance with the context of situation. The dynamics of language also influence the change of phrasal verb meanings. This paper presents the problems faced by the translator in translating several phrasal verbs in the novel *Thirteen Reasons Why* by applying the theory of Ghazala in which it is stated that phrasal verbs are linked with the lexical problems and stylistics. Lexical problems occur when a word, a phrase or an expression is not understood clearly and directly, misunderstood, not known at all to translators, or not found in standard dictionaries, while stylistic problems, righty seen as a part of meaning strongly affect the style of source language posing problems for the translator as the styles of the ST and TT could not be easily adjusted to similarity. The data in the forms of phrasal verbs are taken from the source language and in the target language, supported by the descriptive qualitative method. The results of show that the problems in translating the phrasal verbs in the novel lie in lexical words (literal meaning, synonymy, polysemy, and idiom) and stylistics (formality and informality of language).

Keywords: lexical words, phrasal verbs, stylistics, lexical problems

1. Introduction

   Translation is a process where there is translator who translates a material from the source language to the target language. In translating a text, a translator has to find the equivalent meaning to the context and culture. Larson (1984:3) states that basically, translation involves studying the lexicon, grammatical structure, communication situation, and cultural context of the source language text, analyzing it in order to determine its meaning, and grammatical structure which are appropriate in the receptor language and it is cultural context. When discussing language, Snell-Hornby (1995) states that every language has its own structure which may consist of many units such as morphemes, words, phrases, clauses and sentences. Those units can still be classified into the most specific parts of speech, gerund, idiomatic expression, phrasal verb, and so on. According to Azar (1989, p. A26), “The term phrasal verb refers to a verb and preposition which together have a special meaning.” This means that a phrasal verb has a different meaning with the independent verb and the independent proposition that build the phrasal verb. Phrasal verb is one of the problematic factors in translating a novel.

   In some cases, some phrasal verbs have correct equivalence meaning based on the meaning of the verb and its particle collocate it. This paper shares the findings of a research
about the translation of phrasal verb in a novel. In order to study the phrasal verb, the writer chooses a novel entitled Thirteen Reasons Why written in 2007 by Asher.

2. Literature Review

Since no two languages are identical, either in the meanings given to corresponding symbols or in the ways in which such symbols are arranged in phrases and sentences, translation, which aims at conveying a message from the SL into the TL, is often accompanied by many linguistic problems: lexical, syntactic, semantic and stylistic. Out of these four, only two are taken to be the points of discussion: lexical and stylistic problems. The lexical problem any translator faces is to have many vocabularies in the SL with no direct counterparts in the TL. In this case, the SL word meaning can be conveyed relying on another TL word having the same function. (Ghazal: 1995).

Lexical words cover literal meaning, synonymy, polysemy, and idiom as well as phrasal verbs. Literal meaning is the most obvious or non-figurative sense of a word or words. Synonyms are the semantic qualities or sense relations that exist between words with closely related meanings. It should be noted that the idea of 'sameness of meaning used in discussing synonymy is not necessarily total sameness. A polysemy is a word or symbol that has more than one meaning. In order to be considered a polysemy, a word has to have separate meanings that can be different, but related to one another. The meanings and the words must have the same spelling and pronunciation and they must have the same origin. An idiom is a group of words established by usage that has a meaning not necessarily deductible from those of the individual words. Phrasal verbs are phrases that indicate actions. They are generally used in spoken English and informal texts (Michael & Felicity: 2004).

Stylistics, another translation problem is concerned with the study of the devices in languages such as rhetorical figures and syntactical patterns that are considered to produce expressive or literary style, aiming to account for how texts project meaning, how readers construct meaning and why readers respond to texts in the way that they do. (Fowler: 1996)

3. Research Method

The research employs a descriptive qualitative method. Bogdan and Biklen (1982) state that qualitative research is descriptive, in which the data are collected in the form of words or pictures rather than numbers. The steps in analyzing the data are; identifying five phrasal verbs from 16 chapters of Thirteen Reasons Why novel, finding out the problems faced by the translator in translating the phrasal verbs by Ghazala’s theory (1995) and concluding the findings based on the data.

4. Results and Discussion

Table 1. Problems faced by the translator in translating phrasal verbs in Thirteen Reasons Why

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Translation Problems</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Phonological problems</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Lexical problems:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>a. Literal meaning</td>
<td>1 phrasal verb</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In translation cases, the translator usually gets a problem when translating text from the source language into the target language especially in translating phrasal verbs. Some of the problems that the translator faces in translating phrasal verbs are also found in translating *Thirteen Reasons Why* by referring to the theory of Ghazala (1995). According to Ghazala (1995), there are four problems in translation:

### 4.1 Phonological Problems

Phonological problems are problems concerned with sounds, usually found when translating poetry. There are no phonological problems in translating those phrasal verbs in this research because the source is a novel.

### 4.2 Lexical Problem

#### 4.2.1 Literal Meaning

The problem in literal meaning is when the translator could not find the meaning in the target language. In this research, there is one case, which has this problem in the data number 39.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO DATA</th>
<th>CHAPTER/PAGE/LINE</th>
<th>SOURCE TEXT</th>
<th>CHAPTER/PAGE/LINE</th>
<th>TARGET TEXT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>39</td>
<td>8/159/6</td>
<td>My stomach pulls in tight, like working through a final <em>sit-up</em>.</td>
<td>8/167/15</td>
<td>Perutku menegang, seperti sedang melakukan <em>sit-up</em> terakhir</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The phrasal verb on the data above, *sit-up* translated directly by the translator *into* *sit-up*. There is no similar meaning of *sit-up* in the Indonesian language.

#### 4.2.2 Synonyms

Synonyms are problematic because those words have a similar meaning. The writer finds some of the data in this research having similar meaning to each other. Synonymy poses problems concerning the difference between the levels of closeness or absolute identification of the meanings (Ghazala, 1995).

### Data Number 45 and 61

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO DATA</th>
<th>CHAPTER/PAGE/LINE</th>
<th>SOURCE TEXT</th>
<th>CHAPTER/PAGE/LINE</th>
<th>TARGET TEXT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>45</td>
<td>9/179/10</td>
<td>I backed off.</td>
<td>9/187/10</td>
<td>Aku mundur.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
According to Oxford Thesaurus of English (2009) on synonyms, there are several synonyms for backed off and one of them is to give up. Backed off means to stop being involved in a situation, usually to allow other people to deal with themselves whereas give up means to stop trying to guess. Here, the synonymy problem faced by the translator is the phrasal verb backed off and give up has the close meaning to say stop.

**Data Number 47 and 49**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO DATA</th>
<th>CHAPTER/PAGE/LINE</th>
<th>SOURCE TEXT</th>
<th>CHAPTER/PAGE/LINE</th>
<th>TARGET TEXT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>47</td>
<td>10/199/20</td>
<td>Again, I look over at Tony.</td>
<td>10/206/9</td>
<td>Lagi-lagi aku menoleh ke arah Tony.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49</td>
<td>10/201/8</td>
<td>Some parts I just couldn’t figure out how to tell.</td>
<td>10/207/21</td>
<td>Bagian yang ingin kuceritakan tapi tidak tahu bagaimana.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Oxford Thesaurus of English (2009) there are several synonyms for look over and one of them is to figure out. Look over means to quickly examine something whereas figure out means to understand or solve something. Here, the translator finds the synonymy problem when translating the phrasal verb look over and figure out. Look over has the closeness meaning with figure out; to execute or to check something to understand. Therefore, melihat is used as the translation of look over and kuceritakan as the translation of figure out.

**4.2.3 Polysemy**

Polysemy is a problem when there is more than one meaning for a phrasal verb.

**Data Number 22 and 31**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO DATA</th>
<th>CHAPTER/PAGE/LINE</th>
<th>SOURCE TEXT</th>
<th>CHAPTER/PAGE/LINE</th>
<th>TARGET TEXT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>5/70/8</td>
<td>“Cassette tapes?” She picks up the soy and holds it against her stomach.</td>
<td>5/84/9</td>
<td>“Kaset rekaman?” Dia mengambil kaleng susu kedelai dan menahannya di perut.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>7/120/22</td>
<td>But I only picked the magazines up for the surveys.</td>
<td>7/131/15</td>
<td>Tapi aku membeli majalah untuk survei.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In this case, a similar phrasal verb *picked up* is found. The problem is whether it has another meaning. *Picked up* has some translations such as *mengambil*, *meletakkan*, *menaruh*, and *membeli*. In the first data, the translator uses *mengambil* but in the second data, she uses *membeli*. The translator chooses *membeli* in the second data because it is a word that has the equivalence of the text. Here, the translator solves the problem by choosing the meaning of the phrasal verb to *pick up* according to the context of the text.

### Data Number 10 and 17

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO DATA</th>
<th>CHAPTER/PAGE/LINE</th>
<th>SOURCE TEXT</th>
<th>CHAPTER/PAGE/LINE</th>
<th>TARGET TEXT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>2/11/18</td>
<td>Tiny blue numbers scattered around the map <strong>matched up</strong> with business names listed in the margins.</td>
<td>2/27/12</td>
<td>Nomor-nomor kecil berwarna biru menyebar di sekeliling peta <em>sesuai</em> dengan nama-nama tempat yang tertera di pinggirnya.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>4/58/3</td>
<td>She claimed to have never tried <strong>matching up</strong> friends before and was doubtful she ever would again.</td>
<td>4/71/23</td>
<td>Dia bilang dia belum pernah mencoba <strong>mencocokkan</strong> pertemanan, dan ragu akan melakukannya lagi.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The translator faces the problem in translating *matching up* because these phrasal verbs have more than one meanings. *Matching up* could become *cocok*, *mencocokkan*, *sesuai*, *serasi*. The equivalence is the most important in the translation case. Here, the problem of *matching up* is solved by using the words *sesuai* and *mencocokkan*.

### Data Number 49, 56 and 63

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO DATA</th>
<th>CHAPTER/PAGE/LINE</th>
<th>SOURCE TEXT</th>
<th>CHAPTER/PAGE/LINE</th>
<th>TARGET TEXT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>49</td>
<td>10/201/8</td>
<td>Some parts I just couldn’t <strong>figure out</strong> how to tell.</td>
<td>10/207/21</td>
<td>Bagian yang ingin <strong>kuceritakan</strong> tapi tidak tahu bagaimana.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56</td>
<td>12/232/2</td>
<td>I’ve been trying to <strong>figure out</strong> how to say this the whole time we’ve been in the car.</td>
<td>12/236/2</td>
<td>Dari tadi aku <strong>memikirkan</strong> bagaimana mengatakan ini selama kita di mobil.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>63</td>
<td>13/255/23</td>
<td>And I don’t have</td>
<td>13/258/17</td>
<td>Dan aku tidak punya</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In the phrasal verb *figure out*, the problem is similar to the data before. This phrasal verb is translated into three different ways *kuceritakan*, *memikirkan*, *mengira-ngira*. The next problem faced by the translator is to choose the best translation of *figure out* for three sentences.

Data Number 30, 51 and 57

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO DATA</th>
<th>CHAPTER/PAGE/LINE</th>
<th>SOURCE TEXT</th>
<th>CHAPTER/PAGE/LINE</th>
<th>TARGET TEXT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>6/98/15</td>
<td>I nod, press the headphones into my ears, and <strong>look out</strong> the window.</td>
<td>6/111/1</td>
<td>Aku mengangguk, memasang headphones ke telinga, lalu <strong>memandang</strong> ke luar jendela.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51</td>
<td>11/220/4</td>
<td>Tony <strong>looks out</strong> his side window and changes lanes.</td>
<td>11/225/4</td>
<td>Tony <strong>melihat</strong> ke luar jendelanya dan berpindah jalan.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>57</td>
<td>12/233/17</td>
<td>He <strong>looks out</strong> the side window, and his chest fills with air.</td>
<td>12/237/10</td>
<td>Dia <strong>menatap</strong> keluar jendela, dan dadanya terisi udara.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The translator faces the problem to decide the translation of *looks out* in the target language. In Indonesian language *looks out* is an activity done by the eyes. The phrasal verb *looks out* bears the meanings as in the third data above; as *memandang*, *melihat*, *menatap*. All the translations of *looks out* are the activities of the eyes. The translator solves the problem by choosing the best meaning of *looks out* according to the context needed.

4.2.4 Idioms

The problem with idioms when translating phrasal verbs means that phrases, which have form and special meaning, cannot be known from the direct meaning of their words. In this case, the idiom problem occurs in data number 52 for the phrasal verb *get up*.

Data Number 52

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO DATA</th>
<th>CHAPTER/PAGE/LINE</th>
<th>SOURCE TEXT</th>
<th>CHAPTER/PAGE/LINE</th>
<th>TARGET TEXT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>52</td>
<td>11/221/16</td>
<td>I thought she was</td>
<td>11/226/13</td>
<td>Kupikir tadinya si cewek</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
acting drunk, bumping into me we’d get up and leave. berpura-pura mabuk, membentur-benturkan badannya kepadaku agar aku dan Clay pergi dari sofa.

In the data above, the phrasal verb *get up* is not translated into the direct meaning in Indonesian language *bangun*. It is the problem of idioms in this data faced by the translator. In the source language, the words *get up* and leave are used. Consequently, the translator uses the word *pergi* to describe *get up and leave*.

4.3 Stylistics Problem

In stylistic problems, it is about formality and informality of language. The data of this research are mostly translated into a formal language. The researcher only finds one phrasal verb, translated informally as shown below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO DATA</th>
<th>CHAPTER/PAGE/LINE</th>
<th>SOURCE TEXT</th>
<th>CHAPTER/PAGE/LINE</th>
<th>TARGET TEXT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>37</td>
<td>8/157/17</td>
<td>I look up to find Tony standing beside me, his finger on the Pause button.</td>
<td>8/166/2</td>
<td>Aku mendongak dan melihat Tony berdiri di sebelahku, jarinya menekan tombol Pause.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>64</td>
<td>13/256/22</td>
<td>I smiled every time I saw you after the party, but you never looked up.</td>
<td>13/259/16</td>
<td>Aku tersenyum setiap kali melihatmu setelah pesta itu, tapi kau tidak pernah mendongak.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Both of the data above are translated as the phrasal verb *look up* into *mendongak*. The word *mendongak* in Indonesian is not usually used in daily life. The translator faces this problem and uses the word *mendongak* to adhere to the context of the text. The translator chooses *mendongak* than the other words even though the words sound informal as the meaning of that word could be found in the dictionary.

4.4 Grammatical problem

The structures of grammar in both Indonesian and English are different. Grammatical problems are not an issue when translating the phrasal verbs in the novel. In Indonesian language, there is no phrasal verb. Thus, the translator translates those phrasal verbs according to the context without translating the whole phrasal verbs.

5. Conclusion

Translation demands a deep understanding of both grammar and culture. Translators need to know the rules of a language as well as the habits of the people who speak it. And
even for the most experienced professionals, confusion and frustration are familiar feelings. Every language sits inside a defined structure with its own agreed upon rules. The complexity and singularity of this framework directly correlates to the difficulty of translation. As a result, translators frequently have to add, remove, and rearrange source words to effectively communicate in the target language. Various problems arise in translation works covering lexical words, structure, idioms, compound words as well as phrasal verbs and the points of discussion in this study are concerned with lexical and stylistic problems. Several lexical problems are found in translating this novel, they were; literal meaning problem (1 phrasal verb), synonymy problem (2 phrasal verbs), polysemy problem (4 phrasal verbs), and idiom problem (1 phrasal verb). For stylistic problem (1 phrasal verb). The phonological problem and grammatical problem are not found in translating the phrasal verbs in the novel.

References
LEXICAL DENSITY AND GRAMMATICAL INTRICACY IN DEBATERS’ SPEECHES

Putry Amelia
Universitas Sumatera Utara (USU), Medan, Indonesia
E-mail: putrystr2710@gmail.com

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Abstract
This paper entitled “Lexical Density and Grammatical Intricacy in Debaters’ speeches (Case Study of National University Debating Championship 2018)” discusses the lexical density and grammatical intricacy to identify the level of lexical density and grammatical intricacy in debaters’ speeches conducted by means of descriptive qualitative method. The theories supporting this thesis are the ones proposed by Ure, Halliday, and Simon Quinn. The data source in this thesis were debate speech from Main Grand Final round of NUDC 2018 which are Opening Government team (Prime Minister and Deputy Prime Minister) and Opening Opposition team (Leader of the Opposition and Deputy Leader of the Opposition) taken from youtube video of NUDC 2018, Malang. The data in this study were lexical items for lexical density and clauses for grammatical intricacy. The step passed in this analysis are collecting the data by transcribing the debate speech into text, identifying the lexical items and clauses, and concluding the analysis. The result of this thesis shows that lexical density and grammatical intricacy of Prime Minister = 40.95 % and 3.43, Deputy Prime Minister = 42.44% and 2.72, Leader of the Opposition = 46.14% and 2.91, and Deputy Leader of the Opposition = 47.90% and 3. Thus, both the level of lexical density and grammatical intricacy in debaters’ speeches account for higher density and intricacy, so debaters’ speeches represent much information due to many lexical items as the proportion of running words and indicate that clause complex is more dominant than simple sentence.

Keywords: lexical density, grammatical intricacy, debate, lexical items, clause

1. Introduction
Debate has been a popular platform in 21st century in the terms of conveying ideas, knowledge and thoughts. Shan (2005:21) states that debate is defined as two groups of people on opposite sides of the issue discussing an agreed topic upon rules, and the judges listen to both different sides of the argument, choosing the winning team based on the reasoning and evidence provided. In Indonesian context, debate is considered as a means for students to exercise public speaking ability which is manifested through the existence of a lot of competitions. In Indonesia, debate competitions either local, regional, or national scale have been numerous conducted. For instance, in varsity level, National University Debating Championship (NUDC) is one of the annual debate competitions. The competition consists of two categories which are Main and Novice categories. The competition is
compulsory and important to be followed by the varsity students since the Ministry of Education has provided particular funds to encourage each individual to exercise their public speaking ability through debate. NUDC adopts the British Parliamentary debate format which is also applied in the World University Debating Championship (WUDC).

Debate does not only trigger every individual to win, but also one of the spoken languages that aims to exercise speaking ability and fluency. Byrne (1993) states that debate helps debaters to explore and develop their speaking skills effectively. Thus, debaters need not only speak in front of different audiences and judges, but they also need to be able to construct their argument in applying the best principles of public speaking to select, arrange, and present their materials. In applying the principles, it takes forms on how the debaters construct each sentence and choose appropriate words related to the debate topics. Either beginners or professional debaters, they use various complexity of language. As a result, the complexity of language of the speakers is challenged when they deliver their speech. Complexity of language in debaters’ speeches can be seen through selected lexical items and types of clauses used by the debaters.

The complexity of language is proposed by Halliday (1985a) in a theory of Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL). Based on the theory, complexity of language typically deals with grammatical intricacy, lexical density, nominalization, grammatical metaphor and thematic structure. Johansson (2008:61) states that Lexical Density (LD) deals with the total number of lexical items or content words (i.e. nouns, verbs, adjectives and some adverbs) in the text. Halliday (2008) also states that the lexical density refers to the complexity of language that results from the development of words. On the other hand, Grammatical Intricacy (GI) is an important concept in characterizing complexity of language. It refers to how often a clause complex appears in a text in comparison with simple clauses.

The example of LD and GI representation in debaters’ speeches:
Lexical Density (LD) representation
Eg: Opening government believes in the idea that it will discriminate the minority that they really need to be protected by law by the government.

Grammatical Intricacy (GI) representation
Eg: This method is not according to what society wants, because it contains unacceptable and amateurish acts to promote their own interest. Not only that society will perceive this as a selfish act, but also cruel and inhumane. Like the case of women march, we can see many societies condemn this march because it was not emphasizing on the positive values of women such as independency and strong will. But it focused more on attacking the men by creating horrific graphics that was disgusting and unacceptable.

Based on the data taken from World University Debating Championship (WUDC), the LD representation above represents that there are five nouns (government, idea, minority, law, government), one adjective (opening), four verbs (believes, discriminate, need, protected), and one adverb (really). It means that there are eleven lexical items and thirteen grammatical items in this sentence, giving a proportion of eleven lexical items out of twenty-four items in total, and using Ure’s (1971) original method, the lexical density would be forty-five per cent or 0.45.

From the GI representation above, there are 6 ranking clauses and 3 clause complexes, giving the grammatical intricacy index of 2 for this extract. Daller, Van Hout & Treffers-Dalle (2003) defines that lexical density is the term which refers to measurement
that quantifies the lexical richness of texts. It shows for how many different words are used in a text. In addition to that, Halliday (1985) explains that texts with a lower density are more easily understood and spoken texts have lower lexical density levels than written texts. It is because lexical density shows the complexity of words within text.

As pointed out by Ure (1971:445), a large majority of the spoken texts have a lexical density of under 40%, while a large majority of the written texts have a lexical density of 40% or higher. It means that lexical density is the representation of content words in a text/sentence and high portion of LD characterizing a text to be in a written mode. Lexical density can be observed by using Ure’s and Halliday’s method. In this study, Ure’s method is applied.

On the other hand, grammatical Intricacy relates to the number of sentences in the text. The high ratio or index of GI is the indicator of a text to be categorized as a spoken language. It means that high index of GI can be used to characterize a text to be in spoken mode. This is all related to how much information is introduced in a clause complex which can contain more than one simple clause. Classification of clauses (sentences) is applicable to the determination of grammatical intricacy (complexity) of a text. If in a text there are more clause complexes than simple clauses, it can be said that the text is more complex in the sense that it presents more information. Grammatical intricacy is measured as the number of ranking clauses in the clause complex (Halliday, 2008). In this study, Halliday’s (2008) method is applied.

Based on the explanation above, it can be said that lexical density and grammatical intricacy are important to be analyzed as they both represent the amount of information that is needed in constructing an argument in debate speech. Thus, the study focuses only on analyzing the lexical density and grammatical intricacy in debaters’ speeches. The study analyzes the lexical density and grammatical intricacy in debaters’ speeches in Main Category of NUDC 2018 and debaters have already got basic understanding of the debate. The study decided to choose NUDC 2018 because the YouTube video of NUDC 2019 is not complete due to the reasons that some of the debaters are not consented to be recorded. This study also attempts to investigate the characteristics of debaters’ speeches in terms of lexical density and grammatical intricacy and to characterize if those debaters’ speeches can be categorized into written or spoken mode.

2. Literature Review

Recently, the SFL approach is used world-wide, especially in language education, and for a number of purposes like discourse analysis. As Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) state, SFL is a linguistic theory that considers language as a part of social system and a meaning-making resource. This statement explains that language perceives how people use language to establish and produce meaning to fulfill their communicative purpose in social contexts.

Moreover, SFL, with regards to data, does not deal with the manner of the language representation or process in the human brain, but would rather try to view discourses produced in the form of written or oral language and what is contained is the texts that are produced. Since the use of language becomes the concern of SFL, great importance is placed in the function of language, such as what language is used for rather than what language structure is all about and the manner by which it is composed (Matthiessen & Halliday, 2004). Thus, SFL examines the text in four ways which are Context, Semantics, Lexico-grammar, and Phonology. The channel of communication either spoken or written language is being used as a mode of action or reflection. Eggins (2004: 93) summarizes the linguistic
difference that corresponds to our two polar extremes of a spoken and a written language situation.

However, Eggins (2004: 94) argues that there are two main linguistics features that are highly sensitive to mode variation, the degree of grammatical intricacy and the lexical density of the language chosen. These features are responsible for perhaps the most striking differences between spoken and written language. Halliday in his book *Spoken and Written Language* (1985 :62) also explains the significant distinction between written and spoken language. The first one is Density, the density with which the information is presented. Relative to each other, spoken language is sparse, and written language is dense. The second is Intricacy, the intricacy with which the information is organized. Spoken language is more intricate than written language. In addition to that, Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) affirm that written language is normally complex when it has high lexical density. It stores a large number of lexical items into each clause. On the other hand, spoken language becomes complex by being grammatically intricate.

Lexical density is the term most often used for describing the proportion of content words (nouns, verbs, adjectives, and often also adverbs) to the total number of words. The concept of density refers to a kind of complexity that results from the development of words. Halliday (1985) says that lexical density relates to the notion of the lexico-grammar in terms of the level of wording in language. It is a measure of the density of information in any passage of a text, according to how tightly the lexical items (content words) have been packed into the grammatical structure (Halliday, 2005:83). He defines lexical density as the number of lexical items, as the proportion of the number of running words. Lexical density can be measured by distinguishing the grammatical items from lexical items. Halliday (1985b) says that grammatical items or function words come in a closed system compromising of determiners such as articles, pronouns, most prepositions, conjunctions, some classes of adverbs and finite verbs. On the other hand, lexical items or content words are named lexical as they function in lexical sets which show that that they are part of an open system rather than closed sets (Halliday, 1985).

Grammatical intricacy relates to the number of clauses in a text as a proportion of the number of sentences in the text. It refers to how simple clauses in a clause complex are connected by means of logico-semantic types at the clausal level. As such, grammatical intricacy helps construe the logical meta function of language (Halliday, 2008). GI also refers to how often a clause complex appears in the text in comparison with simple clauses. It is accepted that any text has a different level of intricacy (complexity). This is all related to how much information is introduced in a clause complex which can contain more than one simple clause. Although grammatical intricacy tends to be used for the analysis of complexity of spoken language as argued by Halliday, it is worth including in the measurement of written text complexity since it can show the complexity not only at the level of words but also at the level of clauses. Grammatical intricacy is important to be uncovered because a text is said to be difficult because of the intricacy of information. A simple clause is easier to understand in the sense that the amount of information presented is less than that of a clause complex. In other words, a clause complex as indicated in functional grammar contains more information than a simple clause. The measurement of grammatical intricacy can be done by the proportion of ranking clauses per total number of clause complexes (Halliday, 2008). In this case, the level of Grammatical Intricacy is counted by analyzing high and low level of grammatical intricacy (complexity) of a text. If the number of clause complex is more dominant than simple sentence in a text, it means that the text has high
level of GI, and on the contrary if the number of clause complex is lower than simple sentence, this means that the text has low GI.

The level of intricacy can be found by finding the ratio between the simple clauses and clause complexes in the real analysis, and a simple clause may be regarded as consisting subject and predicate. Every type of clauses has a different level of difficulty. Various studies show that clause complexes are more difficult to process than simple clauses, reflecting their relatively greater intricacy. By then, Halliday (2005) argues that the feature of grammatical simplicity shows that written language tends to use few clauses per sentence.

Concerning debate, Freeley and Steinberg (2009: 6) argues that debate is the process of advocacy, away of delivering judgement in order to achieve a decision in their own minds. Debate is a particular form of argument. It is not a way of reconciling difference— that is a misconception. The purpose of a debate is not for two disputing parties to leave the room in agreement. Instead, through the debate between them, others will form a judgment about which of the two to support (Smith, 2011: 1). Thus, debaters need to decide what the words of the topic mean for the purposes of this debate. This is known as ‘definition’. They need to think of some reasons why your side of the topic is true. These reasons are known as ‘arguments’ that speakers try to join the arguments together into a single ‘case approach’. Speakers also need ‘split’ which divides the arguments between what speaker knows what he or she has to present. They are needed in formal debate to make audience understand. Debate needs debaters, adjudicators, chairperson, time keeper and audiences. The debaters become the main players here; they should deliver the contradictory arguments of the motion with their opponent. When having the speech, they should consider the manner, matter and method.

3. Research Method

This study is a descriptive qualitative research. Patton and Cochran (2002) state that qualitative research is characterized by its aims and its methods which generate words, rather than numbers, as data for analysis. It means that the data of the study are analyzed by describing, identifying and analyzing the texts. Descriptive research means that the data of this study are described or explained. This kind of research describes and explains a phenomenon as it is. To do the research, a document or content analysis is applied.

The data of this study are lexical items (content words) and clauses in debaters’ speeches. Lexical items are used for the analysis of lexical density and clauses are used for the analysis of grammatical intricacy. The source of data was debaters’ speeches from the two teams in main grand final round in National University Debating Championship (NUDC) in 2018 taken from https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=4Xfx02ri00g&t=670s. The NUDC 2018 was held in University of Negeri Malang on August 19th 2018. The teams are Opening Government (University of Sriwijaya) and Opening Opposition (Institute Technology of Bandung). The opening government consists of two debaters which are Prime Minister and Deputy Prime Minister. On the other hand, opening opposition consists of Leader of the Opposition and Deputy Leader of the Opposition.

These data collection activities typically are carried out in close proximity to a local setting for a sustained period of time. Such data are not usually immediately accessible for analysis but require some type of processing: Raw field notes need to be expanded and typed up; audio recordings need to be transcribed and corrected, and photographs need to be documented and analyzed”. In this research, the technique of collecting data that the writer uses is Document Study. Document Study is the process of learning from whatever the writer encounters in the data and organizing the data around some concept, idea or set of concepts or ideas.
written and seen from the document. The document in this research is spoken texts which are the debaters’ speeches from https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=4XfX02rlO0g&t=670s.

In the procedures of data collection, the researcher provides several steps of collecting the data.
1. Searching youtube video on https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=4XfX02rlO0g&t=670s.
2. Downloading youtube video of all debaters’ speeches in main category. In Main Category, the debaters’ speeches consists of eight debaters.
3. Watching youtube video of eight debaters in Main Category
4. Selecting the four debaters’ speeches based on Opening Benches
5. Transcribing the audio into a text
6. Reading the text speeches of four debaters
7. Identifying the lexical items based on LD
8. Identifying the clauses based on GI
9. Collecting the lexical items and clauses of text speeches
10. Putting the data into the table

In this research, the data condensation is divided into Selecting the lexical items and clauses, Focusing on the number of lexical items and clauses, Simplifying the data, classified into nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs and clauses are classified into independent and dependent clause and Transforming the data by putting the data into the table. For the analysis of LD, the study employs the methods proposed by Ure (1971) which is discussed above as central measurements to lexical density exploration in texts.

(Ure’s method):
Table 3.2. Ure (1971), LD measurement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lexical Density</th>
<th>Number of Lexical Items × 100</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total number of words</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Regarding the measurement, if the number surpasses forty percent, it accounts for higher lexical density.
Grammatical intricacy (GI) is calculated using the formula proposed by Halliday (2008).

Table 3.3. Halliday (2008), GI measurement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GI</th>
<th>Total Number of ranking clauses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total number of clause complex</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The intricacy of grammar is captured in terms of how many clauses are joined together to form a clause complex, and the higher the index is, the more intricate the text is (Castello 2008:97).
After the verification of the data is done, the data for lexical density and grammatical Intricacy are concluded into the following tables.
Table 3.4 Lexical Density and Grammatical Intricacy of 4 debaters’ speeches.
4. Results and Discussion

The term lexical density refers to proportion of lexical items (verb, noun, adjective, and adverb) to the total amount of running words in a text. On the other hand, grammatical intricacy deals with the total amount of ranking clause in clause complex. Based on the analysis of data, it is found that Prime Minister (PM) speech has 584 lexical items among 1426 words and has 37 clause complexes that consist of 127 ranking clauses, Deputy Prime Minister (DPM) speech has 674 lexical items among 1588 words and has 59 clause complexes that consist of 161 ranking clauses, Leader of the Opposition (LO) speech has 712 lexical items among 1543 words and has 57 clause complexes that consist of 166 ranking clauses, Deputy Leader of the Opposition (DLO) speech has 709 lexical items among 1480 words and has 48 clause complexes that consist of 144 ranking clauses.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Debaters’ speeches</th>
<th>Lexical Density (%)</th>
<th>Grammatical Intricacy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Prime Minister (PM)</td>
<td>40.95</td>
<td>3.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Deputy Prime Minister (DPM)</td>
<td>42.44</td>
<td>2.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Leader of the Opposition (LO)</td>
<td>46.14</td>
<td>2.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Deputy Leader of the Opposition (DLO)</td>
<td>47.90</td>
<td>3.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Average Score</td>
<td>44.35%</td>
<td>3.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. Conclusion

After analyzing the lexical density and grammatical intricacy in debaters’ speeches from the opening government and opening opposition team in NUDC 2018, the researcher concludes that Lexical density in four debaters’ speeches surpasses 40% with the average score 44.35%. It indicates that the four debaters’ speeches account for higher lexical density. The highest lexical density among the four debaters’ speeches is found in Deputy Leader of the Opposition (DLO) speech (47.90%), while the lowest lexical density is found in Prime Minister (PM) speech (40.95%). It also demonstrates that the winning team (Opposition team) consists of LO (46.14%) and DLO (47.90%) accounts for higher lexical density compared to the losing team consisted of PM (40.95%) and DPM (42.44%). This means that the lexical density determines the team to be the winning or losing team since lexical density itself represents the amount of information presented in debater speech. On the other hand, the four debaters’ speeches show the high level of GI, proven on how clause complex is more dominant than simple sentence in debaters’ speeches. It indicates that debater speech is said to be difficult because of the intricacy of information. It is because clause complexes are more difficult to process than simple clauses, reflecting their relatively greater intricacy. Thus, the researcher concludes that debaters’ speech accounts for higher lexical density and high level of grammatical intricacy. By this, in terms of lexical density, debaters’ speech can be categorized as written language for having lexical density above 40%. On the other hand, in terms of the level of GI, debaters’ speech can be categorized as spoken language for having high grammatical intricacy.

References

APPENDIX

Prime Minister

The old method of Indonesian liberals is they said that whatever even if when the political candidate is very bad you still have to have the choice because it is democracy to begin with. You have to participate because it is your obligation to begin with. Right now, under OG we want to change the method of our campaign to begin with. We are going to stop all the campaigning that says that you have to acknowledge your voice in the form of choosing any candidate even when the moment you hate both of the candidate to begin with. What is the method of campaign of Indonesian liberals under OG going to be look like? Number one, we say that we are still going to do the political education to begin with. We are still going to give the information of the candidates for example and ensuring the people knows the candidate to begin with. We will not stop playing on the rhetoric that voting is your obligation to begin with even we are going to support the abstention because we are going to say that it is a legitimate choice for you to abstain in the democracy to begin with. There are four thing I’m going to argue in my speech. On the principle, why in the democracy abstain is a legitimate choice and second how it fits the Indonesian liberal interest and last the third why it is important and lastly why it is going to be beneficial.

Going to the first, on the principle why in democracy abstention is a legitimate choice and it is also a part of participation of democracy. What you need to understand is that the
principle of democracy is the process of acknowledging people choice and people voice regardless of what is their choice to begin with right. Therefore, we cannot force people in the democracy. Therefore, in the term of voting, we’re always having the fair campaign to begin with and we should not force people to begin with. We say that the moment when we are people abstain is that that they are not irrational or they are ignorant to begin with. But we say that part of the reason when people abstain is first because they believe that there is no any policy coming from the candidate cannot benefit themselves.

On second, they believe that the political candidate at the end of the day unable to bring the voice inside of parliament and manifest it into a policy that is going to benefit them to begin with. Therefore, we characterize to you that abstention is not an irrational choice but it is a rational choice coming from your needs to begin with that we have to support it right. Why is this harmful at the end of the day the moment when we are still forcing people to vote inside of democracy to begin with. We say this is exactly going to be bad because at the end of the day the society is going to be randomly choose because they are trapped under that voting is the obligation to begin with. We say this is something that is bad to begin with right. Because at the end of the day the leader that is going to be chosen is also not going to be favorable under opposition of the house right.

The comparative is this, at least under our side of the house the moment when we are abstain and the candidate and the political candidate leader that is winning is also not within your favor. We say that first, morally you are not going to have a burden to begin with because you are not complicit in making this particular candidate winning to begin with. But second, we are going to have a legitimate reason for you to criticize the government to begin with. Look, currently we have a raising people like Panji Pragiwaksono, such or example the Indonesian liberal figures he is also trying to criticize the government but their voice seems to be blunder and irrational because they are seen as someone that is changing the stance to begin with, on how such for example in the past such for example Panji trying to support ANIS but at the end of the day they are going to also advocate to free speech in the case of ahok to begin with. Therefore, people will less likely to hear the voices to begin with.

Under our side of the house, we are going to have a legitimate reason to criticize the government because you at the end of the day do not complicit in choosing the government to begin with. But going to the second thing right. The most important question, how it fits the Indonesian liberals interest to begin with? We say that the Indonesian liberals interest is they want a more liberation of Indonesia right. On how that currently Indonesia is very conservative to begin with to the extent of harming the liberal value like the interfaith marriage such for example that the leader that supposed to be coming from Muslim such for example or other liberals issue that is unable to be solved that is becoming the interest of liberal interest to begin with.

In the past, the reason why the Indonesia liberal forcing people to vote is exactly because they want some political leader that they see want to vote them going to champion this agenda to begin with right. But we don’t think so right. Because the characterization of politicians are they easily betrays to begin with. Taking example how Jokowi such for example playing under the narrative of Indonesia Bersatu that is strengthening on saying that we are going to also champion more diverse people that is not only Muslim and Pribumi. At the end of the day, it betrays this community to begin with right on how such for example in the past, in the upcoming election, at the end of the day, Jokowi also only want to be in power given the fact therefore Jokowi choose is Makruf Amin such for
example that is going to attract more Muslim voters, so sure that political candidate is not a favorable people for us to rely on our agenda to begin with. Why? Because what politician care is only the power and how they can sit in the parliament to begin with and hold the power. They are the characterization of people that really want to trade ideology to begin with. What is the difference under our side of the house, right? We say under our side of the house. Even, when the number of abstention increase, we say that this is going to create a necessity for political candidate such for example to show and also to analyze what actually wrong to begin with. At the end of the day, our voice going to be matter because the increasing number of abstention is also harming the political leader because that is going to decrease their legitimacy to begin with. Therefore, it is going to create an urgency for this politician to at the end of the day also cater the need of people and having discourse and also listening to them to begin with right.

But on the last thing right. On the idea of lesser evil that is going to be played by opposition to begin with. We don’t think that lesser evil is a favorable principle to begin with because the idea of lesser evil is only applies when you are sure both figure is more evil than another. The problem with politics is we can never assure who is more evil to begin with right. Because in terms of campaign such for example, the political candidate can always playing the rhetoric and also popularizing the image to begin with. They are able even such for example brave to capitalize the issue, the rumor, of the family issues such for example in the time of campaign to begin with that makes you at the end of the day do not have an exact parameter of what evil is to begin with right. We say in the time when we are not sure to begin with which one is evil, it is more favorable for us to not choosing at all so we are not going to complicit and contributed to the downfall of this nation to begin with. We are very proud to open the case of the opening government.

Deputy Prime Minister

My mama said, if you see a toxic friend, it is better for you to cut off the friendship instead of you are creating a friendship to begin with, because that is exactly what this motion is. Ladies and gentleman, the whole argument of VM is contingent upon it is better for us to choose the lesser evil to begin with. If you’re going to say that lesser evil is much worse, we are going to take this debate. First of all, the reason why you cannot differentiate whether that people is true lesser people or not because they’re showing the lesser evil behavior during the campaign. That is exactly we are going to say to begin with. That is exactly being a strategy in politic. They’re going to see toward people that they are lesser evil than their opponent. That is why people are going to consider that they are better. That people are going to choose them. That is exactly what happens in the United States of America. Trump’s showing that they are lesser evil than Hilary Clinton. They offer opening immigrants toward our people, that is why people are choosing the Trump over Hilary Clinton.

But let us see in the status quo, the lesser evil become the incumbent government. They’re creating a policy that making up a children separation. They’re creating a policy that immigrants, immigrations. They’re creating the wall. They’re creating an abusive to all the immigrants. That is exactly things that we are going to prevent. At least we cut off all the toxic from the lesser evil. We are not giving those seat, enough. It is enough. We oppose. That is why the reason why the lesser evil cannot be justified. The only thing that the opposition could defend this is say to us why lesser evil could not making any policy that is more evil when they have power. Because exactly when they have power, they can abuse
to all the things that going to be happen because the power’s in their own side. Even if they’re going to say because that people are going to maintain their own image, the fact that they’re having a lot of political, people are going to choose them and majority agrees with them. It is going even more worse. It is better for us to prevent it. Second rebuttal, things that we’re going to say to you that basically the government side of the house, the opposition side of the house said to us that it is better for us to prevent the more evil itself. We don’t think this is going to prevent the more evil itself because that is not going to make the general election being better. We bring you the fact in Tibos in the Sulawesi itself. It is better for us to not choosing at all because that is exactly the idea of people to begin with because that is exactly a concept of a people to begin with.

Why that is ok? In a worst scenario, we didn’t get any politician and candidate. Why that is ok? Because at the end, we’re going to open the discourse that also relies toward the government. There is something wrong with this candidate. There is something wrong with this policy that we need to fix. At least, there is a discourse and at least there is something called as a review by that politician about the demand of the society that are going to be acknowledged even more because societies are choosing for not choosing instead of choosing why giving their voices toward certain candidates.

Lastly, the VM questions us who are the representation as a liberal itself. We think exactly as a liberal, we uphold the concept of appreciation the people choices to begin with. That is the idea of liberal. Liberal right now, it is not going to oppress everyone to forcing them to choose to begin with because that is the concept of everyone, because that is the concept of the liberal itself. But last, talking about the impact of the liberal, this at least better for us to choosing the lesser evil. That is the Jokowi and anything. Let us assume. Liberal right now needs to just gaining all the supporter from the society as much as possible to run their own policy. The reasons why Jokowi right now are engaging toward PPP and the other religious party are more difficult for them to create a policy that is more liberal. Because the reasons why Jokowi choose that Makruf Amin is because of a pragmatic reason to attract attentions of all the Islamic society. It is very difficult for them to create a liberal policy to begin with. Comparatively toward Prabowo, Prabowo is having the human right issue in the previous which is going to backstab all the liberal, all the liberal characterizations upon the society. They’re going to make the society being difficult to which are going to be chosen by the liberal to begin with. We think that backlash the idea of a, the idea of liberal concept at all. But before that, let us closing. We think that is exactly the issue, because at least liberal, we’re not going to choose the Prabowo or Jokowi because that is going to show the narrative of the liberal. That is going to appreciate that way. Coming toward the argument, why that is better for democratic itself? Me and Fatima believe that even if you’re not choosing, there is also a decision. There is also a part of the democratic system. You’re not going to choose because you’re lazy and staying in the bed, but because you have a better consideration to not throwing all your voices to certain people. Fatimah also come out with the reasons if you’re choosing people because of randomly and that people get the power, this is more even worse because that the idea of democracy. Everyone gets a same voice and also one voting is for another. You’re going to throw it and making the power toward that people.

But, let us assume. What is the positive impact about this government? We think if you’re going to promote abstention toward the people right now, you’re going to see and also able to track down the democratic system and also situation in the current situation. Why? Here is the thing. The idea of the general election is not only the idea of
gaining or not only the idea of democratic party. It is not only the idea of the general election or the idea of gaining the president or vice president, but somehow it is being a tool for you to see and also to see the pattern of democracy inside of the country. The moment you’re going to see that people are abstain, you’re going to see to understand about the behavior of the people inside of that area. You’re going to understand about the demand of the angry people toward the politic itself. Because that idea of the politic itself is you’re going to understand that the people are hating the previous people that having the background of the human right violation. The rest of the society right now are hating to see the more conservative people to begin with. That is the idea of the democracy and also the benefit of the abstention itself. Comparatively, if you’re not abstain, you’re randomly choosing someone. You’re going to think that conservative is acceptable. That is why there is no review changes. There is no discourse changes to begin with. That is the pattern that is really difficult to track down. The track down is only able when there is someone who are saying that disagreement. That is why you’re going to understand to begin with and society are going to see there is no problem at all in that way. We think lastly why that is better in the government side? We think the reasons why we’re promoting abstention itself because we’re going to have a behavior of certain people inside of the democratic itself. We’re going to understand about what’s the pattern of the democracy inside of the democratic country. They should come up toward this debate and saying that this abstention is going to give you a very worst, a very harmful toward this thing. Because even we take their worst scenario that even if we don’t get any at all, any politician at all and even if we need to do the re-general election, at least we understand about what is the demand of a people. At least it is better for the general election. Second thing, they need to defend how to gain more voices to the liberal society. Because in the status quo, the liberal people are being trusted. Society trust because they are acknowledged as a smart people. The moment we are going to oppress them, there is narrative of the minor of society saying the liberal people. The oppression people are going to be justified because they are forcing you to choose. Even if they come toward the liberal idea, we do not think it could go that way. Because in old party in the current situation are standing in a less evil and lesser evil cannot be detected and you need to cut the toxic. As people speaking on behalf of a team who always sit at the back seat of every single national debating competition, we proudly propose.

Leader of the Opposition

Opening opposition stance is as follows. In the current political climate with Jokowi and Makruf Amin versus Prabowo and Sandiaga and other cases of lesser evil versus greater evil, what we must do as a liberal movement is to continue our campaign against abstention. You must vote because your vote matter to prevent the rise of a greater evil that will end up creating even greater harm. We think lesser evil is the best choice, we don’t want another Trump. All right, two thing rebuttals. Firstly, on the idea that abstention is a choice. Yes, we agree it is a choice, but choice is never an absolute ladies and gentleman. Why? We would argue that choice can always be limited when it comes to harms ladies and gentleman and this is a principle that even Indonesian liberals agree with. We agree with having an age limit for voting for example and they show how choice is not an absolutewhen it comes at the risk of harm. But secondly, note that unlike what they say we would say that criticism towards the liberal politician
still can happen even under our side, even though you still vote for the lesser evil. Why? Because even then you still can speak up within that you still can speak in social media you still can say things towards your legislative and the liberal side of the lesser evil coalition will listen to you. Why? Because they understand that you are a significant part of their base and furthermore, they would like to get elected again in the future because most of the time they are a career politician ladies and gentleman. What does it mean? It means that should Indonesian liberal at one point be that irrespective of that. They will change anyway but unfortunately that is not the case today so that is why they make compromises and that is why we should also make compromises. For the rebuttals integrated, two things ladies and gentleman.

Number one, why lesser evil is the principle that you must take and number two the policy that will be implemented by the lesser evil and how it will advance our movement in the future. Let us begin with the principle and why lesser evil is the principle that you must take. What is the stance of Indonesian liberal? The stance is they would like to have moreright ladies and gentleman. Equal rights fighting for minority and those wives. Now why is that, that within achieving this right we must be pragmatic. Number one, let us make a comparative of harm, right. We think that the harm will be much greater should you choose of the greater evil. No, in the case of lesser evil, even though it is not perfect we still think that the liberal side of the camp can reign in this so-called evil within the lesser evil coalition. We think that people like Jokowi can reign the likes of Makruf Amin. Why? For example, in that case, vice president power in Indonesia is relatively small. Their role is those of an advisor and their duties at somewhat ceremonial. Furthermore, Jokowi is younger and healthier than Makruf Amin. Replacement is particular unlikely. What is the comparative that they will be risking.

The comparative is that voting on nothing means that you are going to give that food to a greater evil that can rise up. This is the case of Prabowo Sandiaga Uno which is much more dangerous. Why? Because there’s a clearer bad track record, note that Sandiaga uno is one of the perpetrator of 212 that at the end of the day attack Ahok. Note that Prabowo militarism in 1998, kidnapping is ordered by him and the only reason why he missed acquittal is simply because of political power. Wise harm-prevention, the most importantly and a principle you must take. Because the question is on who are you representing as the liberal movement ladies and gentleman. You are representing the people who are the most vulnerable. You are representing minority that is going to be discriminated. You are representing on the rights that have been taken all the time and the moment you just do not vote you have to split the food of your camp that we solve without a potential win for the greater evil.

It means that your people will suffer even further and then you’re suffering so much. We think that the best we can do is prevent greater suffering for these people. Why is sustain even more important? Because the comparative is as follows. Note that in the event that the greater evil rises to power, your future fight will be harder as well. Why? Because once they rise to power, they can do the things like changing the constitution, policy, and raging the parliament ladies and gentleman, making it harder for you to even fight in the future. What it means that they will not only lose today, but we will lose in the future ladies and gentleman. But secondly, we would argue that this is consistent ladies and gentleman. Why? Because liberals have been making compromises in Indonesia all the time anyway, ladies and gentleman. For example, the liberal party PSI is very Ahok supporter, but at the end of the day, they choose to support Makruf Amin anyway. Ahok expressed interest in the
campaign for Jokowi and furthermore, we have been making compromises anyway. Jokowi makes compromises when he runs with Jusuf Kalla such as by not prosecuting the 1998. So even in term of principles, we have been consistent, because that is what we have done all the time to reach this level ladies and gentleman.

But second argument, on the policy that will be implemented and how it will benefit our movement. Yes, before that. Yes, he is pandering to a lot of people. That is exactly the point, he cannot rely on the liberal vote solely in order to get Islamist vote that is particularly powerful. That is the reason why Ahok’s foolish ladies and gentleman and that is why lesser evil is important, right. Ok, let us talk about policy, ok. We think that at the end of the day the question that we must ask is that how to make our movement stronger. Let us begin at how much power that our movement have right now. We think that power that we have is limited. It is concentrated only in the likes of young people and urban Java area for example. So, let us talk about our movement, how this candidate, the lesser evil policy will eventually strengthen our movement further.

Firstly, let us talk about our base camp, the likes of Java urban area where our movement is significantly stronger. How to make it even stronger ladies and gentleman? We need the people to associate our movement with a positive message and a positive branding and we think that this requires our lesser evil candidate to be elected first so that the people that exist in the grey area that are unsure about what to think about our movement will eventually associate us with a greater power, right. Why? Because the lesser evil candidate of the liberals are often times much more development and economic centric compared to the greater evil that are much more military and also morality centric. This is the case with Jokowi for example with this infrastructure programming in his campaign versus NKRI Bersyariah which is a key part of his campaign or in the government election, this is the case with Ridwan Kamil Economic Policy versus Hidayat Syahruin Conservative Strengthening in west Java. Now why is this good when we choose the more economic and development centric candidate of the lesser evil? Because it will lead to future positive reinforcement that is because this area of Java is much more concern to economic and they’re less puritan, so we strengthen our base at that point.

But secondly on the non-Java area, in area in which we are less powerful. We think that despite this area is having a bigger cultural affiliation, at the end of the day, this is as to why there are cases because they lack of other narrative. We think that opening an economic development means that they will be a new narrative coming towards them. What is that? Number one, through our infrastructure, when we build communication tower, when we build internet, there is a counter view point that can finally penetrate this area ladies and gentleman. But secondly, not only we’re bringing this narrative to the table, we think that economy on its own is a good narrative. Why? Because in this area, inequality is a very big issue and we think that helping and solving it at the end of the day will be an impact and a benefit that is directly seen by this people. What does it mean? It means that they will see that this liberalism brings benefit and it brings a direct benefit compared to the lesser evil of militarism. Other than that, we’ll get a better association that will continue to the future, that is how we sustain our movement. We proudly oppose.

Deputy Leader of the Opposition

Before I move on to my contentions and close the case of opening opposition, let me first contextualize and clarify to you what does lesser evil actually means. We think under opening opposition, lesser evil does not mean that there is a different type of harm, but it is
only the degree of harm that is different ladies and gentleman. Let us contextualize how does Indonesian politics works. Indonesian politics is not like United States politics that has a clear distinction about for example are your policy socialist or your policy capitalist. If you ask politician from Partai Kebangkitan Bangsa and Partai Persatuan Pembangunan for example about what is their economic policy that is different, they will not have any answer at all ladies and gentleman.

Moreover, we also argue that Indonesian politics is also not about how much of a role of Islam play in public life. Because Prabowo and Sandy are supported by GNPF Ulama and 212 movement and Jokowi at the same time has Makruf Amin that is supported by MUI. What I am trying to say here is that this is a very important framework since this proves that Indonesian politic is inherently about pragmatism and given that context, Indonesian liberal as the movement should be pragmatic as well. What we are going to prove to you under opening opposition as the marginal benefit that support our pragmatism is significantly beneficial to our liberal movement at the end of the day. That is explicit stance and exclusive contributions coming from the opening opposition. Before I move on, I am going to close the case of opening opposition by talking about two things. One, how is lesser evil different from the greater evil and secondly, what strategy liberal movement in Indonesia is pursuing right now and why embracing lesser evil is the only way to go. First of all, let us talk about how is lesser evil different than the greater evil. Because opening government essentially claim that can be more bad that the greater evil. No. Number one, note that lesser evil candidate has more counterbalance ladies and gentleman. Not that this is impossible for us to assume that Jokowi will want Indonesia to go to Islamist state as much as Prabowo is simply because the constituents that support Jokowi is even more liberal in the first place. For example, they have Partai Solidaritas Indonesia. They have National Democrat that backed by Surya Paloh that is famous for being a secular person which has pragmatic interest to ensure that this does not happen. On the comparative, Prabowo has less counterbalance which means that the degree of harm will not be acquitted at the end of the day. And second and the most important, note that each different political candidate wants to be different from each other. Because that is the only way in which they can maintain their consistency and to gain votes at the end of the day. If Jokowi gets even more greater evil that means that he is conceding to Prabowo stance and that will definitely be perceived by the voter as betrayal to the voters to begin with ladies and gentleman.

That is why we argue that Jokowi does not have any incentives to do this at all. With this clarification, let us move to the second and the most important clash of this debate about what strategy of liberal movement in Indonesia is pursuing right now. Note that this debate, the most important contention must only come from the one that considers the context of what strategy of liberal movement in Indonesia is pursuing right now and why does marginal benefit further the movement even further. To this, I am going to talk about two layers. Number one. What we are doing right now is that we are protecting minorities and secondly what we are doing right now is that we are making compromises for the sake of getting even more support. First of all. Let us talk about protecting minorities. In the status quo right now, many liberal movements implement concrete project. However, it is done in a cover manner. For example, in the status quo right now in many rural areas in Indonesia, many some branches of Islamist Indonesian give away condom for free in order to prevent sexually transmitted disease in certain area. Of course, this movement is done in secrecy
because it is going to be controversial if it is going to the public in the first place ladies and gentleman.

The problem that might obstruct all this campaign that we are doing right now is the platform that we can use will be taken down ladies and gentleman. What they may be talking about? We are talking the high likelihood of FPI to do progressive centers for example which are the center of the project that we are doing right now. But what I am trying to say here is that marginal benefit is significant in order for us to sustain this movement in the first place ladies and gentleman. Because it will be published, it will create controversy and that we will have the high likelihood to make the entire public explicitly goes against us. This comes in various forms, in terms of boycott, in terms of sexual exclusion, even in the worst case in the form of institutional take down of our movement at the end of the day.

We think that marginal benefit protects minorities significantly and that is the benefit that the closing government and opening government cannot possibly neglect to this debate. That is the first thing. And second and the most important, what we are doing right now is that we are making compromises ladies and gentleman. This clash, this layer will discuss how do we get even more support as the liberal movement. Given my opening, I have already established that Indonesian politic is not about ideology. It never is. But it is about pragmatism. This kind of narrative is something that is already recognized by the majority of Indonesian people. Given this, I am going to talk about two kinds of actors. Number one, I am going to talk about the kinds of people living in the grey area. Secondly, I am going to talk about the actual liberal themselves. First of all, let us talk about the kind of people living in the grey area. This is the reason as to why VM’s context becomes very important because the majority of Indonesian people do not care much about ideology. But what they need are things like protection and economic empowerment. Those are completely pragmatic reasons ladies and gentleman. We must be able to convince them that we are also pragmatic as well. We will also champion the pro step by step empowerment to the extent that you are able to achieve your ideal goal at the end of the day.

Because note that it is impossible for us to make Indonesia is completely liberal country for the next five to ten years. It takes of an extremely long time which unfortunately might not happen in our lifetime ladies and gentleman. It is something that must be supported here and we think under their side these people will not have any incentives to support us ladies and gentleman. That is the first people.

And the second people I am going to talk about are the actual liberal. Who are we talking about? We are talking about organizations like Arus Pelangi for example that currently tries to lobby the DPR for the government to not discriminating like homosexuality and so on and so far. Note that this organizations does not support any political candidate at all. What this movement needs are only pure platform to advance their idea and these ideas are independent of any political party ladies and gentleman. All of these things will feel betrayed. In the intentions in which we explicitly stated to them that we must not provide them any platform by not supporting the lesser evil candidate, at the end of the day we think that this will lead to a significant harm because at the end of the day the liberal movement will be fractured because under one side we have liberal movement that does not support the lesser evil but on the other hand, we have a branch of liberal movement that tries to implement as much as many concrete projects as possible but it only needs platform for you to do so.
We think that coherence of identity and coherence of platform and coherence of project that we do is something that is more important. What is the conclusion of this debate? Note that Indonesian politic is inherently pragmatic and they must show that why does not embracing lesser evil will further enhance this pragmatism. We close the case of opening opposition.

LIST OF ABBREVIATION
WUDC (World University Debating Championship)
NUDC (National University Debating Championship)
PM (Prime Minister)
DPM (Deputy Prime Minister)
DLO (Deputy Leader of the Opposition)
LO (Leader of the Opposition)
LD (Lexical Density)
GI (Grammatical Intricacy)
OG (Opening Government)
CG (Closing Government)
OO (Opening Opposition)
CO (Closing Opposition)