

SOCIO LINGUISTICS RESEARCH IN THE JOURNEY OF TIME

**A TRIBUTE TO
YE. BUDIYANA**

Editor
Antonius Suratno

⌘ ⌘ ⌘
SOEGIJAPRANATA CATHOLIC UNIVERSITY

SOCIO LINGUISTICS RESEARCH IN THE JOURNEY OF TIME

A TRIBUTE TO YE. BUDIYANA

A TRIBUTE

Sir Budi yana, we dedicate this book to you. It mostly contains your ideas and inspiration to your students which hopefully be the lasting memory of our coolest friend and our source of inspiration who has a high taste of humor and has better knowledge and understanding. You have been a constant source of support and encouragement during the moments of challenges and predicament of our faculty. We are truly thankful for having you in our school. You have been the source of our strength throughout the journey of our faculty and it is you who have encouraged us all the way through and whose encouragement has made us sure that we will give it all it takes to finish that which you have started as it is you whose good examples have taught us to work hard for the things that you aspire to achieve.

His Colleagues

**SOCIOLINGUISTICS RESEARCH
IN THE JOURNEY OF TIME**

A TRIBUTE
to
YE. Budiyanana

Editor
Antonius Suratno

SOEGIJAPRANATA CATHOLIC UNIVERSITY

**SOCIOLINGUISTICS RESEARCH IN THE JOURNEY
OF TIME**

A TRIBUTE to YE. Budi yana

Editor:

Antonius Suratno

Faculty of Language And Arts

Soegijapranata Catholic University

All rights reserved. Reproduction or transfer of part or all of the contents in this book in any form, electronically or mechanically, is not permitted, including photocopying, recording or with other storage systems, without written permission from the Author and Publisher.

©Universitas Katolik Soegijapranata 2019

ISBN :

Desain Sampul : Hartoyo van Putro

Perwajahan Isi : Ignatius Eko

PENERBIT:

Universitas Katolik Soegijapranata

Anggota APPTI No. 003.072.1.1.2019

Jl. Pawiyatan Luhur IV/1 Bendan Duwur Semarang 50234

Telpon (024)8441555 ext. 1409

Website : www.unika.ac.id

Email Penerbit : ebook@unika.ac.id

A Tribute

This book intentionally uses SOCIO_LINGUISTICS with underscore in the title lines. It is made up of a collection of articles extracted from the theses of among your best students you have ever supervised and guided throughout their journey studying in the Faculty of Language and Arts, Soegijapranata Catholic University, some contributions from other colleague lecturers who wrote reviews of state of the art articles, as well as articles in Applied Linguistics belong to individual persons which despite seemingly off the sociolinguistics topic yet still reflect relevant ideas. This is, in fact, what the title with the underscore above would suggest; despite its emphasis on Sociolinguistics, it also accommodates some articles on Linguistics.

When we began collecting them we had not realized that time goes by a lot quicker than we can anticipate. As a result, you are already too close to coming to the juncture of your long service, your tireless dedication and commitment to giving your very best to our beloved faculty, and by the time it is printed and bound it will only be a couple of weeks to your retirement. Someday, we believe, you will feel young again to start reading this book as it will always be of a memory of sweet times when your heart and soul were fully dedicated to this tiny mini faculty that embryonically you have ever seeded, fertilized and nurtured. You can then take it down from some upper shelf of your very personal home library, grab it, dust it, clean it and read it again so that you can tell us what you think of it and what you will ever think the ideal faculty you would ever imagine to be like. We may probably be too busy with ourselves, and too naïve and immature to understand words you

ever said, ideas you ever disseminated, but you will still be our affectionate dearest patron and camaraderie of us all.

Sir Budiyana, we dedicate this book to you. It mostly contains your ideas and inspiration to your students which hopefully be the lasting memory of our coolest friend and our source of inspiration who has a high taste of humor and has better knowledge and understanding. You have been a constant source of support and encouragement during the moments of challenges and predicament of our faculty. We are truly thankful for having you in our school. You have been the source of our strength throughout the journey of our faculty and it is you who have encouraged us all the way through and whose encouragement has made us sure that we will give it all it takes to finish that which you have started as it is you whose good examples have taught us to work hard for the things that you aspire to achieve.

On behalf of FLA Lecturers

Anton Suratno

Acknowledgment

It gives us great pleasure to celebrate the publication of this book. It is a labor of many hands, and on the behalf of the Faculty of Language and Arts (FLA), Soegijapranata Catholic University (SCU), I take the opportunity to thank some people who make this publication possible.

First of all, I thank Drs. Y.E.Budiyana, M.A. for his 29 years of professional life in SCU, and 21 years of unwavering dedication as a full lecturer at the FLA, the faculty he himself proposed to get it started in 1998. He has inspired fellow lecturers and students both on personal and professional levels. William Arthur Ward's well-known quote says "the mediocre teacher tells. The good teacher explains. The superior teacher demonstrates. The great teacher inspires." We know where pak Budi belongs to.

I also thank my colleagues at FLA:

Antonius Suratno, Ph.D. who is in charge of collecting the manuscripts and carrying out meticulous editing;

Dra. Wuryani Hartanto, M.A., Cecilia Titiek Murniati, Ph.D., Dr. Dra. Ekawati M. Dukut, M.Hum, Emilia Ninik Aydawati, S.P., M.Hum., Angelika Riyandari, Ph.D., Dr. Heny Hartono, S.S., M.Pd., G.M. Adhyanggono, Ph.D., as manuscript contributors and Y. Yogi Tegar Nugroho, S.Sn., M.A. as the composer of the song What We Need from a Friend.

We dedicate this book to Pak Budi. It is certainly not a sign of goodbye; it is a gesture of “see you later.”

God Bless us all.

Thank you.

B. Retang Wohangara, S.S. M.Hum.
Dean of the Faculty of Language and Arts
Soegijapranata Catholic University

Table of Contents

A Tribute	iii
Acknowledgment	v
Table of Contents	vii
Editorial <i>Antonius Suratno</i>	ix
Sociolinguistics and Language Creativity: A Review <i>Gerardus Adhyanggono</i>	1
Indonesian Puns on Instagram <i>Imel Chintya Rahayu; Y.E. Budiayana</i>	7
Multimodal Online Slang and Its Contributions to Language <i>Maria Carmelita Gunawan; Y.E. Budiayana; Antonius Suratno</i>	49
Pun on Stickers <i>Novrina Ekaputri Hariyanto; Y.E. Budiayana; Angelika Riyandari</i>	84
The Address Terms Used in Mixed Khek and Hokkian Families <i>Stephani Putri Priyanto; Y.E Budiayana; Emilia Ninik Aydawati</i>	107

An Analysis of Second Semester Students' Knowledge of Conjugation in FLA	127
<i>Evelyn Vania Boentoro; Y.E. Budiyanas:</i>	
<i>Cecilia Titik Murniati</i>	
An Analysis of the Problematic Skills in the Structure and Written Expression Section of Paper-Based TOEFL	171
<i>Jessica Enki Van Thiel; Y.E Budiyanas;</i>	
<i>Heny Hartono</i>	
Probing into Students' Attitudes towards the Teaching of World Englishes	189
<i>Wuryani Hartanto</i>	
An Analysis of the Faculty of Letters Students' Perceptions on the Use of English Language in Advertisements: A Case Study of <i>GoGirl</i> Magazine	198
<i>Irene Abigail; Y.E. Budiyanas;</i>	
<i>Emilia Ninik Aydawati</i>	
<i>Reviewed by Ekawati Marhaenny Dukut</i>	
A Review of Language, Discourse, and Class: What's Next?	222
<i>Gerardus Adhyanggono</i>	
A List of Contributors	227

Editorial

By

Antonius Suratno

The diversity of contexts and communicative needs leads people to produce a variety of language choices and in the way the language is expressed which include variety of words, lexical items, register, morphosyntactic structures, and so on. This is as a result of the nature of human beings as creative creatures who always attempt to survive and change in the ever-evolving time and civilization. The variety of choices results in language creativity. The notion of creativity has been used by many theorists to describe the ways in which language is used by users in a novel way or to devise new forms of language in human businesses. A currently dominant view in the fields of design, technology and the arts in the Western world is that something is creative if it is novel or of high quality and appropriate to the task at hand (Kaufman and Sternberg, 2010). Being creative implies that human beings always pursue a means of inventing an innovative novel way to make it fit with the new appropriate situation.

Sociolinguistics is an interdisciplinary enterprise focusing on the interplay between language and society. It is sometimes also understood as interdisciplinary studies that investigate the influence of culture on the way a language is used. In the latter case, language is closely related to the community of a region as a subject or language actors as a means of communication and interaction between one group with another. The scope of sociolinguistics investigation may among other things include the use of language by the community, also whether the language used

is standard or nonstandard types, jargon, register, dialect or sociolect. The sociolinguistics study is generally made up of three major subfields: linguistic anthropology, the sociology of language, and variationist sociolinguistics although a lot broader topics and areas can be studied in sociolinguistics including language variations, attitudes to language, extinction and language maintenance and phenomena of the language use by members of society.

This collection of articles written in this book falls into the category of variationist sociolinguistics where language is seen as the product of creativity as reflected by the major topics of interest of the writers in this book. We begin by describing the two subfields that are sociolinguistics and language creativity in the context of the current technological era dominant with multimodalities where the intermingle between language and technology creates creative and innovative language, in addition to a highlight on the other phenomenon in sociolinguistics which has recently become intriguing interest of research. This book is meant to provide a mini tiny portrayal of how such a creativity is manifested by various layers of current language users. One of the language practices that is inextricable from the impact of the development of communication and information technology is the emergence of a new form of creative language used especially by young people called slang, wordplay or also called puns, and meme. Linguistic creativity in practice has been of an innovative phenomenon, in spite of the fact that at the same time it also potentially leads to language divergence which often, if we do not want to say always, causes disparities in communication between people of different era and generation.

The development of information and communication technology that occurs today has influenced the cultural dimension that exists

in the midst of society, including the practice of language in the community. Alongside the development of this kind of communication technology, such a phenomenon has indirectly changed the way people communicate their ideas and produces new language meanings and messages. Such a practice is very much shaped by the emergence of technology and the plethora of new and the widespread use of social media among young people and yet helps shape the new facet of language. The practice of communication is obviously caused by the development of technology which has influenced the horizon of language practice and uses as a medium of communication by its speakers.

The use of language is relatively unstable, always changing in line with the journey of other elements in the social context and eventually will always be so. The elements thus called non-linguistic variables (Labov, 1972) will play the role. Likewise, Holmes (1992) states that certain social factors are relevant to certain variations used in connection with the language users or participants; the other relates to their use, namely social situations, and interaction functions. Who talks to who, in what situation or social context and the purpose, and that the purpose of human interaction greatly affects language selection. Although the distinction between standard and non-standard variants has been repeatedly observed, the indexical values of variation are not limited to this normative dimension. Rather, a single social variant can index different social meanings for different people, and at different times and in different contexts depending on who is speaking, what other variants are used, and the greater context of the social encounters. Variation thus may be viewed as a resource for achieving individual communicative objectives, such as manipulating the social distance between a speaker and interlocutor (Giles & Powesland, 1975), accommodation to one's

actual or imagined audience (Bell, 1984), or expressing aspects of social identity (Le Page & Tabouret-Keller, 1985). Thus, our understanding of language and cognition is incomplete if it fails to account for various ways in which social factors are connected to the production and perception of speech.

Initiated by an article review entitled Sociolinguistics and Language Creativity-A Review that provides thematic lead in of the whole chapters, this review intends to pinpoint that creative Sociolinguistics research is on the spotlight of the whole discussion, in spite of the fact that research on Applied Linguistics is not necessarily secondary. The chapters in this book comprise research reports such as Indonesian Puns on Instagram, Multimodal Slang and its Contribution to Language, Puns on Stickers, The Address Terms Used in Mixed Khek and Hokkian Families, An Analysis of Second Semester Students' Knowledge of Conjugation in FLA , An Analysis of the Problematic Skills in the Structure and Written Expression Section of Paper-Based TOEFL, An Analysis of the Problematic Skills in the Structure and Written Expression Section of Paper-Based TOEFL, Probing into Students' Attitudes towards the Teaching of World Englishes, and An Analysis of the Faculty of Letters Students' perception on the Use of English Language in Advertisements: A Case Study of DoGirl Magazine.

The very end part of the book will be of a review of a state of the art article entitled Language, Discourse, and Class: What's Next makes up itself of a prelude to what is likely to come with regard to the possible future trends in the Sociolinguistics world of research. This is what the title of this suggests.

Reference:

- Bell, A. (1984). Language style as audience design. *Language in Society*, 13, 145-204
- Kaufman, J. C. and Sternberg, R. J. (eds) (2010) *The Cambridge Handbook of Creativity*, New York, Cambridge University Press.
- Giles, H., & Powesland, P. F. (1975). *Speech style and social evaluation*. London: Academic Press
- Holmes, J. (1992) *An Introduction to Sociolinguistics*, London /New York, Longman.
- Labov, W.. (1972). *Sociolinguistik Pattern*. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press.
- Le Page, R.B. & Tabouret-Keller, A. 1985. *Acts of Identity: Creole-Based Approaches to Language and Ethnicity*. Cambridge: CUP.

Sociolinguistics and Language Creativity: A Review

by

Gerardus Adhyanggono

Joan Swann and Ana Deumert's article, "Sociolinguistics and language creativity" in *Language Sciences* Vol. 65 (2018) pp. 1-8, is a review article overviewing the current intersections in the fields of Sociolinguistics and Creativity, especially language creativity in daily life. The intersections discussed are situated within two core questions proposed. The first question concerns the extent the adoption of sociolinguistic approach may contribute to our understanding of creativity. The second one deals with how the study of creativity in language itself may enrich sociolinguistics and linguistic theories. Some key concepts are interwoven to define what is meant by 'creativity' in this article. The constructed understanding of creativity is perceived from some theoretical frames of aesthetics, Linguistics, Sociolinguistics, performance, and poetics. All of these theories, to a varying degree, relate to language use. Creativity understood in this article resides in the fundamental notion of creative action with novelty and originality, or "the production of something new that we didn't have before" (Swann & Deumert, 2018, p. 3). The article posits that sociolinguistic analysis is pivotal to provide

explanations of the usage of language in creative practices. And from the use of language in creative practices of our everyday life, sociolinguists also signify what it suggests. Further, the article argues that the ability of sociolinguistic analysis to reveal micro-processes of creativity constitutes the particular value (or the significant contribution) of sociolinguistic analysis in this context. The structure of the article comprises three sections: introduction, Sociolinguistics and the study of creativity, and creativity and (socio) linguistic theory. In the first section – introduction – the authors delineate the existing interest of academia in the study of creativity. They also explain the current attention of sociolinguists towards everyday forms of creativity, such as playful and humorous discourse, wit and irony, conversational imagery, linguistic manipulation of form and meaning in conversational joking, and art performance, whether on-or off-line. The second part explains how Sociolinguistics is pertinent to the study of creativity. The view presented derives from the vantage point of sociolinguists in that creativity can be approached by sociolinguists from the dimension of value and social meaning that a creative practice bears. This section highlights the issues of appropriateness and moments in creative practices, in relation to their values and social meanings. The sociolinguists consider that recontextualization – the transformation and reinstantiation of linguistic resources in the production of new meanings – is mandatory to address appropriateness and moments in understanding creativity in social life. As to the third section, the authors reverse the angle; how creativity itself as a concept can find its space within the areas of linguistic and sociolinguistic theories. The article indicates that through the ideas of poetics, aesthetics and performance creativity can be further comprehended moving beyond sole aspects of novelty and

originality. Within Sociolinguistics, poetic language brings its own particularity, which cannot be studied from the perspective of truth-value semantic. Aesthetics and performance provide their intersection with Sociolinguistics in their discursive process they express, i.e. politics of discourse. In the seemingly final paragraphs, the article finally underscores that language itself is a form of creativity where rule-bound and rule-breaking creativities coexist.

The first argument of the article – Sociolinguistic approach may explain the linguistic resources of creative practices – seems to be in the correct direction. The second argument further informs us that sociolinguistic analysis may reveal the micro-processes of everyday creativity. These arguments are well clarified in the article in that the Swann and Deumert meticulously interrelate linguistic resources and the micro-processes of creative practices. The linguistic aspects take part in shaping the micro-processes of everyday creativity. The authors draw such a conclusion after reviewing eight linguistic papers. They are:

- ✓ *Mimesis and mimicry in language – creativity and aesthetics as the performance of (dis)semblances: Ana Deumert, University of Cape Town, South Africa*
- ✓ *Aesthetics, politics and sociolinguistic analysis: Mary Louise Pratt, New York University, USA*
- ✓ *Microgenesis of language creativity: innovation, conformity, and incongruence in children’s language play: Asta Cekaite, Linköping University, Sweden*
- ✓ *Cricket bats, #riotcleanup and rhubarb: everyday creativity in Twitter interactions around Test Match Special: Julia Gillen, Lancaster University, UK*

- ✓ *At the fringes of language: on the semiotics of noise: Anne Storch, University of Cologne, Germany*
- ✓ *Linguistic Creativity and the production of cisheteropatriarchy: a comparative analysis of improvised rap battles in Los Angeles and Cape Town: H. Samy Alim, University of California, Los Angeles, USA; Jooyoung Lee, University of Toronto, Canada; Lauren Mason Carris, University of California, Los Angeles, USA; Quentin E. Williams, University of the Western Cape, South Africa*
- ✓ *'You don't have enough letters to make this noise': Arabic speakers' creative engagements with the Roman script: Ivan Panovi_c, Nanyang Technological University, Singapore*
- ✓ *Messy creativity (a response to the special issue): Rodney H. Jones, University of Reading, UK*

Further, Swann and Deumert base their review on the above papers to deductively answer the core questions developed in the article. The questions are: How can the adoption of a sociolinguistic lens contribute to our understanding of creativity? And how can the study of creativity in language contribute to sociolinguistic and linguistic theory? To answer the first question, the authors perceive that a sociolinguistic analysis provides an explanation on “the micro-discursive processes that produce something as creative in interaction”(Swann & Deumert, 2018, p. 4). Thus, discourse and interaction are the entry points where the creativity of language use is materialized in every day (creative) practices. Interactional discursive practices in everyday creativity are then particularly hospitable to the need for theoretical and aesthetic analyses. This is firmly articulated in the article.

As regards the second question, Swann and Deumert seem to ground their explanation, not only from the reviewed papers but

also from the work of Noam Chomsky on linguistic creativity (Chomsky, 2002) and that of Roman Jakobson on linguistics and poetics (Jakobson, 1960). The authors maintain that from the perspective of language principle seeking for regularity and pattern orientation, language in relation to creativity, especially that of poetic language is something messy, unclearly structured and patterned. With this, Swann and Deumert conclude that language in creative practices needs to be seen as “inherently poetic, aesthetic, performed and performative. It is rooted in an understanding of language as not just referential, a tool for communication, but as expressive and indeed aesthetic experience” (Swann & Deumert, 2018, p. 7). In other words, creative language may produce diverse meanings. At this point, I think the article leaves a gap: for those seeking for a positivist view of pattern and regularity of the language use in sociolinguistic areas, language and creativity cannot be truly extrapolated for they seem to be ‘contradictory’. And yet, for those searching for meaning-oriented function of language as an expressive medium, language and creativity become a fairground to explore.

Overall, I think the article is quite contributory to the fields of Sociolinguistics and the study of Creativity. However, the gap I mentioned above needs to be addressed more comprehensively. Otherwise, the notion of ‘ambivalent’ position of language creativity described as being in between rule-bound and rule-breaking linguistic practices prevails; or is meant to be?

References

- Chomsky, N. (2002). *Syntactic Structures* (2nd ed.). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Jakobson, R. (1960). Closing Statement: Linguistics and Poetics. In *Style in Language*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: The M.I.T. Press.
- Swann, J., & Deumert, A. (2018). Sociolinguistics and language creativity. *Language Sciences*, 65, 1–8. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.langsci.2017.06.002>

Indonesian Puns on Instagram

by

Imel Chintya Rahayu; Y.E. Budiayana

ABSTRACT

As one of the language phenomenon, puns nowadays are widespread in various forms of media. This study deals with types and functions of puns in social media specifically *Instagram*. The puns were applied on *Instagram* in a form of verbal (textual) visual puns that combine those two aspects in forming the pun itself. This study aims to identify the types of puns and to analyze the function of puns on *Instagram*. The visual image data were taken from the posts of *Instagram* user accounts. In collecting the data, the writer used *Instagram* application and took screenshots of the visual data. A qualitative method was employed in this study to analyze the data. The result of the study showed that there are 41 visual image puns in four types. The writer found 12 homonymy puns, 3 homophony puns, 4 homography puns and 22 paronymy puns on *Instagram*. This study also revealed that several puns in *Instagram* play on similarities between two words in two different languages which are in this case Indonesian and English to produce amusing puns. In addition, the writer discovered three functions of puns in *Instagram* including humor, satire and cleverness. The most dominant function of puns is purely for the humorous purpose. Pun in this function creates amusement through the play on words that contains topic about familiar daily life or recent issues at that time.

Key Words: *pun, instagram , language variety*

INTRODUCTION

Pun has been a popular phenomenon as a form of playful verbal behavior. Every language has its own puns. Mohammadilasari et al. (2014) stated that “Punning is possible in any language insofar as it seems to be a universal feature of language to have words with more than one meaning (polysemy), different words with the same spelling or pronunciation (homographs and homophones).”

A pun is also a form of humor that using language as the medium. It is one of verbal humor types that mostly used to give humorous effect by exploiting the ludicrous possibility of language. The pun is commonly found in literary texts, jokes, riddles, advertisements, movies, and television comedy shows and nowadays, lots of puns come up on the Internet. Pun on the Internet is mostly shown through images that are put all together with text or likely known as a verbal-visual pun.

The existence of pun enriches the use of language in a creative and unique way. It is influenced by local culture and a certain society dealing with recent issues. It is also closely related to young people who love new things and something fresh and different. From the abovementioned phenomenon, therefore, through this research, the writer is interested in investigating the use of pun in Bahasa Indonesia found on social media particularly on *Instagram* in a form of visual material.

Pun has received attention in several fields of study. There are several studies on pun from different fields such as in psychology by Valkenburg (2004), in teaching by (Lems, 2013), in literary and translational; Delabatista (1994), Mohammadisalari, Z., et al (2014) and in linguistics; Partington (2009), Giorgadze (2014).

There is also a similar study from local researchers who analyzed the use of wordplay or “*plesetan*” on printed T-shirt Company by Triyulianto (2014). All the aforementioned studies were conducted qualitatively and revealed pun as one of the most important types of wordplay. However, specifically linguistic and socio-cultural works dealing with Indonesian pun are still few, especially related to digital media.

As stated by Ting et al. (2015), “*Instagram* reaches the younger generation, and appeals to diverse societies more prevailingly than other social networking services... It has been reported that youngsters today spend more time on *Instagram* than *Facebook*”. She further explained that it was estimated that *Instagram* had 100 million users in 2013. *Instagram* is one of the most popular social media used among the netizen in Indonesia, thus, it provides a wide range of data regarded with this research.

In order to collect data on pun, the writer will collect the visual materials containing pun which are collected from *Instagram* user accounts and then will analyze the data qualitatively. Furthermore, the writer will focus on analyzing only the pun found in Indonesian.

Analysis of pun is within the domain of Sociolinguistics, and in this article, the writer attempts to identify and present the types and functions of Indonesian puns *Instagram*? Hopefully, this researched-based article can contribute to the field of Linguistics in explaining pun as a phenomenon of language creativity in society and provide a valuable starting point for further research particularly on pun.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A. LANGUAGE VARIETY

The term “language and society” is often used interchangeably with the term “sociolinguistics”. Sociolinguistics is a very broad field and can be used to study language in many different ways. According to Holmes (2001), sociolinguistics is the study of language and society relationships. It is about the use of language in particular society within certain social contexts. It means that society, region, and context determine the use of language.

In defining sociolinguistics we will be introduced to the term “Language Variety”. Hudson and Ferguson in Wardhaugh (1998) define language variety as a specific set and linguistic items or human speech patterns (presumably sounds, words, grammatical features, etc) which we can uniquely associate with some external factor (presumably, a geographical area or a social group). People choose the appropriate variety for any particular interaction are strongly influenced by social factors. Holmes (2001) stated that “... in every community there is a range of varieties from which people select according to the context in which they are communicating.”

The use of different language varieties in society can be found in daily life, in the spoken form and in the written one. Written language can be in the form of newspapers, books, posters, advertisements, magazine, online chatting, online blogs, and social media. Among those kinds of written forms of language, social media is one of the interesting written forms to be taken as the object of study especially written puns on *Instagram*. The language used in social media may be less formal since people used it for daily interaction. Most people talk casually using informal language with peers to show solidarity and intimacy. In the context of this puns study, the speech style employed is informal style as it contains joke for entertaining purposes.

B. REGISTER

In everyday interaction, the ways people use language vary from one person to another and one place to another. It occurs because there are differences that require people to interact based on certain needs, purpose, situation and social context. A register is typically characterized by a set of vocabulary or terminology and style related to profession or occupation or other defined social groups. Spolsky (1998) defines register as a variety of languages most likely to be used in a specific situation and with particular roles and statuses involved. Halliday as cited in Leckie-Tarry (1993) stated that register is determined, by what is taking place, who is taking part is and what part the language is playing. Holmes (2001) explained that people's speech not only reflects aspects of their identity such as ethnicity, age, gender, and social background, but it also reflects the context in which they are using the language. The way people talk to babies, children and adults must be different. We also talk differently to people from different social backgrounds. We tend to use more casual language with those people we know well and equal with us. Therefore, from the definitions above, register can be concluded as a variety of language which is the use can be based on social considerations consists of three aspects covers setting, participants and topic or which is mostly known as domain.

C. SLANG

Slang refers to one of informal styles in speech that is used especially by particular group of people to distinguish themselves from outsiders. Spolsky (1998) defines it as, "... a kind of jargon marked by its rejection of formal rules, its comparative freshness, and its common ephemerality, and its marked use to claim solidarity." Slang words and expressions are usually characterized

by a high degree of informality, familiarity, vocabulary richness. For instance, the word “chill”, which is a slang word means relax or calm down. This kind of speech style is associated with social boundaries in communities and group membership identity. The use of slang indicates the importance of language to establish social identity, just as stated by O’Grady (1996, p. 555), “Particular „slangs“, however, are very much associated with membership of groups and, when used in the presence of another member of the same group, serve as an affirmation of solidarity with other members.”

Slang is universal, it can be found in all languages around the world and in all time periods. It varies from region to region and always changes from past to present. Slang is mostly employed by adolescents and teenagers. There is concern in society that the existence of slang could threaten the purity of standard national language, however, slang gives color to the use of language. “Slang meets variety of social needs and rather than a corruption of the language, it is yet further evidence of the creativity of the human language user (Fromkin, Robert, & Nina, 2011).”

The characteristics of rejection from formal rules and informal style of slang language are closely related to the essence of pun. The pun is often delivered in casual style within informal situations as it evokes humor. Pun also contains deviation in the form of language or more known as *Plesetan* in Indonesian. Therefore, pun can be seen as a part of slang language.

D. PUN

There are so many phenomena to the function of language that can be found in our society. The common phenomenon that can be found is pun which represents language creativity. Pun belongs to the poetic function of language. The poetic or aesthetic function

focuses on features within the language that display aesthetic, sensuous aspects, design and craftsmanship make the text appear “playful” and draws attention (Juel, 2013).

Merriam-Webster Dictionary defines that pun or also called paronomasia is a form of wordplay which suggests two or more meanings, by exploiting multiple meanings of words, or of similar-sounding words, for an intended humorous or rhetorical effect (2016). Thus, ambiguity is closely related to the characteristic of pun. However, the ambiguity itself is not enough to create pun as it needs context either textual or visual. In addition, the limit of this study is only about pun rather than ambiguous words.

The term “pun” and “wordplay” are often used interchangeably. Delabastita uses the term pun and wordplay synonymously (as cited in Koponen, 2004). He defines it as:

“... is the general name for the various textual phenomenon in which structural features of the language(s) used are exploited in order to bring about a communicatively significant confrontation of two (or more) linguistic structures with more or less similar forms and more or less different meanings.”

Pun exploits its double meaning (surface meaning and deep meaning) in a certain context to achieve a rhetorical effect, especially humor. The surface meaning or the literal meaning of pun and the deep meaning or connotation meaning of pun which are presented in one context lead to more than one interpretation. Therefore it will need process in comprehending the pun. People will be led to connect naturally the two different senses with the provided context and commonly shared knowledge.

Puns can be found in any discourses especially those which have particular purposes. As stated by Giorgadze (2015) that “... puns

have been widely used in advertisements, jokes, riddles, literary works and the like, to make the language lively and impressive and to produce a humorous, jocular or sarcastic effect.” Attention-getting, pleasure, amusement, and laughter usually become the common purpose of pun. Although there are some scholars who disagree that pun is used merely to create humorous effect, most of puns are humorous and amusing.

The employment of pun in language also can reduce the degree of seriousness of the situation becomes more relax and casual. Something taboo can be less vulgar if it is delivered in a form of wordplay and critiques can be more accepted if it is delivered in humorous way like puns. For instance, the conversation between two men below:

A : *Pak Ustad, kenapa bapak saya melarang saya untuk menikahi wanita sekampung?* (Ustad, why do you think my father forbade me to marry with '**wanita sekampung**'?)

B : *Lho memang tidak boleh* (Well it is true)

A : *Tapi kenapa Pak ustad?* (But why Sir?)

B : *Karena menikah dengan satu wanita saja sudah ribet apalagi wanita sekampung* (Because married to one woman alone is already complicated, moreover with the entire village women)

The conversation above shows that in the beginning, it was serious situation as can be seen from the serious question but then the second man exploits the word meaning “*wanita sekampung*” which can mean “a woman in the same village” and also can mean “the whole village women”. The use of homonymy pun here

makes the serious situation becomes more casual. However, the reactions of readers or audiences may vary towards puns.

There are three aspects explained by Koponen (2004) that can be concluded from Delabastita's definition of wordplay. The first aspect is the linguistic structures that have similar forms are contrasted to produce humor out of their different meanings. As stated by Delabastita there are four different ways that linguistic structures can share similar forms. They are homonymy, homophony, homography, and paronymy. According to Delabastita such features can be phonological (homophones etc.), morphological (derived and compound words the parts of which have lost their literal meaning), lexical (polysemous words and idioms), and syntactic (ambiguous phrases or sentences) (Koponen, 2004).

The second aspect is that to create the humorous effect of wordplay (or pun), mere ambiguity is not enough. It requires context, either verbal or situational to be activated. The verbal context deals with human knowledge and coherent texts while contextualized phrase or situational context includes, for instance, the pictorial element of comics, which gives additional meaning to the text.

The third aspect is the communicative significance factor. It is related to the contextual aspect where there is the difference between accidental ambiguities in the text and those used deliberately for wordplay and the effects it creates. Nevertheless, Delabastita admits that it is often found very difficult to determine the intention of the author.

There are four categories of pun according to Delabastita (as cited in Koponen, 2004, p. 35); homonymy, homophony, homograph, and paronymy. The categories are presented in the following table.

Table 1.

Categories of Pun

<u>Name of Category</u>	<u>Relationship between the pun items</u>
Homonymy	both pronunciation and spelling are identical
Homophony	identical pronunciation but different spellings
Homograph	different pronunciation but identical spelling
Paronymy	similar in both spelling and pronunciation, but not identical

1. Homonymy

Homonymy is a term for those words that have identical forms but have different meanings. Routledge Dictionary of Language and Linguistics defines homonymy as a type of lexical ambiguity involving two or more different words (Bussman, 1996). Schröter stated, “the term homonymy is used to refer to the relationship between two (or more) linguistic structures that are formally identical, both in spelling and sound, but have divergent meanings” (2005, p. 168). The different meanings of homonyms can be traced to different etymological roots, thus different words are involved e.g. English palm (hand) vs. palm (tree). It means that homonymy is any lexical items which are phonetically and orthographically identical yet the meanings etymologically unrelated or happen to be identical because of mere coincidence.

2. Homophony

The main characteristic of homophony is marked by identical sound or pronunciation. Schröter (2005) defines homophone as

two or more words or other linguistic structures that sound the same, but are spelled differently e.g. English flower vs. flour. According to Routledge Dictionary of Language and Linguistics, homophone is a type of lexical ambiguity in which two or more expressions have an identical pronunciation but different spellings and meanings. Therefore, homophony is based on ambiguity in phonetic level (1996).

3. Homograph

If two expressions are orthographically identical but have different meanings, they are homograph (Bussman, 1996). Similarly, Schröter said (2005) in reverse of homophony, homograph is identical in written forms or spelling but different in pronunciation e.g. English bow / ˈbaʊ / (to bend down) vs. bow / ˈbô / (ribbon). As the ambiguity in homograph is based on the identical in written form, it will be easy to find them on internet puns, which mostly deal with the combination of text and image material.

4. Paronymy

The last type of puns, which is called paronymy is marked by a slight difference in both spelling and pronunciation. As Schröter (2005) defines paronymy as the relationship between linguistic structures that are formally similar, but not identical on either the phonetic or the orthographic level.

Further definition of paronymic pun is explained by de Vries & Verheij (as cited in Schröter, 2005) as the use of words with only a slight difference in surface form which is in their example mostly involves one or two letters e.g. English quiet (calm, not noisy, peaceful) vs. quite (really, completely, very). The formal similarity in paronymy is weaker than in homonymy but still strong enough for the two words to be related to each other in the mind of the listener or reader.

E. FUNCTIONS OF PUN

Pun has various functions in a certain discourse where it is used in. In general, pun has four major functions that stated by Li as cited in (Dvořáková, 2012) including information conveying, attention-getting, interest arising and memory intensifying. Pun is a peculiar yet humorous and smart way to employ language which can give unusual experience to the viewers. The pun is also an effective way of expressing information, ideas and feeling. Gan (2015) added that puns can make a language more appealing and strengthen the informative effect of a language. Through its humorous and unique characteristics, pun easily catches people's attention and arouse their curiosity. Thus, it will leave a deep impression on the people. Besides those functions, pun also has several different functions such as humor, brevity, persuasion, satire, and forming riddles (Gan, 2015).

1. Humor

In humor function, the use of pun purely aims to achieve a ludicrous effect. In a word, it creates amusement, enjoyment, and laughter through the play on words.

2. Satire

In satire, function pun is used to achieve a sarcastic effect. It contains social critic that aim to achieve indirectly sarcastic effect. Instead of saying something directly, people sometimes use pun to comfort or criticize somebody (Gan, 2015).

3. Cleverness

In this function, pun is applied in a form of riddle that represent cleverness as the process will need more sophisticated and subtle language skills and knowledge. Pun is used to make people interested in guessing the riddles and gives them pleasurable experience in solving the pun itself.

RESEARCH METHOD

This study aimed to analyze the kinds and functions of puns that exist in social media particularly, *Instagram*. A qualitative method was employed in conducting this study because of the nature of the research which is more on the description and interpretation of pun forms and its function. As defined by Creswell (2003, p. 182), “Qualitative research is fundamentally interpretive. This includes developing a description of an individual or setting, analyzing data for themes or categories, and finally making an interpretation or drawing conclusions about its meaning personally and theoretically.”

In collecting data about puns, the writer used a qualitative approach by collecting the data in a form of visual materials from the *Instagram* application. According to Creswell (2003), qualitative procedures rely on text and image data, therefore, this research belongs to qualitative research. Considering that *Instagram* was accessible to the writer, she chose it as data source of this research. Thus, it can be said the writer uses convenience sampling. Convenience sampling involves choosing the nearest individuals to serve as respondents and continuing that process until the required sample size has been obtained or those who happen to be available and accessible at the time (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007).

A. Method of Data Collection

A.1. Participants

There are no participants involved in this research because the data used are public documents. Therefore, it is unnecessary to ask permission to take the data.

A.2. Data Source

The data source of this research was *Instagram*. The data were in a form of visual materials containing pun in a combination of texts and images which are posted or submitted by several active *Instagram* user accounts. The reason why the writer chose *Instagram* as the source is that it provides wide range of visual data related to this research.

B. Research Procedures

In collecting the data, the writer was online on *Instagram* by using its application via smart-phone. Then, she searched for the target user accounts through *Instagram* account's search engine. First, she typed random keywords related to pun in Indonesian, for instance; *plesetan*, *meme*, *humor* or *dagelan* on the *Instagram* search engine. After that, she found random results of the accounts. Then she viewed their profiles and scrolled down to look for any possible visual data containing puns that were posted by the accounts. After the writer obtained the data, she viewed the image in full-screen mode and took the screenshot of the image. Then, the screenshot of the image was automatically saved in the gallery of the writer's phone.

C. Method of Data Analysis

After the data were obtained, the writer analyzed them. The writer used the aforementioned theory provided in the Review of Literature section in analyzing the type and the functions of puns. The data were processed by classifying them into two parts. The first part is the types of pun according to Delabastita's pun classification theory and the second part is the functions of pun. The writer put the puns into categories in each part and analyzed them. Lastly, the writer interpreted and presented the findings.

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

In this chapter, the writer analyzed the collected data. The results are based on the problem formulation; what types and functions of Indonesian puns on *Instagram*. The collected data are in a form of the visual image with text combination containing pun in Indonesian. There were 41 images taken from the posts made by several *Instagram* user accounts.

A. TYPES OF INDONESIAN PUNS ON INSTAGRAM

In this part, the writer presents the analysis of pun types exist on *Instagram*. There are four types of puns on *Instagram* including homonymy, homophony, homograph, and paronymy. The total number of the pun is 41, yet due to the limited pages for this article, not all puns are presented here. The table below shows the distribution of each category.

Table 2.

Types of Indonesian Puns on Instagram

<u>Types of Pun</u>	<u>Numbers</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
Homonymy	12	29%
Homophony	3	7%
Homograph	4	10%
Paronymy	22	54%
Total	41	100%

A.1 Homonymy

Homonymy is a term for those words that have identical forms but have different meanings. Routledge Dictionary of Language and Linguistics defines homonymy as a type of lexical ambiguity involving two or more different words (Bussman, 1996). Schröter stated, “the term homonymy is used to refer to the relationship between two (or more) linguistic structures that are formally identical, both in spelling and sound, but have divergent meanings” (2005, p. 168).

The different meanings of homonyms can be traced to different etymological roots, thus different words are involved. It means that homonymy is any lexical items which are phonetically and orthographically identical yet the meanings etymologically unrelated or happen to be identical because of mere coincidence. Here are some examples.

Tambang

Figure 4.1.1.A. Example of Homonymy Pun



The above example of an image contains pun. The word “*tambang*” in the first verbal expression conveys the meaning of a kind of rope, whereas, in the second context the word “*tambang*”

means mining industry. However, the word “*tambang*” in second part is supported by the context of sentence and gives enough information to the viewers to guess the meaning. Therefore, this pun belongs to homonymy because it consists of two words with different lexical meanings (unrelated senses) within identical forms of phonology and orthography (spelling).

Suap

Figure 4.1.1.C. Example of Homonymy Pun

The given example pun uses homonymy on the word “*suap*”. In Indonesian, the word “*suap*” can be „bribe” money or a gift that is illegally given to someone to persuade them doing something and also can mean “mouthful” an amount of food that is put into a mouth at one time. However, the context of the sentence itself suits to both meanings of the word. This confusion of two senses of the word creates a pun.



The visual image in this pun has an important role to build a different perception of the sentence. If the textual expression stands alone people may assume that the word “*suap*” means a bribe. People may think that way as bribery is something common happen particularly among the police officers. Yet, the existence of the visual image gives the additional meaning and clarifying the intended pun “*suap*” means to feed.

Tulang Rusuk

Figure 4.1.1.D. Example of Homonymy Pun



This pun exploits the Indonesian phrase “*tulang rusuk*” which has two different senses. The first literal meaning of this phrase is a rib. Besides, “*tulang rusuk*” in Indonesian is a term refers to a soul mate. In this pun, the punster plays with different meanings and creates nonsense pun. There is a correlation between the visual image and the text in delivering the pun. The visual image shows a billboard of restaurant within the writing on it; “*Bakso Tulang Rusuk*” that is a kind of meatball made from cow ribs. While, the written text “*pantesan gue ga ketemu tulang rusuk gue, dijadiin bakso, (huft)*” means “no wonder if I can’t find my “*tulang rusuk*,” it was made for meatball, “(sigh)” which is in this context the phrase “*tulang rusuk*” means soulmate.

Sidang

Figure 4.1.1.F. Example of Homonymy Pun



“*Sidang*” is an Indonesian term refers to a legal process in a court law or “trial”. On the other hand, the term “*sidang*” can be used to name “thesis exam” in college level. In the given example of pun, there is a portrait of a person, Jessica Wongso. She is famous especially in Indonesia because of her cyanide coffee case. After long process of trial, she was found guilty of Wayan Mirna Salihin death by putting cyanide in her coffee drink. This visual pun came up when the process of law was running. The text on the picture says; “Do you know? Jessica has had “*sidang*” many times and she has not graduated yet. The word “*sidang*” in the sentence gives confusion to the readers as it suggests double meanings. The punster plays with the same word in one sentence and both meanings suit in it. Thus, this pun can be classified into homonymy pun.

Asusila

Figure 4.1.1.H. Example of Homonymy Pun



In the given example pun is created on the basis of homonymy of the word “*asusila*”. “*Asusila*” in Indonesian means immoral. However, the visual image of a dog with a cross-legged pose gives another sense of the word. The word “*asusila*” literally consists of the word “*asu*” or “dog” and “*sila*” or “cross- legged”. In the presented image, the word “*asusila*” is written separately to make the viewer get the notion easily. Here, the visual image plays an important role in giving hint to the viewers about the idea of pun.

A.2 Homophony

The main characteristic of homophony is marked by identical sound or pronunciation. Schröter (2005) defines homophone as two or more words or other linguistic structures that sound the same, but are spelled differently. According to Routledge Dictionary of Language and Linguistics homophone is a type of lexical ambiguity in which two or more expressions have identical pronunciation but different spellings and meanings. Therefore,

homophony is based on ambiguity in phonetic level (1996).

Line-Lain

Figure 4.1.2.A. Example of Homophony Pun



In the given example pun is created on the phonological level. The visual image portrays the logo of social media application, Line. In pronunciation, the word “Line” in English sounds similar to the word “lain” in Bahasa Indonesia. Yet, the intended meaning in the given example is the word “lain” means “another” in Indonesian. However, the context of the sentence gives the viewer’s knowledge background and a hint to guess the pun. The sentence says: “cannot move on to another heart.”

Bike-Baik

Figure 4.1.2.B. Example of Homophony Pun



The given example shows a picture of a man who sleeps with his bike on the bed. The written text says; “Why do you date your bike?” and the text below the picture says the answer; “because it is *bike*.” The pun exists between the word “bike” and the context of the sentence. The second sentence in the image is a cliché answer to the given question or first sentence. When someone asked why he or she dates someone, s/he may answer because s/he is kind. In other words, the context of the sentence suggests another sense that is the word *baik*. *Baik* in Indonesian means kind-hearted. The word *bike* in English which means bicycle has similar pronunciation with the word *baik* in Indonesian although they are spelled differently. But in this case, the punster changes the object becomes “*sepeda*” or „bike” to create pun. The punster substitutes the Indonesian word “*baik*” with *bike* which share similarity on phonetic level to give ludicrous effect.

Go Blog-Goblok

Figure 4.1.2.C. Example of Homophony Pun



The visual image shows a picture of a group of people with a banner as the background. The text of the banner is written; “*Seminar Nasional dan Workshop, Guru Go Blog, Analisa Pemanfaatan Blog dalam Pendidikan.*” which means in English “National Conference and Workshop, Go Blog Teacher, Blog Utilization Analysis in Education.” The pun in this example is laid on the phonological level between the English phrase “Go Blog” and Indonesian word “*goblok*”. The sentence “*Guru Go Blog*” is written in capital letter and sounds normal in English but in Indonesian it may sounds ambiguous with the word “*goblok*”. *Goblok* is a rude word which means stupid. This adjective word is contrary to the noun *guru* or teacher. Thus, “*Guru Go Blog*” which means teachers who use blog for education may sounds as “stupid teachers” in Indonesian. The combination of English and Indonesian words is exploited by the punster in creating pun.

A.3 Homograph

If two expressions are orthographically identical but have different meanings, they are homograph (Bussman, 1996). Similarly, Schröter said (2005) in reverse of homophony, homograph is identical in written forms or spelling but different in pronunciation. As the ambiguity in homograph is based on the identical in written form, it will be easy to find them on internet puns, which mostly deal with the combination of text and image material.

Tahu

Figure 4.1.3.A. Example of Homography Pun



The pun is created orthographically by the identical spelling of the word “tahu”. It can be seen from the image that the word “tahu” implies two meanings in a set of a sentence. The first meaning is

“*tahu*” also known as tofu, is Asian dish made of bean curd. The other meaning of “*tahu*” is a verb, “to know” something. Although they have identical spelling, the pronunciation between them sounds different. The additional sentence “*tapi dia memilih diam*” in English means “it remains silent instead” makes the intended pun clearer. Both visual and verbal effect in the given example plays an important role in forming a pun.

Lebaran

Figure 4.1.3.B. Example of Homography Pun



The word “*lebaran*” in the given example of pun is employed twice in the sentence. The employed word “*lebaran*” in two contexts of the sentence brings about ambiguity to the viewers. Although they seem orthographically identical, they are pronounced differently and each suggests different meaning. In the

first part of the text: “*pas lebaran*”, the word “*lebaran*” conveys meaning of religious celebration day for Muslims to mark the end of fasting or more known as Eid al-Fitri. Whereas in the second part, the word “*lebaran*” from the root word *lebar* or wide in Indonesian means getting wider or bigger. The sentence “*Pas lebaran badan berasa lebaran*” means “while Eid al-Fitri my body is getting bigger.” The visual image represents the text by portraying a fat woman. It is make sense because during the celebration day Muslim people usually visit relatives and neighbours and they will have a feast in every house they visit as part of the culture. Every house who celebrates the occasion will serve various food, meal, cookies, beverages and snacks for guests.

Beruang

Figure 4.1.3.C. Example of Homography Pun



In this example, the Indonesian word “*beruang*” becomes the point of pun. This word suggests two possible meanings in the given

example. From the caption the word *ber"uang"* is written with the quotation mark between the word *uang* which means money. First, the word *beruang* that consists of prefix *ber* and basic word *uang*, means a state of having enough money, and this meaning is relatable to the context of the sentence and it is proven by the written form of the quotation mark. The visual element of the given example by contrast represents another possible meaning of the word. The second possible meaning of the word *beruang* in Indonesian is literally a bear. Thus, the sentence "*Apa aku harus jadi beruang biar bias memelukmu?*" or in English "Should I become "*beruang*" so that I could hug you?" convey two different senses which both suit to the context. Both words has the same spelling but different pronunciation. However, it can be seen from the written text (quotation mark) that the intended meaning of the pun is *ber"uang"* that means a state of having enough money. The opposing idea made by the visual and verbal elements gives confusion to the viewers and it creates pun.

Aa Gym

Figure 4.1.3.D. Example of Homography Pun



The visual representation above is an edited image of one of the religious leaders in Indonesia. The edited image consists of *Aa Gym*'s face and unknown muscular body. *Aa Gym* or *Abdullah Gymnastiar* is one of popular preaches among Muslim people in Indonesia. *Aa* itself is the Sundanese word used to address an older human male. The pun in this example is created through the word "gym" which suggests more than one meaning. Regarded with the visual representation, the word "gym" can be the nickname of *Gymnastiar* or also can be literal meaning in English, exercise to build physics. Both senses are supported by the image. The similar orthography or spelling within different meanings of the word "gym" is exploited by the punster in this example. However, they are pronounced differently. Therefore this belongs to homograph pun category.

A.4 Paronymy

The last type of puns, which is called paronymy is marked by slight difference in both spelling and pronunciation. As Schröter (2005) defines paronymy as the relationship between linguistic structures that are formally similar, but not identical on either the phonetic or the orthographic level.

Further definition of paronymic puns is explained by de Vries & Verheij (as cited in Schröter, 2005) as the use of words with only a slight difference in the surface form which is in their example mostly involves one or two letters. The formal similarity in paronymy is weaker than in homonymy but still strong enough for the two words to be related to each other in the mind of the listener or reader.

Lalapan-Balapan

Figure 4.1.4.A. Example of Paronymy Pun



Riddle is often contained pun. The word “*lalapan*” has slight differences in phonological and spelling with the word “*balapan*”. However, they have totally different meanings. “*Lalapan*” refers to a kind of Indonesian salad dish and “*balapan*” means a race. The phrase “*lalapan liar*” sounds familiar to a common fixed phrase in society “*balapan liar*” which means “illegal race.” Thus, this pun belongs to paronymy. The ambiguity relies on both the phrase and the visual representation and it creates pun.

Skripsi-Krispi

Figure 4.1.4.B. Example of Paronymy Pun



In this visual pun the word “*skripsi*” is slightly similar with the word “crispy”. The punster exploits the slight similarity of both words to create the pun. The word “*skripsi*” which mean thesis and crispy has slight difference either on phonetic and orthography. However, there is a link that the viewers could connect between these two words to grab the idea of this pun. The link is made on the context of the sentence itself and visual element of the pun.

Baper-Wafer

Figure 4.1.4.D. Example of Paronymy Pun



This pun is created between the visual element and the verbal text of the above image. The text says “well, so this is called *baper*.” On the other hand, the visual element represents the kind of biscuit, *wafer* which has totally different sense of the word *baper*. Both words have slight differences in pronunciation and spelling, the difference is only on the initial alphabet of each word. The punster substitutes the initial alphabet from *W-afer* to *B-aper* to create jocular effect as *baper* is a slang word which becomes viral among netizen especially the young one. *Wafer* is a kind of layered biscuit while *baper* is an acronym for *bawa perasaan* which means involves feeling or too sensitive to certain issue.

Kukang-Tukang

Figure 4.1.4.F. Example of Paronymy Pun



“*Kukang*” is Indonesian animal name for sloth. The visual element of the example also supports the literal meaning of “*kukang*.” However, the sentence context in the image gives different sense to the viewers. The text or caption says “what animals which have lots of skills?” and the answer gives clue to the viewers to think about another similar sounding word “*tukang*”. “*Tukang*” refers to skilled laborer or craftsman. The punster deliberately defies the use of the word “*tukang*” becomes “*kukang*” to gain attention from the viewers and create humorous effect.

Ed Sheeran-*Eceran*

Figure 4.1.4.M. Example of Paronymy Pun



The use of famous people's names in creating pun is quite common. In this case, the famous English singer and songwriter face, Ed Sheeran is used. The given example pun shows an edited image of someone's body with a portrait of Ed Sheeran on the head part. The background of the image is a line of gasoline bottles on shelves. This is quite confusing at first in guessing the intended pun, but then it becomes obvious by the available text on the image. It says; "*penjual bensin Ed Sheeran*" which is supposed to be "*penjual bensin eceran*" that means "retail gasoline vendor". Although not identical, there are similarity on the phonetics and spelling between "Ed Sheeran" and "*eceran*" and they have totally different meanings. However, the viewers still can correlate the two words with the existence of visual element in the image. In this case, the punster deliberately substitutes the word "*eceran*" with "Ed Sheeran" and it generates humor.

B. FUNCTIONS OF INDONESIAN PUNS IN INSTAGRAM

This part deals with the function of Indonesian puns which are found on *Instagram*. The writer found that pun functions on *Instagram* are humor, cleverness, and satire. The category of puns function on *Instagram* is on the table below:

Table 3.

The function of Indonesian Puns on Instagram

<u>Types of Pun</u>	<u>Functions of Pun</u>			<u>Total</u>
	Humor	Satire	Cleverness	
Homonymy	10	2	0	12
Homophony	3	0	0	3
Homograph	3	1	0	4
Paronymy	16	3	3	22
Numbers	32	6	3	41
Percentage	78%	15%	7%	100%

B.1 Humor

In humor function, the pun is exploited to create enjoyment, amusement and to arouse laughter. In a word, pun is merely used to entertain and achieve humorous or jocular effect.

Table 4.

Puns on Instagram belongs to Humor Function

<u>No.</u>	<u>Puns on Instagram belongs to Humor Function</u>		
1	<i>Suap</i>	17	<i>Lalapan-balapan</i>
2	<i>Tulang rusuk</i>	18	<i>Krispi-skripsi</i>
3	<i>Berdiri</i>	19	<i>Baper-wafer</i>
4	<i>Sidang</i>	20	<i>Entar-enter</i>
5	<i>Polisi tidur</i>	21	<i>Combro-jomblo</i>
6	<i>Asusila</i>	22	<i>Terbayam-terbayang</i>
7	<i>Nyalon</i>	23	<i>Yamaha-Yang Maha</i>
8	<i>Kumpul kebo</i>	24	<i>Ed Sheeran-eceran</i>
9	<i>Gulung tikar</i>	25	<i>Zika-jika</i>
10	<i>Obat nyamuk</i>	26	<i>Santan-mantan</i>
11	<i>Line-lain</i>	27	<i>Terong-terang</i>
12	<i>Bike-baik</i>	28	<i>Sendiri-Mandiri</i>
13	<i>Go blog-goblok</i>	29	<i>Bini-BNI</i>
14	<i>Tahu</i>	30	<i>Bekam-Beckham</i>
15	<i>Lebaran</i>	31	<i>Tinta-cinta</i>
16	<i>Aa" Gym</i>	32	<i>Martabat-martabak</i>

B.2 Satire

Pun in this function contains social critique that aim to achieve indirectly sarcastic effect. A critique in a form of pun can be more acceptable as it is conveyed casually in humorous way. Ones could

deliver the critique indirectly through pun instead of saying it directly.

Table 5.

Puns on Instagram belongs to Satire Function

<u>No.</u>	<u>Puns on Instagram belongs to Satire Function</u>
1	<i>Tambang</i>
2	<i>Dikacangin</i>
3	<i>Beruang</i>
4	JKT 1- JKT 48
5	<i>Mahalbro-Marlboro</i>
6	<i>Malming-maling</i>

B.3 Cleverness

In this function, pun is used in a form of riddle which requires extra processing either in producing and understanding it. Thus, pun in this form represents cleverness as the process requires more sophisticated and subtle language skills and knowledge.

Table 6.

Puns on Instagram belongs to Cleverness Function

<u>No.</u>	<u>Puns on Instagram belongs to Cleverness Function</u>
1	<i>Kukang-tukang</i>
2	<i>Juanda-janda</i>
3	<i>Tekwan-take one</i>

B.4 General Findings

According to the analysis and findings in chapter four, the writer can draw some conclusions regarding the analysis of puns on *Instagram*. The writer found 41 verbal-visual puns on *Instagram*. From the 41 puns, the writer found there are 4 types of pun; 12 homonymy puns (29%), 3 homophony puns (7%), 4 homograph puns (10%), and 22 paronymy puns (54%). Therefore, it can be concluded that the most dominant type of Indonesian puns on *Instagram* is paronymy, then followed by homonymy, homograph, and homophony.

From the analysis, the writer sees that paronymy is the most preferred type by the *Instagram* user. Perhaps, due to its simple form among the other types makes the play on words more flexible and easier. A paronymic pun is marked with the replacement of a word with another “similar but not exactly the same” word. In other words, identical sound or spelling words are not necessary as long as they share similar form (common or proper name) in creating this pun. Therefore, the process requires less effort though creativity is needed.

The study also revealed that there are three different functions from 41 puns found in *Instagram*. There are 3 puns of cleverness function (7%), 6 puns of satire function (15%) and 32 puns of humor function (78%). In other words, the most dominant function of puns is to create a humorous effect, then, followed by satire which consists of social critic and the least dominant function is cleverness.

The tendency of humor function can be related to the Indonesian people’s behavior who like joking and pun is one of the preferred ways. Pun is a way to create warm and full of laugh atmosphere that can relieve people from stress due to boredom, daily life

pressure and because of no more space for people to have warm interaction. It is like an alternative way providing a way out of difficult situations. Therefore, puns with sense of humor become a good choice.

Additionally, Indonesian people tend to “indirectly” express their opinion whether to agree or disagree with something to avoid conflict. Hence, the use of pun is a clever and creative way to “wrap up” these critiques or ideas with different “packages” that might not be offensive or cause any hard feeling for certain people. Probably, this is the reason why satire function is less dominant than humor function. Due to the aggressiveness and sarcastic effect contained in this function which may lead to any conflict, people would think twice in using it.

Interestingly, this study also revealed that several puns on *Instagram* play on similarities between two words in two different languages which are in this case Indonesian and English to produce amusing puns. It may show that punsters on *Instagram* already have at least basic knowledge of English language. Also, some of puns exploit names of well-known figures or brands. In this case, the context of the pun becomes a crucial key to build correlation and familiarity in leading the viewers to correct interpretation that pun may convey.

Furthermore, the writer sees that pun is a unique representation of common society specifically *netizen* on *Instagram* in response to public issues happening in their environment. It can be seen from the topics applied in puns follow the current development of major issues from political, economic, social and cultural fields.

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

According to the study the writer has done, there are several things

related to puns on Instagram that can be concluded. A pun on Instagram is made by exploiting similar words or phrases combined with pictorial elements to make confusion for rhetorical effects which is mostly humorous. Thus, it can be said that the most dominant function of puns is purely for a humorous purpose. The pun in humor function creates amusement through the play on words that contains topic about familiar daily life or recent issues at that time. There are also other less dominant functions including satire, and cleverness function. Equally important, the writer found paronymy as the most dominant pun type on Instagram. Its simple form among the other types; (homonymy, homograph, and homophony) makes the play on words more flexible and easier. However, this study was conducted only on one of the social media platform which is Instagram, consequently, the result of the study cannot be generalized.

The writer hopes that this study can help other students who are interested in the study of pun. However, she realized that this study has some limitations. Therefore, she would like to give some suggestions for further research related to pun analysis. She hopes that there will be more Indonesian pun analysis in other forms of media. She also suggests for future researchers to investigate in-depth analysis about the function of pun..

References

- (2016). Retrieved May 2016, from Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary: <http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/pun>
- Attardo, S. (1994). *Linguistic Theory of Humor*. New York: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Bussman, H. (1996). *Routledge Dictionary of Language and Linguistics*. London: Routledge.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2007). *Research Methods in Education (Sixth Edition)*. New York: Routledge.
- Creswell, J. W. (2003). *Research Design (Second Edition)*. London: Sage Publications.
- Delabastita, D. (1994). *Focus on the Pun: Wordplay as a Special Problem in Translation Studies*.
- Dvořáková, B. V. (2012). *Two Senses in a Pun: The Case of Print Advertisements*.
Masaryk University.
- Fromkin, V., Robert, R., & Nina, H. (2011). *An Introduction to Language*. Wadsworth Cengage Learning.
- Gan, X. (2015, June). A Study of the Humor Aspect of English Puns: Views from the Relevance Theory. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 5(6), 1211-1215. doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.17507/tpls.0506.13>
- Giorgadze, M. (2015, December). Categories of Visual Puns. *European Scientific Journal*, 2(1857 – 7881), 362-371.

- Holmes, J. (2001). *An Introduction to Sociolinguistics* (Second Edition). Harlow: Pearson Education.
- Huey, L. S., & Yazdanifard, D. R. (2014, September). How Instagram Can Be Used as a Tool in Social Network Marketing. Retrieved August 31, 2016, from Research Gate:
<https://www.researchgate.net/publication/265377226>
- Juel, H. (2013). *Communicative functions - A phenomenological approach to the analysis of media content*.
- Koponen, M. (2004). *Wordplay in Donald Duck comics and their Finnish translations*.
 University of Helsinki, English, Helsinki.
- Leckie-Tarry, H. (1993). *The specification of a text: Register, genre and language teaching. Register analysis: Theory and practice*, 26-42.
- Lems, K. (2013). *Laughing All the Way: Teaching English Using Puns*. *English Teaching Forum*, 26-33. Meri Giorgadze, P. (2014, November). *Linguistic Features of Pun, Its Typology and Classification*. *European Scientific Journal*, 2(1857 – 7881), 271-275.
- Mohammadisalari, Z., Behtaj, H., & Moinzade, D. N.-a.-d. (2014, September). *A Contrastive Analysis of Translation of Puns in Alice Adventures in Wonderland*. *International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World*, 7(1).

O'Grady, W., Dobrovolsky, M., & Katamba, F. (1996). *Contemporary Linguistics*.

Harlow: Longman.

Partington, A. S. (2009). A linguistic account of wordplay: The lexical grammar of punning. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 41, 1794–1809.

Schröter, T. (2005). *Shun the Pun, Rescue the Rhyme? - The Dubbing and Subtitling of Language-Play in Film*. Karlstad University Studies, Department of English. Division for Culture and Communication.

Spolsky, B. (1998). *Sociolinguistics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Ting, H., Ming, W. W., Run, E. C., & Choo, S. L. (2015). Beliefs about the Use of Instagram: An Exploratory Study. *International Journal of Business and Innovation*, 2(2), 18.

Triyulianto. (2014). *Bahasa Plesetan Pada Kaos Oblong Produk Cak Cuk KoSurabaya*. Yogyakarta: Universitas Negeri Yogyakarta.

Valkenburg, M. B. (2004). Developing a Typology of Humor in Audiovisual Media.

Media Psychology, 6(2), 147-167
doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1207/s1532785xmep0602_2

Multimodal Online Slang and Its Contributions to Language

By

Maria Carmelita Gunawan,
Budyana,
Antonius Suratno

ABSTRACT

Slang is indeed a timeless topic to discuss. Slang develops along with the technology development which now enables people to share not only text like the conventional SMS system, but also pictures. Slang then comes in multimodal form, called meme, and becomes popular. Meme contains a picture and text at once, sending strong messages and emotion to the readers. WhatsApp, as one of the most popular instant messaging applications, becomes a medium to share memes among users. This study deals with multimodal online slangs shared via WhatsApp. The aims of this study are to find out the background of the slang creation and the meanings, and also to explore its contributions to language. The data were collected from several WhatsApp users by asking their permissions to access and copy the memes from their “WhatsApp Images” folder in their phones. A qualitative method was applied to analyze the data. The result showed that the memes were created over various but relatable issues, especially to young

adults. There were some new words found in the memes and lots of puns were also used. The writer also discovered that slang contributes to language by enriching the language and taking part in maintaining languages.

Key words: multimodal, slang, online, mem

INTRODUCTION

The use of instant messaging applications has increased significantly in recent years. Now people can “chat” in mobile phones, no longer limited by the number of the texts they send, as if people converse in the real world. The advanced technology has also enabled people to share not only text, but also pictures, videos, contacts, and even locations without a high price. Instant messaging applications, such as WhatsApp, were indeed created to replace the conventional SMS system (Bouhnik & Deshen, 2014). Facilitating users with lots of features, WhatsApp has captured mobile users’ convenience that it now becomes one of the most popular instant messaging applications. As proof, it has been claimed that “In the past few years, a new breed of instant messaging apps, such as. WhatsApp and many others have rapidly been gaining popularity among users...” (Hook & Faklaris, 2016, p. 65).

A meme is defined as “... an image with words superimposed and is quickly becoming a popular form of social media” (Akines, 2015, p. 5). Paul Gil in Akines also described meme as “virally-transmitted cultural symbol or social idea” (2015, p. 5). It basically combines words and pictures, making the readers hooked up at both components.

The creativity of meme lies not only on the text and picture combination but also on how people share the meme over a particular up-to-date popular event. Somehow, it has also become a way for people to express their feelings, speak up their opinions, tell their jokes, and etc.

In other words, memes contain not only a single meaning of the text or the image, but also a meaning created by the combination of the text and the image. While traditional communication used merely gesture (visual) or words (verbal), modern communication now combines those two components to hook more attention.

A study on memes has been done by Akines (2015) which focused on how the stereotypes and perspectives of Hispanic of memes, YouTube, television, and film and found that memes contribute to the stereotypes of Hispanics in United States. Bembe & Beukes (2007) investigated slang lexical items and phrases chosen by the users, black youth who use English as their additional language. They then analyze the lexical creativity and innovation of slangs performed by the black youth in Gauteng. However, no study was done to analyze deeply the contributions of slang in the form of memes, particularly online, to language.

Memes shared via WhatsApp are very interesting to analyze as they are very vogue in society. Its creative combination is appealing. In this study, the writer aims to figure out the contribution of online. The objectives of this study are: 1. to find out the kinds of slangs in the memes shared in WhatsApp and how they are formed, and 2. to explore the contributions of online slangs to language.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A. SLANG

Throughout years and decades, linguists have been trying to define slang in the most precise definition. Some linguists, according to Coleman, even use metaphors in defining slang. Some metaphors are against the use of slang, while some support it. Some depict slang as “the lifeblood of language” (Coleman, 2012, p. 10) which emphasizes that slang is a part of language that can not be ignored. Slang has been described having the characteristics of low-born, illegitimate children who are trying to sneak into language use (Coleman, 2012). It is also depicted as an adventurous speech component, fresh and exciting in odd places. However, what ideas have they actually come with so far? Is slang a word or a phrase and what is slang?

Coleman formulates slang as following. Slang has been and is still used to refer to a wide variety of different types of language ... A book about all of the would have to cover a lot of ground and would end up not doing justice to any of it. ... Some writers describe pronunciation, grammatical constructions, word order, and even spellings as slang, or use language (1879) to encompass all of these features. (2012, pp. 12,13)

Though most people recognize slang in a form of a single word, Coleman has given a new enlightenment that slang does not refer to only a single word. The width of slang might have made it even more challenging to recognize “slang”. Therefore, it is important to acknowledge the characteristics of slang.

The first characteristic of slang lies in its informality. This is proven by several linguists’ statements. O’Grady et al., more than

a decade ago, defined slang as “a label that is frequently used to denote certain informal or faddish usages of nearly anyone in the speech community” (1996, p. 555). Spolsky, in addition, defines it as “... a kind of jargon marked by its rejection of formal rules, its comparative freshness, and its common ephemerality, and its marked use to claim solidarity” (1998, p.35). Both statements put forth that slang is informal.

In addition to the informal characteristic of slang outlined by Spolsky (1998), O’Grady et al. (1996) propose another characteristic of slang, which is related to a certain community of people. O’Grady et al. (1996) imply that slang is strongly related to a certain community. This is supported by Spolsky (1998) who says that slang is used to claim solidarity. As people use informal language to communicate intimately in aim of building a warm, not professional relationship (Coleman, 2012), only a certain circle of people in a certain time and place use slangs. Therefore, not everyone will understand the meaning of a certain slang, only people in a certain community will do. Coleman supports this characteristic by saying that when slang is used correctly, “slang will ease your entry into the social circles you want to mix in” (2012, p. ix). She further states that “slang creates in-groups and outgroups and acts as an emblem of belonging” (2012, p. 3). Memes shared via WhatsApp highlights the fact that slang is used as solidarity and community identity as they are sent among friends, even only the close ones.

Creativity and timeliness also take part in the slang’s characteristics. “Slang is creative (biff), vibrant (pow), poetic (kersplat), and revolutionary (ding ding). It represents whatever is most real in the present moment.” (Coleman, 2012, p. 1). This reinigorates the above definitions on how slang walks out of the

formal rules by its creativity as it is also written that "... it is yet further evidence of the creativity of the human language user." (Fromkin, Rodman, & Hyams, 2013, p. 320). People create slang in a way and manner in the time which something popular booms and spreads in the society. The memes of slang themselves might contain humor, wordplay, or even a critique over the current phenomena. In addition, according to Fromkin et al. (2013, p. 320), "Slang meets variety of social needs and rather than a corruption of the language..." They use language, slang in this context, to express their thought, idea, creativity, and opinion, contributing to a larger circle in society.

It now becomes clear, yet none has explained what conditions an expression can be regarded as a slang. The wide definition and characteristics even lead to a blurred clarity to recognize slang. Unlike most linguists who define slang by explaining its characteristics, Dumas and Lighter come with slang's criteria. They articulate a clear way to decide whether an expression is a slang or not as they argue that an expression should be regarded as a "true slang" if it meets at least two of the listed criteria (Dumas & Lighter, 1978, pp. 14-15):

1. "Its presence will markedly lower, at least for the moment, the dignity of formal or serious speech or writing." The expression is not expected in a serious or formal discourse except for an intended special purpose. Otherwise, it would be incongruous in a way that register is misused.

2. "Its use implies the user's special familiarity either with the referent or with that less stressful or less responsible class of people who have such special familiarity and use the term." This criterion shares something in common with the definition of slang

given by O'Grady et al. for both claims that slang is closely related to people in a group (speech community).

3. "It is a taboo term in ordinary discourse with persons of higher social status or greater responsibility." Slang involves things that should not be discussed and uttered with particular more powered people in ordinary formal discourse.

4. "It is used in place of the well-known conventional synonym, especially in order (a) to protect the user from the discomfort caused by the conventional item or (b) to protect the user from the discomfort or annoyance of further elaboration." It can be said that slang is euphemism, but it takes more on the speaker's side.

Coleman argues that slang does not merely refer to a single word, but rather a wide range of language. Other linguists, as mentioned above, have explained the characteristics of slang. In addition, Dumas and Lighter have made the definition of slang clearer by providing the four criteria to decide whether those various expressions are slang or not. The justification of slang in the objects of this study is based on them.

1.1. Types of Slang

There are so many varieties in language that might have been familiar or unfamiliar nowadays. Punning, rhyming slang, slang words, for instance, are varieties that could be grouped as slang.

1. Pun

Pun is a kind of language play which has been very popular among Indonesians. TV shows, comedies, and many more have used puns in the latest years to amuse audience or readers. Pun has been defined as "a humorous use of a word or phrase that has

several meanings or that sounds like another word” in Cambridge Advanced Learner’s Dictionary (McIntosh, 2013). The pun is often used to intend humor by its ambiguity (Schröter, 2005) and therefore, it is mostly used in informal situations.

Pun itself fulfills the definition of slang mentioned by Coleman. It needs people’s creativity to embrace punning as it should intend ambiguity either by the speaker or the receiver; it is creative. It is also poetic as it combines two words or phrases. The revolutionary and vibrant characteristics come along as pun intends humor and it might be spontaneous as well

However, it is true that not all puns are slangs. Puns that would be taken as objects of the study are only puns that meet at least two of the four criteria given by Dumas and Lighter. Schroter classifies the types of puns as following:

a. Homonymy

Homonymy type requires the same pronunciation and spelling of both words and phrases used. Schroter further defines it as “... homonymy is based on completely unrelated items that happen to be identical due to mere coincidence...” (Schröter, 2005, p. 164) Homonymy is common in the English language. Indonesian also has some homonymy, such as the word rapat which could mean “close” (adj.) and “a meeting”.

b. Homophony

The term “homophony” is used if the words or phrases have identical pronunciation but different spellings. Some example is the words bang vs bank and rok vs rock. The term bang is used to call an older man/brother, while bank is a place in which you can

open an account and do money transactions. Rok which means skirt has identical pronunciation with rock, a kind of music.

c. Homography

Homography is just the opposite of homophony. Words or phrases could be considered as homography if they have identical spelling but different pronunciation like tahu in Indonesian. The one that requires a pronounced “h” means “tofu”, and the other one with a silenced “h” means “to know”.

d. Paronymy

Paronymy is a bit different from the other types. It requires similarity (not identical) in both pronunciation and spelling of the words or phrases. Some examples of paronymy are the words “ilang” (informal form of “hilang”) which means lost and “elang” which is an eagle, a kind of bird.

2. Rhyming slang

The term “rhyming slang” has been popular for a long time. As the name suggests it requires rhyming in the new slang words or phrases with the meant words (Lillo, 2001). An example of rhyming slang is the word bird lime which means time (O'Grady, Dobrovolsky, & Katamba, 1996).

3. Slang words

Slang words might have been the most popular slang known by most people. Many people only acknowledge slang words as slang rather than phrases, punning, or rhyming slangs. This is simply proven by the fact that lots of studies on slang are done to analyze the slang words used in or by a particular place or group of people.

Slang words could be created in two ways, forming new words or broadening meanings of new words. Firstly, slang words “...often consist of ascribing entirely new meanings to old words” (Fromkin, Rodman, & Hyams, 2013, p. 319). Here, slang is not a newly formed word, but only old words with other meanings when it is used among a particular group or context. In word-formation itself, there are several processes, i.e., blending, compounding, borrowing, coinage, clipping, backformation, conversion, acronym, and derivation (Yule, 2010).

1.2. Functions of Slang

Everything existing in the world has its own functions, and so does slang. Functions of slangs have been mentioned and defined by several linguists and researchers throughout time as following:

1. Humour

From time to time humor is renewed and ubiquitous. Slang, especially punning, has been very popular to be one of amusements offered to people in TV shows, radio, social media, and so on either in written or oral forms. Attardo asserts that “humor releases one from inhibitions, conventions, and laws.” (1994, p. 50). It goes along with the nature of slang which rejects formal rules. Just like slang, humor rejects “formal rules” in one’s life for a while.

2. Self-expression

Language has played a very great role in human’s life. Not only are people able to communicate through language, but people are also able to voice their ideas and express themselves in a great

way. Slang is also a tool used to express one's feelings and creativity (Rahmawati, 2012).

3. Truth-tellers

Slang gives more than just fun to people. Fromkin, Rodman, & Hyams (2013) state that slang is shorter-lived while Dean (1962) supports it by saying that slang commonly has a month "lifetime" and gloriousness before it dies though it might one day revive with another meaning. Slang is connected to significantly popular situations or events happening in society at the time. Therefore, slang plays a part in "symbolize truth and reality" (Coleman, 2012, p. 12). As a symbol of truth and reality, slang then serves as a social critique in which it can imply admiration, regret, or critique to the related events or people.

4. Solidarity

Slang is used in informal situations inside which requires relationship between the speaker and the addressee. O'Grady, Dobrovolsky, & Katamba (1996) have given an enlightenment that slang has a very strong relationship with membership of a group and that it is used to claim solidarity. In short, "slang creates in-groups and outgroups and acts as an emblem of belonging" (2012, p. 3). In the case of the memes shared on WhatsApp, the senders want their friends to know what they themselves are up to and they want their friends to encounter the same opinion, idea, joke, and even take the same political side.

5. Linguistic innovation

As a part of the language, slang also serves a function as linguistic innovation. People shape language to suit their needs and they

come up with slangs (Bembe & Beukes, 2007). They try to be creative with words, either to substitute a word or create new ones. Hence, slang stands as a linguistic innovation.

1.3 Multimodality

There are two basic modalities that exist, “the auditory–vocal modality of spoken languages and the visual-gestural modality of signed languages” (Meier, 2002, p. 1). The traditional communication used to only use either gesture (visual) or words (verbal). However, like the objects of this study, they can be mixed, further called multimodality. In fact, the modern, and wider, communication has taken it seriously to hook more attention of the audience. For instance, commercials nowadays use lots of images with short texts. People have tried to use even more effective ways to clarify and strengthen the messages that they used to do.

Memes that combines text and image, are also typically multimodal. In multimodality, both text and image have their own roles. The image in multimodality describes words in a shorter way while the text describes what could not be pictured and shown (Kress, 2010). The picture and the text complement each other. The text and the image stoutly support each other to create a strong character and stimulate interest of the readers

B. Contribution to Language

Slang plays a role in language that keeps being shaped and reshaped (Bembe & Beukes, 2007). Like other components, it also contributive, “Something that you contribute or do to help produce

or achieve something successful” (McIntosh, 2013). Many linguists have defined language maintenance, language change, language development, etc. It shows that what matters for a language is that it keeps existing, which is achieved if a language remains in use.

Frequent contact is one of the attempts to reverse language death and loss (Holmes, 2001). Over time people no longer need to go all the way back to their hometowns to meet their families and use the language. Instead, they can simply talk over instant messaging applications contributing to language maintenance. Some metaphors about slang have also portrayed slang positively which is a fresh contribution to the wealth of the language (Coleman, 2012). Therefore, disregarding the richness of slang means disregarding an essential language aspect (Bembe & Beukes, 2007).

RESEARCH METHOD

This study adopts a qualitative method as the writer highlights description and interpretation of memes in this particular research. It is “... fundamentally interpretive. This includes developing a description of an individual or setting, analyzing data for themes or categories, and finally making an interpretation or drawing conclusions about its meaning personally and theoretically” (2003, p. 182). Creswell (2009) also states that qualitative research relies on text and image data like this study which focuses on image data and also aims to analyze the backgrounds, meanings, and relations of the text and image.

The writer collected data from WhatsApp, a social media which was accessible to the writer. She did not count the number of the memes but rather on analyzing their processes, components, and contribution to language.

3.1. Data Source

The data source of this study is WhatsApp. The data are in the form of images containing text of slangs. The writer confidently chose WhatsApp as it had been a very popular chatting application in Indonesia and was used by lots of adolescents, young adults, and even adults.

3.2. Instruments

The instrument used in this study is document. According to Creswell (2003), researchers may collect qualitative documents, either public or private documents. The document used in this study is private documents as they belong to personal collection.

3.3. Data Collection

The writer collected data from documents by asking permission from 10 WhatsApp users of the writer's convenience. The writer then opened the WhatsApp Images document in the users' phone gallery and copied the memes

4. Data Analysis

After collecting data, the writer first analyzed the memes to justify that they were slang based on the aforementioned theories (in chapter 2) that include background, the meaning, and the components of the memes. Secondly, the writer explored the

contribution of the slang in the memes. Describing and interpreting them were also done to answer the research questions.

Data presentation and Analysis

Slang by Formation	Blending	1
	Clipping	1
	Borrowing	1
	Acronym	5
	Derivation	1
	Prefixes	1
	Unique process	6
	Multiple processes	4
Slang by Context	Homonymy	8
	Homophony	1
	Paronymy	28
	Context	7
Others	Borrowing + paronymy	2
	Blending + Paronymy	2
Total		68

Data were collected from the middle of February 2017 to August 2017. The writer managed to collect 92 memes by asking 10 WhatsApp users. Only few subjects keep saving their favorite memes for the reason of space-saving capacity. Of the 92 memes,

68 can be regarded as true slangs according to the four criteria given by Dumas & Lighter. The data can be classified as follows:

Table 1: The memes in slang categories

Of the 68 slangs, the writer chose several representations and conducted an in-depth analysis

4.1. KINDS OF SLANGS AND THEIR FORMATION IN MEMES

- A. Unique process (similar to blending): “Mager”



Figure 4.1: Meme about "mager"

Mood swing is a normal thing for adolescents to experience although it will be more stabilized as they get older (Shallcross, 2015). Experiencing mood swings means they can go from very happy to sad, from excited to uninterested, from active to passive. Shallcross (2015) even uses the term “one minute your little angel, the next, devil in disguise”. They can also have no mood of going anywhere or simply moving from the exact place they are sitting, lying, etc. This kind of situation in which they are not willing to move anywhere is exactly the situation which they say that they are “mager” (males gerak). The word “mager” is a new word which, according to Yule’s theory, is formed by a similar process to blending. Yule described blending process as a process of combining the first syllable of a word and the last of the other. In contrast, the word “mager” is formed by combining the beginning of the word “males” (lazy) and “gerak” (to move) as it means that they are lazy to move at that moment.

The word mager meets the first criterion of slang as it lowers the dignity of the formal language. In addition, “mager” also meets the second criterion as it can be used only by them who have the familiarity with the meaning. In addition, it probably also meets the 4b criterion.

The meme above combines a sentence including the word “mager” and an image of someone who is in a very awkward position but does not show any willingness or intention to move either. The image is completed with text saying “Kalo ada yang nyari, bilangin, gue lagi mager” which means “If someone is looking for me, tell him I’m mager”. The image might be only used to attract readers’ attention as it is unlikely for someone to sleep or laze in that position. Moreover, the combination of the image and text then implies a message as if the person is saying “If I say I’m

“mager”, it means that I’m too lazy to move, no matter what condition I’m in. I can even bare being in this position, there’s no need to try to ask me move twice”. Created in this specific way, the meme acts as a representation of the aimed readers’ feelings and conditions, which might be primarily intended for young people

B. Unique process (similar to blending): “Baper”



Figure 4.2: Meme about "baper" and "caper"

The man-woman relationship is constantly ups and downs. There are the conditions of one-sided love, triangle love, etc. especially in teenagers’ lives as they are in a turbulent phase (Brizendine, 2006). Particularly for the teen girls who know who they really are, and feeling that attracting male attention is an exciting important

thing (Brizendine, 2006). Therefore, they might build a more intense communication, either verbal or gestural, with men. The comparison of hormone also contributes to the difference as the testosterone hormone, which is more in men and less in women, has the characteristic of unfeeling (Brizendine, 2006). The label and the science of brain and hormones are clearly correlated, justifying the fact that women are truly more feeling than men are.

The term “paper” then arose in the society. It was made through the blending process. It combines the beginnings of the meant words, “bawa” and “perasaan”. The word itself means to “put things into our feelings”. The meme “Ingat ya, cewe itu ga bakalan baper kalo cowonya ga caper!!!” means “Remember, a woman will not baper if the man does not caper”. The word “caper” itself is another word created through the same blending process from the words “cari” and “perhatian” (to seek attention).

Both words could be regarded as true slang. They meet the second criterion as well, since only people who are familiar with the terms are able to use and understand them. The woman looks very serious, and along with the text, creates an impression that the woman in the image is seriously giving a warning towards someone who teases people who experience baper.

C. Unique process (reversed): “Kuy”



Figure 4.3: Meme about "Ngopi dulu kuy"

Coffee, as one of Indonesia's biggest commodity, has occupied a special part in Indonesians' hearts and lives. As proof, coffee drink business grows rapidly in Indonesian cities (Susanty & Kenny, 2015). In fact, youth people are the easiest to spot in coffee shops that serve coffee not only as bitter drinks (Putranto & Hudrasyah, 2017). Related to the coffee theme, this meme was created.

The meme above shows an image of a boy, relatively handsome, drinking coffee and completed with "ngopi dulu kuy, biar gak baper" ("Let's drink coffee first, so we won't baper"). The term "baper" itself means "to put things into our feelings" (explained in part B on page 31). This might be intended to signal that both coffee and the meme are not only for men or adults, but for everyone.

The word "kuy" as a part of the text might not be familiar to everyone. The term, considered as a new word, derives from the word "yuk" ("let's"). The word formation process is quite unique as it is formed by spelling the original word backwards. This kind

of word formation is very similar to “Boso Walikan” which originates from Malang. Known as ”Osob Walikan” in “Boso Walikan”, this language style reverse words just like its term, “Boso means ‘language’ and walikan means ‘reversed’” (Hoogervorst, 2014, p. 107). Hoogervorst (2014) believes that Boso Walikan was first created during the Indonesian independence war to fake out the Dutch’s spies. The “e” alphabet might be added only to make it easier to pronounce as it first borrowed an English word.

The word “kuy” itself deserves to be regarded as true slang. It requires familiarity of the users, and the readers as well, to understand the text. Those who are not familiar with the term might think it is a name of a place or something else. Therefore, this meme, containing “kuy”, is, therefore, a slang.

D. Prefixes process: Nyocot



Figure 4.4. Meme about "Sluman Slumun Slamet"

Women, on average, have all-time been considered as talkative, chatty, and even fussy, captious beings. It is not surprising if a man gets fed up with a woman's fuss and words. The reason is that "...some verbal areas of the brain are larger in women than in men and at women, on average, talk and listen a lot more than men" (Brizendine, 2006, p. 36), making women speak two to three times more words than men per day. Men might not understand this well, and thus misunderstand woman's fussiness. Therefore, a man and a woman can get a raw at any time, even when driving.

The text in the top part is "Sluman, Slumun, Slamet", which means "may God always bestow you safety". The picture is chosen to depict the safety message as people can get into accident when driving. It implies a message as if men only need normal seatbelts, but women need extreme safety tool, which is anything that could lock her mouth up. The additional seatbelt for the woman is even labeled with "anti nyocot" which means "anti-fuss". The word "nyocot" itself is a rude word for "talking", often used for someone who unpleasantly keeps talking and talking and talking.

This meme can be regarded as a true one. It is of the lower dignity of the formal language as the meme has the word "nyocot" making it a rude meme. It might further meet 4b criterion that it protects the users from the discomfort of further elaboration as the one word can replace the "you talk too much and it is annoying" sentence.

E. Acronym: Coli



Figure 4.5: Meme about "coli"

Although considered as a taboo thing, masturbation is a very common thing for people. In fact, people do it more often than general public thinks (Klein, 2014). Even for many adolescents, it is the first sexual experience they have (Klein, 2014). Like other taboo things, lots of new words are used to replace the word "masturbate". One of them is "coli". The word is actually an acronym of the words "cabang olahraga lima jari" (five-hand sport branch) as to masturbate, men would likely use all their five fingers. It is also said that when people masturbate, they like to have some extra lubrication and therefore can use water- and silicone-based lubricants, baby oil, or olive oil (Lukkerz & RSFU, 2010).

The text says "Coli pake balsem geliga biar greget" ("masturbate using balsam geliga to make it challenging"). There is probably a

reason why the sentence is constructed that way, with that particular image. Mad Dog, the man in the image, was a very popular character of The Raid movie. In a scene of a movie, he has a gun in his hand to shoot his enemy who does not bring any gun, but chooses to fight bare hands. His famous phrase, coming from that scene, is “biar greget” (“to make it challenging”). Balsem geliga is a kind of hot balm which can help relax your painful or restless muscles. Instead of suggesting to use baby oil, olive oil, or any other things to help men in masturbating.

The word “coli” itself is definitely a lower level of the language dignity (criterion 1). It also requires familiarity between the users (criterion 2). In addition, this is a taboo term to discuss with people with higher status (criterion 3). It might also fulfill the 4a criterion which is protecting the user from the discomfort caused by the conventional item. Instead of using the conventional words, like “masturbation”, which is considered taboo and “cheap”, the word “coli” can help as it is less extreme.

F. Blending process: Kudet



Figure 4.6: Meme about "kudet" and "dafuq"

Spongebob is a very popular cartoon. Not only popular, Spongebob is very special that it has booked a special place in teenagers', adolescents', and perhaps even young adults' lives. Although Spongebob is aimed at children of 2 – 11 years old, in fact, it has also attracted a larger variety of audiences (Rice, 2009). This meme itself shows images of a scene in Spongebob of the magic conch shell episode. The conversation is as follows:

Spongebob: “Kulit kerang ajaib, bagaimana cara kita keluar dari hutan ini?” (“Magic conch shell, how can we get out of this jungle?”)



Figure 4.15: Meme about "Turn Back Crime" pun

“Turn Back Crime” is currently a popular slogan. It was actually a campaign made by Interpol to combat every criminal action, but it was also made into the slogan. It then started to spread in society and quickly gained popularity. Using the similarity of the phrases “Turn Back Crime” and “Turun Berat Badan”, a pun is created.

“Turun Berat Badan” literally means “losing weight”. It is a popular phenomenon due to the standards existing in the society to be a perfect woman with ideal body shape. Yan & Bissell also explain that “... new media such as social networks and online forums provide platforms of psychological catharsis particularly for oversized and overweight people” (2014, p. 196).

However, if the two phrases are compared, it would not look very similar. Therefore, then the phrase “Turun Berat Badan” is reduced to “Trun Brat Badan”. This is done in order to make the format of the original phrase not changed. This meme is a paronymy pun and a true slang. The “Trun Brat Badan” phrase, normally, would not be found in any formal situation. In addition, users need to be familiar with the original slogan to understand the slang thoroughly. Fulfilling two of four criteria, this meme could be regarded as true slang

4.2. MULTIMODAL SLANGS’ CONTRIBUTION TO LANGUAGE

A. Richening the language

Slang is indeed a different form of language that some metaphors depict it like a burr sticking to the flower of language, fungus sticking to the stem, and even “an illegitimate child” (Coleman, 2012). However, it needs to be admitted that slang richens the language. The terms of new slangs, undoubtedly, add new words to the language which may broaden the field covered by the language as slang is created to suit individual needs. For instance, the word “kagakadikzone” helps people to express a certain condition of man-woman relationships in a single word, rather

than a long complicated sentence. It also helps to create alternatives for the considered rude, taboo, and extreme conventional items. The word “dafuq”, for instance, helps the taboo word kept in a certain circle so not everyone and every passer-by will feel irritated since they do not understand the meaning.

To this extent, slang has helped language to develop in a unique way. It is indeed like an illegal child, rooting from the father (language) and finds a way to succeed in its way. This is exactly how slang serves the function as a linguistic innovation.

B. Maintaining languages

Indonesia is indeed a very diverse archipelago with plural races. Therefore, it is not surprising that Indonesia is diversely rich in cultures. Consequently, as a part of a culture, it also has diverse local languages. The official formal language in Indonesia is indeed Bahasa Indonesia. However, as a proud diverse country, Indonesian government and citizens have been trying to maintain all the regional cultures and the local languages as well. One effort made in Java is to include Javanese language lesson as a subject in schools. Nonetheless, the effort of the language maintenance itself has to be complemented with regular use of the concerned language.

Fortunately, memes as multimodal slangs are not merely created in Bahasa, but also local languages. In this study, there are memes that use Javanese and Sumatran local languages. This phenomenon might also lead to a further effect where people begin to learn other local languages in spite of their own. In the study, it can even be seen that a meme uses a Javanese proverb. It shows that memes as

multimodal slangs have the power to help maintain the language and the culture as well

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

Most of the memes and the issues are indeed highly related to young adults rather than senior adults or children. Created over the issues, the creators combine eye-catching pictures with highly relatable text. The chosen pictures are the ones that support the text and further create a strong emotion when combined with the text. There are some newly formed words in the memes, but some do not include any new words. They use puns instead. The formation of the new words itself is sometimes unique in comparison to Yule's word-formation theory. Some of the words are formed differently compared to the theory, for example the word "kuy".

Slang contributes to language by existing in the society. Firstly, it enriches the language as it also adds new words to the language. It provides alternatives for the conventional items which are considered rude, taboo, and extreme. Furthermore, slang helps language broaden the conditions covered and described by words, e.g. the word "kagakadikzone". Secondly, slang helps maintain languages in an encouraging way. Memes encourage the young generation to understand and use their local language through languages that are made into memes.

This study could be developed into several other branches within the language. The same issue can be analyzed from different research approaches. From discourse perspective, it can be analyzed using the multimodal analysis. Future studies can also analyze how memes represent a particular subject

References

- Akines, A. L. (2015). Hispanic Representations on Media Platforms: Perspectives and Stereotypes in the Meme, Television, Film, and on Youtube. Texas: Texas State University. Retrieved from <https://digital.library.txstate.edu/bitstream/handle/10877/5741/AKINES- THESIS-2015.pdf?sequence=1>
- Attardo, S. (1994). Linguistic Theory of Humor. New York: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Bembe, M. P., & Beukes, A.-M. (2007). The Use of Slang by Black Youth in Gauteng. *Southern African Linguistics and Applied Language*, 463-472. Retrieved from https://www.academia.edu/26970008/Southern_African_Linguistics_and_applied_Language_Studies_The_use_of_slang_by_black_youth_in_Gaute ng
- Billy, J. O., Tanfer, K., Grady, W. R., & Klepinger, D. H. (1993). The Sexual Behavior of Men in the United States. *Family Planning Perspectives*, 52- 60.
- Blackburn, S., & Bessel, S. (1997). Marriageable Age: Political Debates on Early Marriage in Twentieth-Century Indonesia. *Indonesia*, 107-141.
- Bouhnik, D., & Deshen, M. (2014). WhatsApp Goes to School: Mobile Instant Messaging between Teachers and Students. *Journal of Information Technology Education: Research*, 217-231.
- Brizendine, L. (2006). *The Female Brain*. New York: Broadway Books. Retrieved from <http://www.drlumd.com/wp-content/uploads/2011/12/The-Female- Brain.pdf>

- Coleman, J. (2012). *The Life of Slang*. New York: Oxford University Press Inc.
- Creswell, J. W. (2003). *Research Design (Second Edition)*. London: Sage Publications.
- Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research design (Third Edition)*. Los Angeles: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Dean, D. R. (1962, May). Slang is Language Too! *The English Journal*, 51(5), 323-326
- Dumas, B. K., & Lighter, J. (1978). Is Slang a Word for Linguists? *American Speech*, 5-17. Retrieved from <https://www.scribd.com/doc/181167029/Is-slang-a-word-for-Linguists-pdf>
- Fromkin, V., Rodman, R., & Hyams, N. (2013). *An Introduction to Language*. Boston: Wadsworth.
- Goldstein, J. (2012). *Play in Children's Development, Health, and Well-Being*. Brussels: Toy Industries of Europe.
- Hidayat, B., & Thabrany, H. (2010). Cigarette Smoking in Indonesia: Examination of a Myopic Model of Addictive Behaviour. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 2473-2485.
- Holmes, J. (2001). *An Introduction to Sociolinguistics (Second Edition)*. Harlow: Longman.
- Hoogervorst, T. G. (2014). Youth Culture and Urban Pride: The Sociolinguistics of East Javanese Slang. *Wacana*, 15(1), 104-131. Retrieved from <http://wacana.ui.ac.id/index.php/wjhi/article/view/107/100>

- Hook, S. A., & Faklaris, C. (2016). Oh, Snap! The State of Electronic Discovery Amid the Rise of Snapchat, WhatsApp, Kik, and Other Mobile Messaging Apps. *The Federal Lawyer*, 64-75.
- Katz, L. G., & Chard, S. C. (2000). *Engaging Children's Minds: The Project Approach (Second Edition)*. Stamford: Alex Publishing Corporation. Retrieved from https://books.google.co.id/books?hl=en&lr=&id=xiUz_1kgkFgC&oi=fnd&pg=PR7&dq=how+children%27s+minds+are+different+from+adults%27&ots=p93UVBpXGp&sig=jXFcl0ewZ2eNWPkKrPRQJhp96I&redir_esc=y#v=onepage&q=how%20children's%20minds%20are%20different%20from%20adults
- Keller, R. (1994). *On Language Change: The Invisible Hand in Language*. New York: Routledge. Retrieved from https://books.google.co.id/books?id=7cC&pg=PA3&source=gbs_toc_r&cad=4#v=onepage&q&f=false =BoSQXyHTp
- Klein, J. L. (2014). Masturbation. In C. J. Forsyth, & H. Copes, *Encyclopedia of Social Deviance* (pp. 424-427). Thousand Oaks: SAGE. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/308400235_Masturbation
- Kress, G. (2000). *Multimodality: Challenges to Thinking About Language*. *TESOL Quarterly* 337-340/Retrieved from [://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1016/S0020-7179\(00\)00179-5](://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1016/S0020-7179(00)00179-5)

- Kress, G. (2010). *Multimodality: A social semiotic approach to contemporary communication*. New York: Routledge. Retrieved from https://books.google.co.id/books?id=ihTm_cI58JQC&redir_esc=y
- Lillo, A. (2001, April). The Rhyming Slang of the Junkie. *English Today* 66, 17, 39-45.
- Lukkerz, J., & RSFU. (2010, August 30). About RSFU. Retrieved from RSFU: <http://www.rfsu.se/en/Engelska/About-rfsu/Resources/Publications/Masturbation/>
- Malfroid, K. (2009). *Gender, Class, and Ethnicity in the Disney Princesses Series*. Gent: Universiteit Gent. Retrieved from https://lib.ugent.be/fulltxt/rugo1/001/414/434/001414434_2010_0001_AC.pdf
- McIntosh, C. (2013). *Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary: Four Edition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Meier, R. P. (2002). Why different, why the same? Explaining effects and non-effects of modality upon linguistic structure in sign and speech. In R. P. Meier, K. Cormier, & D. Quinto-Pozos, *Modality and Structure in Signed and Spoken Language* (pp. 1-26). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- News Desk. (2017, December 19). News. Retrieved from The Jakarta Post: <http://www.thejakartapost.com/news/2016/12/19/bank-indonesia-releases-new-notes-coins.html>

- O'Grady, W., Dobrovolsky, M., & Katamba, F. (1996). *Contemporary Linguistics*. Harlow: Longman Programmes. (2017, July 19). Retrieved from World Health Organization: http://www.who.int/tobacco/surveillance/policy/country_pr ofile/idn.pdf
- Putranto, F. E., & Hudrasyah, H. (2017). Identification of Consumer Decision Journey in Choosing Third Wave Coffee Shop in Bandung by Youth Market Segment. *Journal of Business and Management*, 88-10
- Rahmawati, A. (2012). *Word Formation Processes on Slang Words Used by Transsexual*. Semarang: Diponegoro University. Retrieved from <http://eprints.undip.ac.id/34993/2/Word -formation=process on slang words>
- Rice, J. L. (2009). SpongeBob SquarePants: Pop CultureTsunami or More? *The Journal of Popular Culture*, 42(6), 1092-1114.
- Robby. (2017, May 15). Peristiwa. Retrieved from Merdeka.com: <https://www.merdeka.com/peristiwa/tim-inafis-polri-pastikan-foto-firza-husein-asli-bukan-editan.html>
- Rosendar, Y. (2013, July 8). *Entrepreneurs*. Retrieved from Forbes Indonesia: <http://forbesindonesia.com/berita-289-eat-up.html>
- Santrock, J. W. (2009). *Life-Span Development*. New York: McGraw-Hill Companies.
- Schröter, T. (2005). *Shun the Pun, Rescue the Rhyme? - The Dubbing and Subtitling of Language-Play in Film*. Karlstad

University Studies, Department of English. Karlstad:
Division for Culture and Communication.

Shallcross, L. (2015, October 14). Shots: Health News from NPR.
Retrieved from NPR: <http://www.npr.org/sections/health-shots/2015/10/14/448658923/younger-teens-suffer-most-from-turbulent-mood-swings>

Sidiq, F. (2017, February 1). News. Retrieved from The Jakarta Post:
<http://www.news.com/url.php?p=http://www.thejakartapost.com/news/2017/02/01/police-raid-house-of-woman-allegedly-linked-to-rizieq-in-pornography-case.html>

Solano-Flores, G. (2006, November). Language, Dialect, and Register: Sociolinguistics and the Estimation of Measurement Error in the Testing of English Language Learner. *Teachers Record College*, 108(11), 2354– 2379.

Spolsky, B. (1998). *Sociolinguistics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press. Retrieved from https://books.google.co.id/books?id=diwosITLKwAC&pg=PA31&source=gbs_toc_r&cad=4#v=onepage&q&f=false

Susanty, A., & Kenny, E. (2015). The Relationship between Brand Equity, Customer Satisfaction, and Brand Loyalty on Coffee Shop: Study of Excelso and Starbucks. *Asean Marketing Journal*, 14-27.

Valentina, J. (2017, January 4). Entertainment. Retrieved from The Jakarta Post:
<http://www.thejakartapost.com/life/2017/01/04/introducing-indonesias-latest-meme-sensation-fitsa-hats.html>

Yan, Y., & Bissell, K. (2014). The Globalization of Beauty: How is Ideal Beauty.

Journal of Intercultural Communication Research,, 194-214.
Retrieved from <https://rampages.us/shailynf/wp-content/uploads/sites/3899/2015/Globalization-of-Beauty.pdf>

Yule, G. (2010). The Study of Language (Fourth Edition). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Pun on Stickers

by

Novrina Ekaputri Hariyanto

Y.E. Budi yana

Angelika Riyandari

ABSTRACT

A pun is one branch of Sociolinguistics that deals with a joke or a type of wordplay that has similar structure, sounds or spellings of two words or phrases which are wittingly confused. This study analyzed the types and the functions of pun on stickers by using a theoretical framework from Attardo (1994) and Zhang (2018). Using qualitative method, the writer analyzed visual and verbal pun stickers. There are types of pun stickers: homonym, homophone, homograph, and paronym. The results of the study showed that the most frequent type of pun sticker is paronym and the most function represented by the pun in the stickers is humorous functions. Thus, the writer classified the functions of pun stickers into humorous, humorous-sarcastic, humorous-persuasive, and humorous-aesthetic as the function category on pun stickers can be a combination of two functions.

Keywords: pun, sticker, homonym, homophone, homograph, paronym

INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, people are getting smart and creative to create a new form of word phrases. It is necessary to make a conversation more various. Even more by using their knowledge of language, creativity and the current state of mind; people can create a newly

structured wordplay. In accordance with Korcak (2012), wordplay is a universal term of language that has similar sounds in words (homographs and homophones) or has different meanings (polysemy). The new word phrases and new structures in wordplay can be expressed in ambiguous sounds and meanings. The new word phrases containing ambiguous sounds and meanings lead to the development of the creation of new puns.

Bader (2014) states pun is commonly found in the literary text, cinema, televisions comedy shows, journalistic articles, and advertisements. Natarina (2012) identified pun strategies that occurred in a comedy movie subtitle of Austin Powers: Goldmember. She discovered that the different types of pun have different levels of translatability. When the meaning and humor can be translated into the target language, the meaning will be maintained or lost depends on the viewers' perceptions. Another research is conducted by Noor, Mustafa, Muhabat, & Kazemian (2015). They did research on pun in advertisements. They used qualitative method to gather the data by collecting the advertisements that pop up at different TV channels from 7 pm to 8 pm for a month. Then, they analyzed the data on the basis of Leech's type of meaning, specifically, associative meaning. They found that the semantic process of encoding slogans of TV commercials influences the viewers unconsciously level. On the other hand, the semantic process of decoding slogans of TV commercials influences the viewers at consciously level.

However, today's pun can be found in almost every aspect of human life such as riddle, meme, quote, and tagline found on social media, clothing, branding, and even, stickers. Although stickers containing puns are easily found, the research on stickers is rarely done. As well as pun stickers, I found several types of research that discussed the related topic. Safitri (2013) and Santoso

(2012) analyzed the linguistic aspects that influence puns on bumper stickers in Indonesian. They identified the functions and the meanings of the puns in bumper stickers in Indonesian. They found that puns on stickers can be analyzed using linguistics terms: Phonology (homonymy, homophony, homography, and paronymy), Morphology (orthographic, acronym, abbreviation, re-word, name, antonymy), and Semantics (proverb, metonymy). The functions of puns in their findings are for communication, humor, social criticism, creativity, euphemism, and aesthetic. The pun can be in the forms of a statement, satire, command, prohibition, warning, suggestion, cause and effect, criticism, and information.

The most essential function of pun is for a joke by using language as a medium. Today, stickers can also be used as a medium to create creative and unique puns. Related closely to bumper stickers, stickers containing puns are designed to make people laugh. Bumper stickers can reflect individuals' perspectives on humor, politics, nationality, religiosity, gender, and others. By using puns, people lesser the intention to mock, judge, or bully others' perspectives and changing it into laugh and happiness. Since stickers in Indonesian and English are different in terms of language and function, therefore the writer discussed the same topic but with different discussions.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

PUN

The pun is one of sociolinguistics branches which comes from casual registers that deals with a group of words that can be played as a joke. A pun can be categorized as slang because people can interpret the meaning of pun differently. The differences in age,

gender, education, occupation, ethnicity, and status influence people to interpret a pun with different perceptions. The form of pun can be found in spoken, written, graphic and signed (Attardo, 1994). Yi-bo (2015) stated that Pun or wordplay comes from Latin word “Paronomasia” which means a form of the word which has multiple meanings or similar sounding words that are identical with humorous or rhetorical effect. It seems like pun is a word phrase or sentence offering two independent meanings on its surface. Actually, there are two different sentences tried to be combined as one because both of them have similar sounds. Lems (2011) gives an example about pun found in the store sign which says, “wedding belles”. The store sign plays on the sound-alike words bells/belles. The first word, bells, suggests an association with wedding bells that ring at many church weddings; the second word with the same sound, belles, is a word borrowed from French and used in English to mean a beautiful woman. It is found in phrases such as the belle of the ball or Southern belle. Belle is also the female protagonist in the fairy tale and subsequent Disney movie Beauty and the Beast. When we possess the background knowledge just described, we can read the sign and fold together the two meanings for the homophone. Then we realize that the shop sells to brides. (p. 198)

TYPES OF PUN

Based on the relationship between the strings of sounds, spellings, and meanings, Attardo (1994) stated that there are three categories of homonymy pun which are homophone, homograph, and paronym.

1. Homophone pun. It refers to lexemes or words which have the same pronunciation, but they have different spelling and meaning. The ambiguity of homophone comes up in its

phonetic level. Bader (2014) added that the word pair which has sound alike are not synonym. For example, the pun sticker with the words “Let it bee”. This sticker is categorized as homophone because it has similar sound with “Let it be”. The picture and the word of the pun stickers intend us to think that it is a “Bee” or “be”, a bee that is an insect that produces honey. Yet, the word “Bee” in this sentence can be pronounced as “be” which functions to make a forming verb that used on past participle, intransitive verb, or transitive action.

2. Homograph pun. One type of puns refers to the lexemes or words which are in the same spelling but they have different meanings and pronunciations. It means homographs are words which are identical in their typography but they have different verbal form. For example, the word on the sticker tells the reader about someone’s feelings in life. The word “Nowhere” is ambiguous because it can be interpreted in two ways. The first one is ‘Nowhere’ as we can see in the picture that the fish in the bowl is alone and cannot go anywhere. The second one is ‘Now Here’ as we can see in the picture that the fish swim still in the bowl and get stuck in it.
3. Paronym. Paronym is one type of pun that deals with the similarity of two words that can be on the phonological aspect of morphological structure. It will be fun if the two words are not related to certain context. For example, the pun sticker with the words “No Problama”. In American English, there is a slang word to express the word “No Problem”, that is “No Problemo”. The creator wants to combine the word “No Problemo” and “Llama”. Then, the combination will be “No Problama”. The depiction of Llama wearing black glasses is to emphasize that the Llama does not have any problem.

FUNCTIONS OF PUN

There are many functions of pun in human's life. The major function is to express information, ideas, or feelings in a unique way by making up a new structure of wordplay. A pun can easily get people's attention and curiosity because people easily get a deep impression from the characteristics of the pun itself, which are brief, humorous, and memorable. According to Zhang (2018), puns in advertising have three functions. They are: Humorous, Sarcastic, Aesthetic, and Persuasive.

1. **Humorous.** The function of the pun is to entertain people. Pun's ambiguity will bring up humor to get people's attention when seeing the pun. Humor directs to people's relaxation by laugh out loud. The purpose of humorous pun is to gain comic effects.
2. **Sarcastic.** Some humor leads to the development of satire jokes. Zhang (2018) refers that humor and satire in pun reflect the intelligence and ridiculous forms of the user of pun itself. A pun can be used to satirize some phenomena in human's life. There are lots of inequalities in this world that should be criticized. A pun can be used as a medium to criticize things in a subtle way by making it as humor with sarcastic effects.
3. **Aesthetic.** People can blend some sophisticated words and structures into a new and unique riddle using their language skills and knowledge. Zhang (2018) argues that pun can be a medium to embody the emotion of language. The use of sophisticated words to express someone's aims in a pun is more interesting than a usual pun. Further, Yi-bo (2015) adds that people now prefer to read the graceful sentence than the boring one.

4. Persuasive. Zhang (2018) enhanced that pun can be mean to express people's objectives. Instead of using direct sentences, people use pun to express their intentions. Using pun can change the language to become more euphemistic, meaningful, and suitable. Sometimes, pun can be used to persuade someone to do things the pun creator aims to. It influences the readers' minds to do the pun creator's order.

RESEARCH METHOD

This research used the qualitative method of collecting the data. This research focused on the analyzing types and functions of pun, particularly puns found on stickers. The data of this research were in visual and verbal form. Caudle (2004) posited that qualitative is used to analyze in-depth data such as interviews, visuals, verbals, observations, and documents. Moreover, Creswell (2009) refers that qualitative research is a form of an interpretative probe in which researchers make an interpretation based on their senses and knowledge. The perspectives from one researcher to another researcher might be slightly different. Those perspectives should not be on subjective side. It should be more generalized and can be accepted by society. Creswell (2009) added that qualitative study combines many perspectives and provide general procedure. Because of its flexibility, qualitative study is easier to use in constructing and developing theories or concepts (Sofaer, 1999). Cohen, Manion, & Morrison (2007) said that purposive sampling theory is one method of collecting data in qualitative research. This method concentrates on selecting a specific group as samples based on some criteria. The writer investigated pun stickers found through Google search engine randomly started from 5 November 2018 until 4 December 2018. As mentioned by Cohen, Manion, &

Morrison (2007) on the convenience sampling theory, the sample size has been obtained by the writer depends on the available and accessible data. Thus, the writer downloaded some pun stickers related to the data in a month.

Data Source

The data sources of this study were some pun stickers containing both verbal and visual components. The pun stickers were collected from online archives, namely Google search engine randomly. The above mentioned online archives were thoroughly examined started on 5 November 2018 until 4 December 2018 to collect the possible data.

The required data that the writer used was multimodal data that consists of a verbal component, and the combination of both visual and verbal components. The writer found 53 of 367 stickers contained visual component only. So, they were 314 stickers that would be analyzed as the data.

Procedure

In conducting this study, the writer observed the pun stickers in Google search engine in a month regularly, starting from 5 November 2018 until 4 December 2018. Then, the pun stickers were distinguished into three types of puns which are Homophone, Homograph, and Paronym on a table. After that, pun stickers also were categorized into four functions of pun which are Humorous, Sarcastic, Aesthetic, and Persuasive.

Data Analysis

For data analysis, some patterns derived from two studies of Attardo (1994) and Zhang (2018). The writer analyzed the types of pun in stickers by using a guideline from Attardo (1994). To

analyze homophone, the phonetic of both words was compared to clearly see whether the phonetic is same or just similar, in which the same items were categorized into homophone, while the similar items were categorized into paronym. To analyze homographs, it was clear enough to compare both words on orthographical level. In addition, the theory of Zhang (2018) was used to investigate the functions of pun on stickers. Then, the writer analyzed the data through frequency distribution. After that, the writer used convenience sampling to choose sample stickers to be analyzed deeply.

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

This study aims to analyze the types and functions of pun stickers. There were 314 stickers as the data, but only 208 stickers were qualified to be analyzed. 72 out of 106 stickers had similar contents. Moreover, 34 out of 106 stickers were categorized on the other types (polysemy). Finally, there were 208 pun stickers qualified for the data analysis.

To answer the problem formulations of this study, the writer divided the results into three parts. The first part discusses the types of pun stickers. In this part, the writer classified the types of pun stickers. The second part was about the functions of pun stickers. The third part classifies the general findings of pun stickers.

Types of Pun Stickers

The writer divided the types of pun stickers into three groups, namely homophone, homograph, and paronym. This classification is based on Attardo's homonym theory but has rather been simplified for the purposes of this study. The table below points the distribution of types of pun in each category.

Table 1. Types of Pun Stickers

Types	Total	Percentage
Homograph	12	5.77%
Homophone	58	27.88%
Paronym	138	66.35%
Total	208	100%

Table 1 represents the division of pun stickers into homophone, homograph, and paronym. Each group is provided with a total number of the whole samples, and also the percentage of each group to make the comparison of each group easier. It can be seen clearly that the type of pun mostly found in pun stickers is paronym by 138 pun stickers (66.35%). It is more than half of pun stickers categorized on paronym. Then it is followed by homophone type found on 58 pun stickers (27.88%). And the least is homograph on 12 pun stickers (5.77%).

Paronym pun mostly appears on pun sticker because paronym pun does not require identical characteristics both on the phonological or orthographical level. This argument is supported by the findings of Dvorakova (2012). She conducted research on printed advertisement puns. In her result, she also found that paronym pun types were mostly found on printed advertisement puns.

On the other hand, homograph seems to be less found than other types of pun stickers because English pun is mostly used on verbal (speaking) to create humor. It is hard to find the identical word on the orthographical level. This argument is strengthened by Lems (2011) who stated that verbal pun is an effective means to learn the jokes of a new language.

The writer puts more detail interpretation of the types of pun stickers to emphasize the analysis. Because of the limitation of times and pages, only five examples of pun stickers from each category are analyzed deeply.

Homophone

A homophone is one type of puns in which there is a sound-alike word when those words are pronounced. Homophone has the same pronunciation in a word, but the words are different in spelling and meaning. The ambiguity of homophone comes up in its phonetic level. The humorous feeling comes up when the reader or the hearer of homophone pun do not fully pay attention to the pun and get confused whether the word that the user means is the first meaning or the second meaning. The confusion of the hearers to guess the right meaning leads to a humorous feeling. Some findings are presented in figure 1 and figure 2.



Figure 1. “Trust me, I’m a Dogtor”



Figure 2. “Pear Review”

Pun sticker “Trust me, I’m a Dogtor” is an example of a homophone pun sticker (See figure 1). This pun is categorized as homophone pun because when this pun sticker is pronounced, it has similar sound with the pronunciation of “Trust me, I’m a Doctor.” Moreover, the picture shows a dog wearing a stethoscope pretending to be a doctor. A stethoscope is an instrument associated with medical doctors.

The pun sticker entitled “Pear Review” is another example of a homophone pun sticker. The homophone pun can be seen from the explanatory word below the picture, “Pear Review” which has similar pronunciation with “Peer Review”. The phrase “Pear Review” contains the idea that the review is done by a pear as shown in the picture of a pear reviewing its friend’s work. Meanwhile, the phrase “Peer Review” contains the idea that the review of the work is done by a person with similar competence as the writer, commonly called as peer.

Homograph

Homograph is one type of pun dealing with the written form or spelling. Homograph refers to the lexemes or words which have the same spelling but they have different meanings and pronunciations. The humorous part on homograph popped-up when a word or two words has/have several different syllables on pronouncing. The use of different syllables leads to different meanings. It means homographs are words which are identical in their typography, but they have different verbal form. Below are the examples of stickers with pun in homograph.



Figure 3. Hardcore



Figure 4. Putin on a Show

The example of a homograph pun sticker is a pun sticker entitled “Hardcore”. This pun is categorized as homograph because the word “Hardcore” can be spelled in two ways. The first one is

“Hardcore” without space that means the most active members of the group or movements. The second one is “Hardcore” using space that means a tough base. The picture supports the first “Hardcore” without spacing, revealed from the face of the apple core represents someone who is tough and keeps the spirit to obtain the goals. On the other hand, the choice of using apple core represents the “hardcore” which means the base of apple.

The next example is a sticker with the words “ Putin on a show”. The words “Putin on a show” have two different meanings. The first one is when the word “Putin” is presented without space. It is the name of a public figure, Vladimir Putin, the President of Russia. The overall meaning is “Putin (a name) joins the show”. The second one when the word “Putin” is read as separate words “Put” and “in”. The meaning of the second sentence is “insert something on a show”. The existence of a pun is emphasized by a siluet of Vladimir Putin. This puns’ creator is deliberately used a siluet photo, so the readers can insert something on that picture.

Paronym

Paronym is one type of pun that has similarity on the structure, but not identical to the phonological or orthographical aspect. Paronym category is not exactly same as homonym category. In homonym category, the words should be identical on both phonological and orthographical aspect. On the other hand, paronym category is weaker than homonym (homophone and homograph) category. The examples of paronym pun found in stickers can be seen below:



Figure 5. Instaham



Figure 6. Corn to be wild

The sticker is the pun sticker of “Instaham”. This pun sticker is categorized as paronym because the word “Instaham” is similar to “Instagram”. “Instaham” is a compound word from “Instagram” and “Ham”. While Instagram is the name of the popular social media, “Ham” is a kind of pork. The picture of this pun supports both words “Instagram” and “Ham”. The pig reflects the “Ham”. Then, the act of taking a selfie picture indicates the use of Instagram social media to share the photo.

The last pun sticker is “Corn to be wild”, one of the examples of paronym pun sticker. This pun is categorized as paronym pun because it is similar phonologically and orthographically to “Born to be wild”. The picture which is corn represents the word “Corn” itself. The sentence under the picture, the word “Corn to be wild”, intends the viewers to think that it is a famous slogan “Born to be wild”.

Functions of Pun Stickers

There are four functions of pun found on pun sticker. They are Humorous, Sarcastic, Persuasive, and Aesthetic. In this study, the writer found that all of the pun stickers had humorous function. Furthermore, the function of the pun sticker could be a combination from one function with other function. Then, the

writer divided the category of the functions on pun stickers into 4. They are Humorous, Humorous-Sarcastic, Humorous-Persuasive, and Humorous Aesthetic. Here's the category of the function of pun sticker.

Table 2. Functions of Pun

Types	Humorous	Humorous-Sarcastic	Humorous-Persuasive	Humorous-Aesthetic	Total
Homograph	7	3	0	2	12
Homophone	45	4	7	2	58
Paronym	110	5	18	5	137
Numbers	162	12	25	9	208
Percentage	77.88%	5.77.%	12.02%	4.33%	100%

Table 2 presents the classification of the function mostly found on pun sticker. The table shows that puns containing humorous function only are dominant. First, there are 162 out of 208 pun stickers have humorous functions only. It is around 77.88% pun stickers categorized on humorous function. Second, there are 25 pun stickers categorize on the next function, Humorous-Persuasive. It is around 12.02% in pun stickers categorized on Humorous-Persuasive function. Third, there are 12 pun stickers or 5.77% of pun stickers categorized in Humorous-Sarcastic. Moreover, the least function found in pun stickers is Humorous-Aesthetic with 9 pun stickers or around 4.33% from the total pun stickers.

A humorous function is a dominant function of pun stickers. It is because the purpose of a pun is to entertain viewers by humor. This argument is supported by Zhang (2018) who did research about

puns in The Big Bang Theory series. In his conclusion, he mentioned that the humorous function is the most important one in series. However, Humorous-Aesthetic function seems difficult to be found in pun stickers since to make humorous-aesthetic pun sticker, a person needs language skills and knowledge.

Furthermore, the writer found that the function of a pun sticker can be a combination of one function with another function. Definitely, humorous function is embedded in all of pun stickers' function. It is caused by the function of pun to entertain people by using humorous effects. The other functions, persuasive, sarcastic, and aesthetic are mostly found as the second function on pun stickers. The writer put some detailed interpretations about the functions of pun stickers to emphasize the analysis.

Humorous

A humorous function is a dominant function that the writer found in pun stickers. The purpose of humorous pun is to gain comic effects. Humorous pun is used to entertain people. Pun's ambiguity will bring up the comedy to get people's attention. Then, the humor directs to people's relaxation by laugh out loud.



Figure 7. It's Fry Day



Figure 8. Butter-Fly

The pun entitled "It's Fry day" is categorized as humorous function because there's an ambiguity when pronounced the word "Fry day" and "Friday". Even it has similar sounds, those words,

“Fry day” and “Friday” have exactly different meanings. This similar sounds may cause misunderstanding. Then, it brings up the humorous effect. In addition to “It’s Fry Day”, ‘Butter-fly” is a pub that has humorous function. It can be seen from multiple spelling. The first word is “Butter-fly”. The second one is “Butterfly”. Those words absolutely have different meanings. The first one, butterfly, is a beautiful flying insect, while the second one, butter-fly, is a flying butter. This similar spelling may cause a misunderstanding that leads to a humorous effect.

Humorous-Persuasive

A humorous-persuasive function is one kind of combination functions that is found by the writer on the pun sticker. This function consists of humorous function itself, and persuasive function. A pun that has persuasive function is the pun that can be used to persuade the reader to do the pun producer’s bidding. Thus, Humorous-Persuasive pun is a pun used to persuade someone to do things by way of humor.



Figure 9. Leaf It Out Figure 10. Toucan Do It?

The pun sticker “Leaf it Out” is an example of Humorous-Persuasive pun sticker. This pun is categorized as Humorous-Persuasive function because “Leave it Out” is a persuasive sentence. The change of the word “Leave” become “Leaf”, and the picture of a leaf that wants to be free, is the humorous aspect. Other

examples, “Toucan Do It!” can be categorized as humorous-persuasive pun sticker because the sentence “Toucan Do It!” is similar to “You can do it!”, one kind of persuasive sentence. The humorous effect comes when comparing the words “Toucan” and “you can”. If a toucan can do it, why cannot you do it?”

Humorous-Sarcastic

The humorous-sarcastic function is a combination of humorous function and sarcastic function. Humor sometimes leads to the development of satire jokes. According to Zhang (2018), humor and satire in pun reflect the intelligence and ridiculous forms of the user of pun. A pun can be used as a medium to criticize things in a subtle way by making it as humor with sarcastic effects. There are lots of inequalities in this world that should be criticized.



Figure 11. Gogh for It



Figure 12. Ice-Solated

“Gogh for it” pun sticker is categorized as Humorous-Sarcastic pun sticker. This sentence has similar sound to “Go for it”. The word “Gogh” refers to a famous painter who has mental illness. The meaning is sarcastic and humorous when “Go” is changed into “Gogh”. The meaning can become “Go crazy for it”. In the second example, the picture shows a lonely ice bear on a piece of ice. Underneath the picture, there is a word “ice-solated” which is

pronounced as “isolated”. The isolated bear on a piece of ice is then an ice-solated bear.

Humorous-Aesthetic

The humorous-aesthetic function is one kind of pun function that the writer found on pun stickers by combining the humorous function and aesthetic function. An aesthetic function that uses sophisticated words to express someone’s purpose in a pun is more interesting than the common pun. Using language skills and knowledge, people can blend some sophisticated words and structures into a new and unique riddle. The form of pun on aesthetic function including the rhythm and tune, acronym words, figures of comparison and hyperbole. The new structures or riddles sometimes consist of humorous effect.



Figure 13. Butter Figure 14. Real Eyes, Realize, Real Lies

The pun entitled “Butter” is one kind of Humor-Aesthetic pun sticker. This pun sticker is categorized as a humor-aesthetic function because the spelling word form of “butt” and “er” represents the cleverness of the creator to create a new structure of word that brings up the humorous effects. The effect is supported by a picture of butter resembling a “butt” in one end. Another example of Humorous-Aesthetic pun sticker is in “Real Eyes, Realize, Real Lies” pun sticker. It is categorized as humorous-

aesthetic because of its rhymes. Those three words, “Real Eyes, Realize, and Real Lies”, sound similar and create a good rhythm. When those three words are combined, the meaning is funny. The meaning can be “the real eyes would realize the real lies”.

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

On the pun stickers’ analysis, the writer concludes that there were four types and four functions. The types were homonym, homophone, homograph, and paronym. The most frequent type appears on pun stickers is the paronym. On the other hand, the functions that the writer found on pun stickers were humorous, sarcastic, persuasive, and aesthetic. All pun stickers contain humorous function. Furthermore, the function of a pun sticker can be a combination of two functions. Basically, the humorous function seems exist on a combination of the two functions. Then, the writer categorized the function of the pun sticker into humorous, humorous-persuasive, humorous-sarcastic, and humorous-aesthetic.

Through this study, the writer hopes that future researchers can analyze puns on other sources such as memes, advertisements, movies, daily conversations, or talk shows using this framework. The next researchers can also do research about Indonesian students’ understanding of puns because there is a cultural gap between Indonesian and Western cultures.

References

- Attardo, S. (1994). *Linguistic Theories of Humor*. Berlin; New York: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Bader, Y. (2014, June). A Linguistic and Cultural Analysis of Pun Expressions in Journalistic Articles in Jordan. *European Scientific Journal*, 2, 18-29.
- Budiarsa, M. (2015). Language, Dialect and Register in a Sociolinguistic Perspective. *RETORIKA: Jurnal Ilmu Bahasa*, 1(2), 379-387.
- Caudle, S. L. (2004). *Qualitative Data Analysis*. In J. S. Wholey, H. P. Hatry, & K. E. Newcomer, *Handbook of Practical Program Evaluation 2nd Edition*. San Fransisco, California: Jossey-Bass.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2007). *Research Methods in Education* (6th ed.). New York: Taylor & Francis Group.
- Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research Design: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*. (3 ed.). California: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Davis, J. M. (2013, June). Humor and Its Cultural Context: Introduction and Overview. *The University of Sidney*, 1-340.
- Delabastia, D. (2014). *Traductio: Essays on Punning and Translation*. New York: Routledge.
- Dvorakova, V. (2012). *Two Senses in a Pun The Case of Print Advertisement*. Brno: Masaryk University.
- Hermawan, B. (2014). Multimodality : Menafsir Verbal, Membaca Gambar, dan Memahami Teks. *Jurusan*

Pendidikan Bahasa dan Sastra Inggris FBPS, Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia, 22-31.

- Holmes, J. (2012). *An Introduction of Sociolinguistics (Second Edition)*. Harlow: Pearson Education.
- Hudson, R. A. (2005). *Sociolinguistics (Second Edition)*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Korcak, J. (2012). Word Play in Advertising: A Linguistic Analysis. *Tomas Bata University in Zlin, Faculty of Humanities*, 1-40.
- Lems, K. (2011, November). Pun Work Helps English Learners Get the Joke. *The Reading Teacher*, 65(3), 197-202.
- Lems, K. (2013). Laughing All the Way: Teaching English Using Puns. *English Teaching Forum*, 1, 26-33.
- Lillo, A. (2006, January). Cut-down Puns. *English Today* 85, 22(1), 36-44.
- Natarina, A. (2012, December). The Strategy of Translating Pun in English - Indonesian Subtitle of Austin Powers. *Celt*, 12(2), 160-179.
- Noor, M., Mustafa, R.-e., Muhabat, F., & Kazemian, B. (2015). The Language of TV Commercials' Slogans: A Semantic Analysis. *Communication and Linguistics Studies*, 1(1), 7-12.
- O'Grady, W., Dobrovolsky, M., & Katamba, F. (2001). *Contemporary Linguistics*. Harlow: Pearsons Education Limited.
- Safitri, D. (2013). Permainan Bahasa dalam Wacana Plesetan Stiker Humor di Wilayah Bantul dan Yogyakarta. *Faculty of Language and Arts, Yogyakarta State University*, 1-115.

- Santoso, S. (2012). Permainan Bahasa pada Stiker Sepeda Motor. *Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, Muhammadiyah University, Surakarta* , 1-15.
- Sofaer, S. (1999, December). Qualitative Methods: What are They and Why Use Them? *HSR: Health Services Research*, 34(5), 1101-1118.
- Southerland, R. H., & Katamba, F. (2001). Language in social contexts. In W. O'Grady, M. Dobrovolsky, & F. Katamba, *Contemporary Linguistics* (pp. 540-590). Harlow: Pearsons Education Limited.
- Wardhaugh, R. (2005). *An Introduction to Sociolinguistics (Blackwell Textbooks in Linguistics)*. Oxford: Blackwell Publisher Ltd.
- Yi-bo, Y. (2015, August). Analysis of Puns in English Advertising Language From the Relevance Theory. *Sino-US English Teaching*, 12(8), 602-60.
- Zhang, L. (2018, February). An Analysis of Puns in The Big Bang Theory Based on Conceptual Blending Theory. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 8(2), 213-217.

The Address Terms Used in Mixed Khek and Hokkian Families

By

Stephani Putri Priyanto

Y.E Budiayana

Emilia Ninik Aydawati

ABSTRACT

This research focuses on the address terms used by the mixed *Khek* and *Hokkian* families. A quantitative method was applied using a questionnaire distributed to 50 respondents from the mixed *Khek* and *Hokkian* families. The result of the study shows that more than half of the respondents in *Khek* family usually use the address terms in the *Khek* language, while the other offspring in *Hokkian* family use the address terms in the *Hokkian* language. It can be said that the offspring usually use the terms in the family where they belong. However, many offspring use the address terms used in the *Khek* family instead of *Hokkian* family although they come from *Hokkian* family. Also, the offsprings use the *Hokkian* address term instead of *Khek* although they should address the relatives by using the terms in *Hokkian*. It usually happens because perhaps the offspring feel more comfortable with one of the family they belong to. The elder family members usually use *Tu* to address the younger family members and receive *Vous* in return. Meanwhile

in the relationship between husband and wife in *Khek* and *Hokkian* families, all wives who are as old as the husbands usually address their husbands by using the term “*Koko*” instead of their names while the husbands usually address their wives by using the term “*Meme*” or “*Nik*”. It is an asymmetrical relationship because the husband is intended to have a higher status and have more power within a family.

Keywords: Address terms, *Khek* and *Hokkian* families.

INTRODUCTION

Address terms are used to call or to address other people, not only elder Chinese but also Javanese people. It can be done not only at home but also elsewhere such as in the university and the office. Someone intends to address other people who seem older than them. For example in the Faculty of Letter in Soegijapranata Catholic University, someone calls his or her senior by using “*Cik*” or “*Koh*” although he or she does not know the senior’s age. S/he also will address his or her lecturer by using “*Mr*”, or “*Mrs*”

+ First Name or using “*Miss*”, “*Madam*”, or “*Sir*”. This kind of situation also can be found in the Chinese community. From the example above, it could be seen that there are many differences in the address terms especially in both *Khek* and *Hokkian* families. This study aims to describe the address terms used in mixed *Khek* and *Hokkian* families and to find out how many persons use the correct address terms.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

An address term is a word that is used by someone to refer someone else without using his, her, or its name. Address terms are included in politeness. Holmes (2001, p.268) says

A polite person makes others feel comfortable. Being linguistically polite involves speaking to people appropriately in light of their relationship to you. Inappropriate linguistic choices may be considered rude.

It means that language or linguistic choices such as address terms affect the politeness. If someone uses inappropriate linguistic choices, s/he can be considered rude because s/he does not follow the terms used and also can hurt other people's feelings.

When a person speaks to other people, s/he will think about the relation between s/he and the other people. It could be status, sex, age, and intimacy. Wardaugh (2010, p.282) says that in addressing another, the choice of name which you use for the other depends both on your knowledge of exactly who that other is (e.g. his/her age and lineage) and on the circumstances of the meeting.

For example, when someone wants to interact with his/her senior or others who are older than him/her, s/he usually chooses and uses such address terms like "Cik" or "Koh". These linguistic forms can be identified as address terms. People use the address term to respect other people especially those who have higher status, level, and age than the speaker. Wardaugh (2010, p.288) adds

If we look at what is involved in addressing another, it seems that a variety of social factors usually governs our choice of terms: the particular occasion; the social status or rank of the other; sex; age; family relationship; occupational hierarchy; transactional status; race; or degree of intimacy.

For instance, an employee will address his/her boss who has a higher status than him/her by using "Madam" or "Sir". It usually

happens not only to respect his/her boss but also to be considered as a polite person. This idea is supported by Ammon and Dittmar (2004, p.607), state "[... the choice of address terms can be seen as an example of politeness form...". By using the address terms, someone can show politeness whether s/he knows others' names or not. Braun (1988, p.84) says that the use of the address term "Mr" and "Mrs" can be used without names as well, for example in addressing unknown persons. When someone wants to greet older people s/he meets once, s/he can greet by using "Pak" or "Bu" without his or her names.

Moreover, people usually call other people by using one pronoun of address "you" either for one person or many persons although there are still two singular pronouns of address. According to Brown and Gilman (1960, p.256) as cited by Aliakbari (2008, p.2), "Pronominal address system highlighted the semantic power and solidarity relation to addressing terms". In addressing others, someone should consider the two dimensions in the address terms that are semantic power and solidarity.

Therefore, address terms which included in politeness is a term to refer to someone or people without using his/her name. There are two dimensions that are related to addressing terms and solidarity.

Solidarity

Solidarity dimension tends to use when someone does not know other people well and it shows intimacy and shared experiences. Holmes (1980, p.272) says

For solidarity-politeness, there is a wide range of ways of showing intimacy and affection – words used for addressing the other person (for example mate, love, darling), and others used to show solidarity-politeness

towards the person referred to.

It could be the usage of greeting or familiar address terms. For example, when the writer meets her college friend no matter how old s/he is, she will address his/her by using ‘mate’ or ‘dude’ even just to say hello.

Hudson (1980, p.122) also states:

Solidarity concerns the social distance between people – how much experience they have shared, how many social characteristics they share (religion, sex, age, region of origin, race, occupation, interests, etc.), how far they are prepared to share intimacies, and other factors.

People show solidarity dimension when they concern about intimacies. When someone wants to talk about his/her interests with other people who have the same interests, s/he can show solidarity. Wardaugh (2010, p.282) adds “Knowing and using another’s first name is, of course, a sign of considerable intimacy or at least of a desire for such intimacy”. If someone decides to use others’ first names, s/he usually has an intimacy with them. It could also be nicknames or other forms like “Sis” or “Bro”. For example in a social network site, most online shops call their customers by using “Sis” for girls or women, and “Bro” for boys or men. It is used to show intimacy so that the customers feel comfortable with the service and buy the pieces of stuff.

Both power and solidarity semantic are the two governing factors in address terms. People use reciprocal forms of address more often than the nonreciprocal one. According to Hudson (1980, p.128),

[... such relations can also be regarded as a special case of a more

general phenomenon, concerning the speaker's relation of power and solidarity with the world at large.

This means that if someone wants to communicate with other people, s/he usually concerns the power and solidarity before starting to communicate. It can be concluded that someone indicates the social relationship of others before communicating and addressing them. In this paper, the writer describes the address term used in *Khek* and *Hokkian* families.

Khek or Hakka is an ethnic group of "Han" Chinese who use *Khek* or Hakka language. According to Heidhues (2003, p.37), Hakkas are a Southern Chinese speech group; Hakka speakers reside most commonly in Guangdong and Fujian province and, because they frequently migrate within China, in a few other Chinese provinces (Guangxi, Sichuan) as well. It means that *Khek* or Hakka people are spread to several areas of China.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In collecting data about the address terms used in the mixed *Khek* and *Hokkian* relatives/family members, the writers chose qualitative research by using open-ended questionnaires to obtain data from the targeted respondents, 50 members of mixed *Khek* and *Hokkian*. A questionnaire is used to collect data from the respondents. The writer will use the open-ended questionnaire to obtain data about addressing terms that are used in mixed *Khek* and *Hokkian* families. The writers used the questionnaire to answer the first and second problem formulation.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

The following is the result of the study. To compare the terms used in addressing aunts from mother's side in *Khek* and *Hokkian*

families with the order of sequence, the writer describes it into the tables as follows:

To make it clear, the writer wants to make a comparison in the use of the address terms in Khek and Hokkian families.

Table 1. The Comparison of the Address Term Used in Both Khek and Hokkian Families.

	Families To address	Khek	Hokkian
1	Grandfather	Akung	Akong
2	Grandmother	Abo	Ama
3	Older uncles (from father's side)	Apak	Apek
4	Younger uncles (from father's side)	Asuk	Acek
5	Aunts (from father's side)	Kuku	Akho
6	Aunts (from mother's side)	Ayi	Ai
7	Uncles (from mother's side)	Aqhiu	Aku
8	Older brother	Ako	Ako
9	Older sister	Ace	Ace
10	Younger brother	Lo Dai	Sio Tie
11	Younger sister	Lo Moi	Sio Moi

From the table above it shows that the address terms used in Khek and Hokkian families are different. Still, there are different address terms used depending on the age of the family members as can be seen below.

Table 2 describes the address terms used in mixed Khek and Hokkian families more simply. The first table shows the number

of address terms used in mixed Khek and Hokkian families.

Table 2. Addressing terms for aunts in Khek and Hokkian families

Families Sequence	Khek family	Hokkian family
the oldest aunt	Daiyi	Tua-i
the second aunt	Nyiyi	Nji-i
the third aunt	Samyi	Sa-i
the fourth aunt	Siyi	Si-i
the fifth aunt	Ng-yi	Nggo-i
the smallest aunt	Seeyi	Shue-i

Table 3. The Number of the Respondents Who Use the Correct Address Terms in Mixed Khek and Hokkian Families from 24 Respondents

In addressing	Father's relative (Khek)	Mother's relative (Hokkian)
Grandfather	22	12
Grandmother	22	12
Uncles	16	0
Older uncles	22	16
Younger uncles	22	14
Aunts	0	16
Older aunts	20	14
Younger aunts	24	20
Older brothers	14	14
Older sisters	13	13
Younger brothers	0	0
Younger sisters	0	0

The table above shows the numbers of the address terms used in mixed Khek (father) and Hokkian(mother) families. Most of the offspring (more than half of the respondents) in Khek family usually use the address terms in the Khek language, while the other offspring in Hokkian family use the address terms in the Hokkian language. There are 12 terms in which more than half of the respondents use the right address in their ethnics. However, there are 3 address terms (in addressing aunts, younger brothers, younger sisters) that are not used correctly by all the respondents meaning that they use Hokkian instead of Khek. From the mother's side (Hokkian) the phenomenon is also the same. 9 out of 12 terms are used appropriately based on their family ethnics. Additionally, there are also the address terms that are not used correctly by all the respondents meaning that they use Khek instead of Hokkian. It can be said that the offspring usually use the terms in the family where they belong. Yet, there are many many offspring who use the address terms used in their father relatives. However, some respondents from Khek father and Hokkian mother address their relatives who come from the mother's side by using the term from the father's side. It usually happens because perhaps the offspring feel more comfortable with one of the family they belong to.

Table 4. The Numbers of the Respondents Who Use the Correct Address Terms in Mixed Khek and Hokkian Families (Hokkian father Khek mother) from 26 Respondents

In addressing	Hokkian father	Khek mother
Grandfather	24	18
Grandmother	26	18

Uncles	0	15
Older uncles	26	23
Younger uncles	26	19
Aunts	16	18
Older aunts	26	22
Younger aunts	26	20
Older brothers	11	11
Older sisters	5	5
Younger brothers	0	0
Younger sisters	0	0

Then, the second table shows the number of address terms used in mixed Khek and Hokkian families whose father comes from Hokkian family and mother comes from Khek family. The table above shows that most offspring from Khek family usually use the address terms used in Khek language. There are 8 terms in which more than half of the respondents use the correct address terms in their ethnics. There are 4 address terms (older brothers, older sisters, younger brothers, and younger sisters) that are not used correctly by all the respondents meaning that they use Khek instead of Hokkian. From the mother's side (Khek) the phenomenon is the same. 8 out of 12 terms are used correctly based on their ethnics.

It can be seen from the table above, in addressing grandfather, grandmother, uncles, older uncles, younger uncles, aunts, older aunts, younger aunts, more than a half respondents use the correct address terms. There are also the address terms that are not used correctly by the respondents. In contrast, most offspring (more than half) from Hokkian family use the address terms from Hokkian language. Many offspring addresses the relatives who

come from the mother's family by using the address term in the father's family. It happens perhaps because the offspring feel more comfortable with one of both Khek and Hokkian family, so do those from the father's family.

Based on the questionnaire, there are only 14 respondents (older brothers/sisters) who have younger sisters. There are 4 older brothers (the respondents) who address younger sisters by using the term Nik and they are addressed by the younger sisters by using the term Koko. There are 2 older sisters (the respondents) who address younger sisters by using the term Nik and the older sisters are addressed by using the term Cece.

There are 2 older sisters (the respondents) who use the term Nik in addressing younger sisters and the older sisters are addressed by the younger sisters by using the term Cik. In addressing younger sisters, there are 2 older sisters (the respondents) who address the younger sisters by using the younger sisters' names and they are addressed by using the term Cik. A respondent (older brother) uses the younger sister's name and he is by the younger sister by using the term Koh. The other 3 older brothers (the respondents) use the term Meme to address younger sisters and they are addressed by them by using the term Koko.

In addressing husband and wife who come from Khek father Hokkian mother, there are only 6 married respondents.

There are 3 husbands (the respondents) who use the term Nik to address wife and they are addressed by the husband by using the term Koko. A husband addresses his wife by using the term Meme and he is addressed by her by using the term Ko, while 2 other husbands use the term Nonik to address wife and they are addressed by them by using the term Koko.

Similarly, in addressing grandmother can be divided into 2: whether she comes from father's side or mother's side.

In addressing the respondents' grandmother from the father's side, there are 24 grandchildren (the respondents) who use the term Mak (Hokkian language) and 2 other grandchildren who use the term Emak (Hokkian language) to address grandmother. Then the grandmother from the father's side addresses the grandchildren by using the grandchildren's name. There are 18 out of 26 respondents who address the respondents' grandmother from the mother's side by using the term Bobo (Khek language). Then, 6 out of 26 respondents use the term Mak (Hokkian language) to address the grandmother.

There are 2 other respondents out of 26 respondents who use the term Emak (Hokkian language).

- Uncles

In addressing uncles the terms can be divided into 2: whether comes from father's side and mother's side.

Based on the questionnaire, there are 26 nephews/nieces (the respondents) who come from Hokkian father and Khek mother. There are 20 nephews/nieces who address the uncles by using the term Mpek (Hokkian language) and 6 nephews/nieces use the term Om in addressing uncles.

1. From the mother's side

	Respondents	Address Term Used		Respondents
Uncles	26	name ↔ Giu-giu	Nephew/Niece	15
Uncles	26	name ↔ Mpek	Nephew/Niece	5
Uncles	26	name ↔ Om	Nephew/Niece	3
Uncles	26	name ↔ Susuk	Nephew/Niece	3

Based on the questionnaire, from 26 respondents there are 15 nephews/nieces (the respondents) who use the term Giu-giu (Khek language) in addressing the respondents' uncles from the mother's side and they are addressed by using their names in return. 5 nephews/nieces address the uncles from the mother's side by using the term Mpek (Hokkian and the nephews/nieces are addressed by using their names. The 3 other nephews/nieces use the term

Susuk (Khek language) to address the uncles and are also addressed by using their names. Then, 3 respondents use the term Om and they are addressed by using their names.

There are 24 out of 26 nephews/nieces (the respondents) who address the respondents' older uncles from the mother's side by using the term Giu-giu (Khek language) and they are usually addressed by using their names. 3 respondents use the term Mpek (Hokkian language) to address older uncles and they are addressed by the older uncles by their names. There is a formality happens in the conversation between the older uncles from the mother's side and the nephews/nieces. It is showed from the address terms used by the nephews/nieces when addressing the older uncles. There are 18 nephews/nieces (the respondents) who address the respondents' aunts from the mother's side by using the term Aik (Hokkian language) and they are addressed by the aunts by using their names. Then, there are 6 nephews/nieces use the term Tante while 2 other nephews/nieces use the term Akho (Hokkian language) in addressing aunts from the mother's side and they are addressed by using their names in return. Here, the aunts address the nephews/nieces by using their names.

Based on the questionnaire, there are 26 nephews/nieces (the respondents) who come from Hokkian father and Khek mother. There are 22 nephews/nieces who address the respondents' older aunts by using the term Aik (Hokkian language), 2 nephews/nieces use the term Akho (Hokkian language) while 2 other nephews/nieces use the term Wak in addressing older aunts. The nephews/nieces use the address terms to respect the older aunts who have more power than the nephews/nieces. It happens because the older uncles from the mother's side are older than the nephews/nieces.

It was found that from 26 nephews/nieces (the respondents), 20

nephews/nieces address the respondents' younger aunts by using the term Aik (Hokkian language). Then 4 nephews/nieces use the term Akho (Hokkian language) to address the younger aunts. There are 2 other nephews/nieces who use the term Ik (Hokkian language). The younger aunts usually address the nephews/nieces by using their nephews/nieces' names. The nephews/nieces use the address terms in addressing the younger aunts to respect the younger aunts who have more power than them.

addressing older brothers, there are only 19 respondents who have brothers. There are 5 younger siblings (the respondents) who address older brothers by using the term Koko and the younger brothers are addressed by using their names. 6 younger sisters use the term Koko to address older brothers and the older brothers address the younger sisters by using the term Nik. There are 3 younger siblings and 5 younger brothers who address older brothers by using the term Koh. Then, the older brothers address the 3 younger siblings by using the younger siblings' names while the other 5 younger brothers are addressed by the older brothers by using the term Nyo.

In addressing older sisters, from 26 respondents there are only 15 respondents who have older sisters. There are 4 younger siblings (the respondents) who address the older sisters by using the term Cece and the younger siblings are addressed by using their names. There are 8 younger sisters (the respondents) who address the older sisters by using the term Cik and the younger sisters are addressed by the older sisters by using the term Nik. The older sisters address the 3 younger brothers by using the term Nyo while 2 of them address the older sisters by using the term Cik and a respondent uses the term Cece.

In addressing younger brothers, there are only 15 older brothers/sisters (the respondents) who have younger brothers.

There are 4 older sisters (the respondents) who address younger brothers by using the younger brothers' names and the older sisters are addressed by the younger brothers by using the term Cece. 5 older sisters address the younger brothers by using the younger brothers' names and the older sisters are addressed by the younger brothers by using the term Cik. 3 older sisters usually address the younger brothers by using the term Nyo while 2 of them address the older sisters by using the term Cik and a respondent uses the term Cece. The 2 other older brothers (the respondents) use the term Nyo to address the younger brothers and they are addressed by the younger brothers by using the term Koh.

- Younger sisters

In addressing younger sisters, there are only 18 respondents who have younger sisters. There are 4 older brothers (the respondents) who use the term Nik in addressing younger sisters and receive the term Ko in return. 4 older brothers address younger sisters by using the term Nik and the older are addressed by using the term Koko. There are 5 older sisters (the respondents) who use the term Nonik and receive the term Cece from them. The 2 other older sisters use the younger sisters' names and receive the term Cece in return while 3 older sisters use the younger sisters' names and receive the term Cik from the younger sisters.

In addressing husband and wife, there are only 4 married respondents who come from Hokkian father Khek mother.

There are 3 husbands (the respondents) who use the wives' names in addressing wives and receive the term Koko from them. Then, a husband uses the term Nik in addressing the wife and the husband is addressed by the term Koko.

CONCLUSION

Based on the analysis above it can be concluded that that in addressing family members, the offspring usually use address terms that are used in the family where they belong to. For example, in Khek family the offspring use the address term, so does in Hokkian family. More than half of respondents in Khek family usually use the address terms in the Khek language, while the other offspring in Hokkian family use the address terms in the Hokkian language. There are 12 terms in which more than half of the respondents use the right address terms in their ethnics. However, there are 3 address terms (in addressing aunts, younger brothers, younger sisters) which are not used correctly by all the respondents

From the mother's side (Hokkian) the phenomenon is also the same. There are also the address terms that are not used correctly by all the respondents meaning that they use Khek instead of Hokkian. It can be said that the offspring usually use the terms in the family where they belong. Many offspring use the address terms used in their father relatives. However, some respondents from Khek father and Hokkian mother address their relatives who come from the mother's side by using the term from the father's side. It usually happens because perhaps the offspring feel more comfortable with one of the families they belong to from both families.

While in the mixed family whose father comes from Hokkian and mother come from Khek, there are 8 terms in which more than half of the respondents use the correct address terms in their ethnics. There are 4 address terms, in addressing older brothers, older sisters, younger brothers, younger sisters which are not used correctly by all the respondents meaning that they use Khek

instead of Hokkian. From the mother's side (Khek) the problem is the same. 8 out of 12 terms used correctly based on their ethics. There are also the address terms that are not used correctly by the respondents. In contrast, most offspring (more than half) from Hokkian family use the address terms from Hokkian language. Many offspring address the relatives who come from the mother's family by using the address term in the father's family. It happens because perhaps the offspring feel more comfortable with one of the families they belong to from both families.

In Khek and Hokkian families, the offspring use the address terms before the family members' names. It happens because social factors like age, kinship, and gender play important roles in the Chinese family with different sequences in every family member. Thus, from data analyzed, the writer concludes that in Khek and Hokkian families, age and gender are the most dominant factors that influence the Khek and Hokkian offspring to use the appropriate address terms.

References

- Afful, J Benjamin A. (2007), Address Terms among University Students in Ghana: The Case of Descriptive Phrases. *The International Journal of Language Society and Culture*, London: Routledge.
- Aliakbari, M and Arman Toni (2008), The Realization of Address Terms in Modern Persian in Iran: A Sociolinguistic Study. Downloaded on 26 Mei 2010 from http://www.linguistik-online.com/35_08/aliakbari.html
- Ammon, U & Norbert Dittmar (2004), *Sociolinguistics/Soziolinguistik: An International Handbook of the Science of Language and Society*. Berlin: Walter de Gruyter.

- Bevly, B (2008), *Aku Orang China? Narasi Pemikiran Politik Plus dari Seorang Tionghoa*. California: Mountain House.
- Braun, F. (1988), *Terms of Address Problems of Pattern and Usage in Various Languages and Cultures*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Brown, P and Stephen C. Levinson (1978), *Politeness: Some Universals in Language Usage*. United Kingdom: Cambridge Press University.
- Brown, R and A. Gilman (1960), *The Pronouns of Power and Solidarity*. In Ed. T. A. Sebeok, *Style in Language*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press Cambridge: MIT Press.
- Brown, R. and A. Gilman (1968), "The Pronouns of Power and Solidarity", Fishman J. (ed.) *Readings in the Sociology of Language*, Mouton Publishers.
- Cohen L, Manron L & Morrison, K., (2007), *Research Method in Education 6th Edition*, London: Routledge.
- Cresswell, J. W. (1994), *Research Design Qualitative & Quantitative Approaches*. London: Sage Publications Ltd.
- Fasold, R. (1990), *The Sociolinguistics of Language*. United Kingdom: Blackwell Publishers.
- Heidhues, M. FS. (2003), *Goldiggers, Farmers, and Traders in the "Chinese Districts" of West Kalimantan, Indonesia*. United States of America: Cornell Southeast Asia.
- Holmes, J. (2001), *An Introduction to Sociolinguistics*. Longman: Pearson Education.
- Huang, S. & Wenshan Jia (1998), *The Cultural Connotation and Communicative Functions of Chinese Kinship Terms*. Downloaded on 24 April 2010 from www.acjournal.org
- Hudson, R., A., (1980), *Sociolinguistics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Kreidler, C. (1998), *Introducing English Semantics*. New York: Routledge.
- Manjulakshi (2004), *Modes of Address in Kanada: A Sociolinguistics Study of Language Use in Mysore District*. *Language in India : Strength for Today and Bright Hope for Tomorrow*, 4, 1-6
- Mills, S. (2003), *Gender and Politeness*. United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press.
- Pan, Y. (2000), *Politeness in Chinese Face-to-Face Interaction*. USA: Ablex Publishing Corporation.
- Peoples, J & Garrick Bailey (2009), *Humanity: An Introduction to Cultural Anthropology*. USA: Cengage Learning.
- Poerwanto, H. (2005), *Orang Cina Khek dari Singkawang*. Depok: Komunitas Bambu
- O'Grady, W., M. Dobrovolsky and F. Katamba (1997), *Cotemporary Linguistics, an Introduction*. United Kingdom: Pearson Education Limited.
- Suryadinata, L. (2002), *Negara dan Etnis Tionghoa : Kasus Indonesia*. Jakarta: Pustaka LP3ES
- Tan, M. G. (1981), *Golongan Etnis Tionghoa di Indonesia: Suatu Masalah Pembinaan Kesatuan Bangsa*. Jakarta: Yayasan Obor Indonesia.
- Yin, Y. (2010), *Cultural and Social Interpretation of Chinese Adressing Strategies*. Downloaded on 25 April 2010 from www.ccsenet.org/elt
- Yoon-Ngan, C. (2005), *The Hakka Chinese: Their Origin, Folk Songs and Nursery Rhymes*. Ohio: Poseidon Books.
- Yule, G. (1996), *Pragmatics*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Wardaugh, R. (2010), *An Introduction to Sociolinguistics Sixth Edition*. United Kingdom: Blackwell Publisher Ltd.

An Analysis of Second Semester Students' Knowledge of Conjugation in FLA

By

Evelyn Vania Boentoro

Y.E. Budi yana

Cecilia Titik Murniati

Abstract

Studies on grammar teaching suggested that grammar is one of the most challenging language aspects. Foreign language learners are said to have a lot of difficulties in learning and applying grammar rules. Indonesian students, unlike many other foreign language learners, encounter similar difficulties in applying English grammar rules. In this study, the writer would like to focus on the cognition of conjugation because there has been lack of studies about students' cognition of conjugation. This study was aimed at examining students' understanding of conjugation and their ability in applying conjugated verbs in daily use. More specifically, this study intended to The purposes of this study were to investigate the Faculty of Language and Arts' students' cognition of conjugation, to discover whether the students who know conjugation very well can apply the conjugation or not, and to see differences between the students' cognition of conjugation and its application. The purposes of this study were to investigate the Faculty of Language and Arts' students' cognition of conjugation,

to discover whether the students who know conjugation very well can apply the conjugation or not, and to see differences between the students' cognition of conjugation and its application. This study is a quantitative study. The data collected through the pretest (the knowledge of conjugated words) and the post-test (the application of conjugated verbs). Based on the analysis, the results from conducting 2 tests showed that there was significant difference between the first and the second tests. The results of the first test did not affect the results of the second test. This can be concluded that the students who knew conjugation well do not necessarily mean they were also able to apply the conjugation in a context. Most participants were unable to conjugate when the sentence was a complex sentence, a compound sentence, and a sentence that contains a subject-verb agreement sentence.

Keywords: conjugation, cognition of conjugation, grammar rules

INTRODUCTION

In learning a language, learners should concern about many aspects, such as morphology, phonetics, vocabulary, speaking, listening, writing, reading, and also structure. Language consists of two categories, language skills and language components (Wongsothorn, 2016). Learners also need to concern about the language skills and language components. Language skills include listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Sound, vocabulary, and structure are included in language components. Thus, the language components of structure are always needed in all language skills. Structure is one of the most important language knowledge that language learners should pay attention to. There is a difference between structure and grammar. Structure is the arrangement of words between the parts of language and included as one of the

components of grammar. While grammar is usually defined as the structure and the whole system of a language. (Greenbaum, 1996) Knowledge of grammar is like the first step or the basic foundation for people to learn English. Knowing grammar is important in order to understand English better. Otherwise, people may encounter problems in other aspects or parts of English itself, such as writing, speaking, listening, and reading. Understanding grammar helps people to communicate and expressing ideas or thoughts better. People start to consider good grammar to become a criterion of a certain person's education and intelligence. (Zhang, 2009)

Tenses are one of the most important topics of grammar, yet, becomes a nightmare to most people as they have to memorize the use of English conjugation. Thereby, the main obstacle in learning tenses is to overcome difficulties of understanding how to apply conjugation, especially for non-native speakers.

However, there are some studies that agree that grammar is significant yet difficult to be learned. For instance, Fum, Giangrandi, and Tasso (1989) conducted research about intelligent tutoring which supports Italian students in learning English verbs. They agreed that it is extremely difficult for non-native speakers to learn English as a foreign language, particularly verb usage. Then, Ana & Ratminingsih (2012) who did research on introducing innovative strategy for teaching English for adult learners also believed that the essential component should be learned for mastering a language is grammar. Tarigan (2001) studied how the expression of tenses aspect was acquired during the process of learning English as a foreign language in the classroom. He concluded that Indonesian students had grammatical difficulties. The major problem for learners is the acquisition of grammar. Thus, the writer wants to focus more on

the cognition of conjugation because there has been lack of studies about students' cognition of conjugation.

To the writer's observance in a grammar class, some students had no problem with conjugation evidently could not make a grammatically correct sentence. Knowing conjugation well does not mean that a person can apply it correctly. However, as far as my understanding, the research of conjugation is still few (especially for students' cognition of conjugation). The findings of this study are expected to help students understand better conjugation which may lead them to better understanding in applying conjugation in grammar.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1. Grammar

Grammar is used as a technical term and in everyday language. (Greenbaum, 1996) Wilcox (2004) defined grammar as the study of the system or rules of a language to give meaning to an utterance by building both larger construction of sentences and meaningful words. However, as stated by (Debata, 2013) the word grammar itself could mean different things to different people. Grammar can be defined as guidance in placing words together into sentences or the study of the words and how the words work together.

2.2. Conjugation

The definition of conjugation is the ways of the change of a verb to indicate a different person, number, tense, mood, and voice. Conjugation is also called as the inflection of a verb. Inflection itself means a change of the word form. A verb changes in accordance with the subject (different person and number), tenses (present or past or future tenses), mood, and voice (Bussmann, 1996).

Below are the examples of conjugation:

Table 1.

Conjugation of regular and irregular verbs

Infinitive	Verb 1	Verb 2	Verb 3
to eat	eat eats	ate	Eaten
to study	study studies	studied	Studied
to cut	cut cut	cut	Cut
to learn	learn learns	learned / learnt	learned / learnt

The aforementioned table shows that the word “*to*” must be followed by the infinitive verb, such as *to eat*, *to study*, *to cut*, and *to learn*. However, when people want to express something in present, the verb will be *eat* or *eats*, *study* or *studies*, *cut* or *cuts*, and *learn* or *learns*. The verb will be added by *-s* or *-es* or just stay the same like infinitive verb form and the change depends on the subject. Also, understanding of conjugation brings students to be able to convey the intended meaning of a verb correctly. There are five changes that may become problems for students if they are not aware: person, number, tense, mood, and voice.

2.2.1 Person and Number

There is a relation between the subject and a verb. A verb depends on the subject in person and number. There are three categories of persons, such as first-person, second-person, and third person.

Then, there are two categories of numbers, singular, and plural. (Azar, 1999)

Table 2.
Categories of person and number

Person	Singular	Plural
1st person	I	we
2nd person	you	you
3rd person	he/ she/ it	they

Learners should be aware of the existence of the subject in a sentence. They have to see whether the subject is first person singular or third person singular. The reason is that the subject does affect the verb which is used in a sentence. Learners need to conjugate the verbs correctly in order to have grammatically correct sentences. Learners should conjugate and depends on the subject or subject must agree with the verb. For example, the differences between these two sentences:

- a. My friend lives in that big house.
- b. My friend and I live in that big house.

The differences are in the subject and the verb. The first one, the subject is *my friend* and it is the third person singular, so the verb will be added *-s*. On the other hand, the second one has *my friend and I* as the subject. There are two subjects in the second sentence or plural subject. Two or more subjects require a plural verb. Therefore, the verb does not need to be changed or added *-s*. Learners often memorize that the subject “*they, we, I, you*” must always be followed by plural verb or no need to put *-s*. Yet, the

subject “*he, she, it*” must be followed by a changing verb or added *-s*.

However, learners should also concern in adding *-s* because not all verbs are followed by *-s*. There are verbs which are followed by *-s*, *-es*, and *-ies*. These are some examples of the changing of verbs :

Table 3.

Examples of conjugation followed by *-s*, *-es*, and *-ies*

	Verb 1	Third-person
-s	sing	sings
	eat	eats
-es	go	Goes
	watch	watches
-ies	study	studies
	carry	carries

Also, learners should know about singular and plural nouns. If they do not know whether the subject of the sentence is singular or plural, they are in trouble because the subject does really affect the verb which will be used. Learners may feel confused about several nouns, such as :

- The United States, news, mathematics, diabetes (singular form)
- Police, cattle (plural form)

The first row of the words above are included in singular noun although they have *-s* or *-es* at the end. Learners often feel confused because they think that all nouns which have *-s* ending at the back are plural, for example *student* (singular) - *students*

(plural), *teacher* (singular) - *teachers* (plural). Yet, the second row of words, such as *police and cattle*, belong to plural form although they do not have *-s* ending.

2.2.2 Tense

The forms of the verb which indicate time are the meaning of tenses. Qualities of frequency, completion, uncertainty, possibility, and duration could be indicated from the tense. Encoding how action occurs or happens in time rather than when is the characteristic of tense. The derivation of the word tense comes from a word that has meaning of time. There are three classifications of the time, such as present, past, and future. (Eastwood, 1994) There are some components in tenses that students mostly consider as an obstacle. The reason is that they have to know when they need to change the verb form. The tenses are consisted of as follows:

2.2.2.1 Present Tense

When learners want to describe or express something that happens in the present or action which they do regularly, they need to conjugate the verb in the present tense. The present tense indicates action which occurs in the present. Also, present tense indicates something which is habitual or fact which was true in the past, is true in the present, and will be true in the future. There are two components in the present tense that learners should understand, for instance, simple present tense and present progressive tense.

In the simple present tense, learners should pay more attention to the subject of third-person singular (*he, she, it*). For instance, the word “*study*”, learners should add *-ies* and omit “*y*” when the subject *he or she*. The sentence will be “*he or she stud(ies) really hard everyday*”. While others still use the same verb and the verbs

do not need to be added *s or es*. For example, the sentence will be “*I study every night*” or “*we study every Sunday*”.

The verbs following the subject of third person singular should be added *-s or -es or -ies*. The examples are:

Table 4.

Conjugation followed by -s

Verb	Third person (-s)
Eat	eats
Make	makes
Bring	brings
Play	plays

Table 5.

Conjugation followed by -es

Verb	Third person (-es)
go	goes
watch	watches
push	pushes
brush	brushes
fix	fixes

Table 6.

Conjugation followed by -ies

Verb	Third person (-ies)
carry	carries
study	studies

hurry	hurries
deny	denies

Additionally, present progressive is used to show that the action is still going on. (Hashemi & Thomas, 2003) Present progressive is also used if there is a process. Learners have to remember to put to be (is, am, are) + verb ing. For instance, *I am sleeping right now or she is sleeping now*. People should know when they have to use the to be form (is, am, are) correctly. However, there are some conjugations in present progressive which may cause problem for learners, such as:

Table 7.
Conjugation added –ing in present progressive

Verb 1	Present participle (-ing)
eat	Eating
speak	Speaking
work	Working
sleep	Sleeping

Table 8.
Conjugation dropped “e” before added –ing in present progressive

Verb 1	Present participle (drop “e” before add –ing)
live	Living
give	Giving
write	Writing
drive	Driving

Table 9.

Conjugation doubled the ending consonant before added –ing in present progressive

Verb 1	Present participle (double the ending consonant before add –ing)
cut	cutting
put	putting
run	running
swim	swimming

Table 10.

Conjugation changed “ie” into “y” before added –ing in present progressive

Verb 1	Present participle (change “ie” into “y” before add –ing)
tie	tying
lie	lying
die	dying

In addition, learners should be aware of stative verbs. There are some verbs which cannot be changed into present participle form, for instance, *know, understand, recognize, desire, need, love, like, appreciate, prefer, hate, please, care, envy, mind, own, belong, seem, look like, resemble, equal, exist, matter*. (Azar, 1999)

When someone wants to say that he or she needs something right now, he or she should say “*I need something right now*”. People should not say “*I am needing something right now*” because it is an incorrect sentence.

2.2.2.2. Past Tense

Past tense indicates action which occurs before the present moment. There are two components in past tense: simple past tense and past progressive tense. (Azar, 1999). In simple past tense, learners have to be careful of irregular verbs. Learners may feel easier to conjugate if the verbs are regular verbs, such as, *stay becomes stayed, help becomes helped, watch becomes watched*. Regular verbs are followed by “*ed*” at the end of the word when the verbs change into past form. This table below can be examples of the conjugation of regular verbs.

Table 11.
Conjugation of regular verbs

Verb 1	Simple Past
listen	listened
watch	watched
look	looked
finish	finished

Yet, irregular verbs are different from the regular verbs. The difficulties in learning grammar increase when students face irregular verb. There are many words which are included in the irregular verbs. The problem is that the students need to memorize all the conjugation to make grammatically correct sentences. The examples of irregular verbs are:

Table 12.
Conjugation of irregular verbs

Verb 1	Irregular Verbs (simple past)
arise	arose
be	was, were
become	became
catch	caught
do	did
eat	ate
fall	fell
get	got
hear	heard
know	knew
lay	laid
make	made
put	put
quit	quit
ride	rode
shake	shook
strike	struck
take	took
understand	understood
wake	woke
write	wrote

While in past progressive, the pattern is more likely the same as present progressive. The difference is in past progressive, the to be will be “*was and were*”. (Hashemi & Thomas, 2003) The past progressive is used to show that something was going on in the past. Also, it is to indicate that there is a process in the past action. The examples of the sentences are:

- I was sleeping.
- You were watching movie last night.
- He was eating while she was sleeping.

2.2.2.3 Future Tense

Future tense is used when the action has not happened or will happen in the future. In simple future tense, the pattern is “*will + verb one*”. (Hashemi & Thomas, 2003) Students may feel easier to conjugate the verbs which is in future form because they just need to add will before the verb. In applying future tense, they need to consider the use of modal because “*will*” is one of the examples of modal. Others are *may, should, can*. All modals are always followed by verb one. For example, there is a sentence :

- He lives at that big house.

When learners want to change that sentence into future form, they need to add “*will*” after the subject and omit *-s*.

The sentence will be :

- He will live at that big house.

2.2.2.4 Present Perfect Tense

Present tense shows the time of completion of the action in the past yet is still related to the present time. Learners should pay more attention to this present perfect tense because the form needs past participle. Therefore, in present perfect tense, learners should know and memorize the past participle of the verbs. The pattern is “*has or have + past participle*”, such as, *I have slept, she has done the project, they have eaten the bananas*. Students also should be careful with the use of has and have. Third-person singular (he, she, it) always use “*has*”. Others (they, we, I, you) use “*have*” after the subject. (Hashemi & Thomas, 2003). Learners have to recognize regular and irregular verbs. They may feel easier to

conjugate if the verbs are regular verbs, such as, *stay becomes stayed, help becomes helped, watch becomes watched*. Regular verbs are followed by “*ed*” at the end of the word when the verbs change into past participle form.

On the other hand, it is more difficult for learners to remember the conjugation in irregular verb form. There are several classifications to make students feel easier to learn conjugation in irregular verb form, as follows:

Table 13.

Verbs which have the same present, past, and past participle forms

Verb 1	Verb 2	Verb 3 (past participle)
cut	cut	Cut
shut	shut	Shut
put	put	Put
hit	hit	Hit
cost	cost	Cost

Table 14.

Verbs which have the same past and past participle forms

Verb 1	Verb 2	Verb 3 (past participle)
learn	learned / learnt	learned / learnt
spill	spilled / spilt	spilled / spilt
dream	dreamed / dreamt	dreamed / dreamt

Table 15.

Verbs which have the same present and past participle forms

Verb 1	Verb 2	Verb 3 (past participle)
come	came	come
become	became	become
run	ran	run

Table 16.

Verbs which have –ew ending in the past form and –own ending in past participle

Verb 1	Verb 2	Verb 3 (past participle)
blow	blew	blown
grow	grew	grown
know	knew	known
throw	threw	thrown
fly	flew	flown

Table 17.

Verbs which have changing vowel from “i” to “a” to “u”

Verb 1	Verb 2	Verb 3 (past participle)
begin	began	begun
drink	drank	drunk
ring	rang	rung
shrink	shrank	shrunk
sing	sang	sung
sink	sank	sunk
spring	sprang	sprung
swim	swam	swum

Table 18.

Confusing verbs which may cause trouble for learners

Verb 1	Verb 2	Verb 3 (past participle)
lie	lied	lied
lay	laid	laid
lie	lain	lain

Learners may be confused with the word “*lie*” because lie has two different meanings. The first one is telling untruth and the other one is be located or be situated in a certain position. Therefore, the verb “*lie*” has two different forms in conjugating the verb. However, learners may also make trouble with the word “*lay*”. They may misunderstand the word “*lay*” in present form and “*lay*” in past form of the word “*lie*”.

2.2.3 Mood

There are four types of mood. Indicative, subjunctive, imperative, and infinitive are included in the mood. Indicative means the type of mood which is applied for making questions and statements. Learners should concern about the aforementioned aspects, person and tenses, which may affect the changing of the verb. For example:

- Present Indicative
She works on her paper seriously.
Does she work on her paper seriously?
- Past Indicative
She worked on her paper seriously.
Did she work on her paper seriously?
- Future Indicative
She will work on her paper seriously.

Will she work on her paper seriously?

- Present Perfect Indicative

She has worked on her paper seriously.

Has she worked on her paper seriously?

Then, Imperative is applied to make a command. Next, subjunctive could be used to express wishes or possibility (wish, may and might are the examples). Learners should concern about expressing unreal situations in a sentence because they need to use “were” as a to be for all subjects. Additionally, infinitive could be defined as an unchangeable noun. For example, to + Verb 1. (Bussmann, 1996)

The examples of imperative are

- “go away!”, “close the door!”, “do your homework seriously!”

Then, the examples of subjunctive are

- “I wish I were there”, “he may come to the party”, “it might be raining”

Next, the examples of infinitive are

- “I want to eat”, “she has to go”, “they would like to drink”

2.2.4. Voice

Voice is divided into two; they are active and passive. A sentence is called an active sentence when the subject is a do-er. The example of active voice is *I love you, he kicks the ball*. Learners still need to pay attention on the subject and tenses. While passive means that the subject of the sentence is not a do-er. In passive form, the focus is the action of the sentence, not the subject. The reason is because the subject is not known or not important who does the action in passive form. The formula for passive form is the object + to be (is, am, are or was, were) + past participle.

Learners should be careful in deciding the correct to be and conjugating the verb. For instance, *the chair was broken*. It is not important to know who broke the chair because the action is the focus. (Leech & Svartvik, 2003)

Yet, learners should understand about transitive and intransitive verbs. Transitive verbs give action to the object, such as “*I drive a car*”. The subject is *I*, the verb is *drive*, and the object is *a car*. It is called transitive because the object receives the action of the verb. That transitive sentence can be changed into passive forms, such as “*a car is driven by me*”. On the other hand, intransitive means that the sentence does not have the object receiving the action of the verb. For instance, *she cried, they laughed*. Those sentences do not have objects, therefore, those sentences cannot be changed into passive form.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

There are two basic categories of research, qualitative and quantitative. Qualitative research collects or gets the information that is not in numerical form. The social phenomenon being investigated from the participant’s point of view becomes an indication of qualitative research. The examples are open-ended questionnaires, observations, and also interviews. Descriptive data is a characteristic of qualitative data. This research is beneficial to investigate what people think or feel in depth.

On the contrary, quantitative research collects the information which is in numerical form. In quantitative research, the data could be measured or put into categories or rank order. Therefore, tables and graphs could be constructed by applying this quantitative method. Statistical tests are characteristic of quantitative data. Numerical comparisons and statistical inferences are ways to analyze the data, such as testing (Williams, 2007).

In this study, the writer used a quantitative method to analyze the data because the writer collected the data by administering tests. A test is a construction that has principles of score variance, reliability, and validity. The test could be used to get information or data in guiding the placement of students into appropriate classes or programs. (Elizifa, 2015) The writer conducted two different tests. The first test was about conjugation. In the first test, students had to fill in the provided table. Then, the second test would be a multiple-choice test in applying conjugation in grammar. The aim of this study was to know the Faculty of Language and Arts' students' cognition of conjugation. In addition, it was to discover whether the students who knew very well conjugation could apply the conjugation in grammar or not through tests.

3.1 Method of Data Collection

The researcher collected the data from a number of participants:

3.1.1 Participants

The participants of this research were 53 batch of 2016 students in the Faculty of Language and Arts (second-semester students). The participants did two different kinds of conjugation test. The second-semester students are selected for they had taken Structure 1 or had ever learned conjugation in class.

3.1.2 Instruments

In this study, the writer used the tests as the primary instrument in data collection. There were two types of tests on conjugations. Tests used to collect data are considered to be the best way to test their ability in applying conjugation.

3.1.3 Research Procedures

To collect the data, there were two types of tests that were given to the students. After determining the participants, there were some steps in collecting and analyzing the data:

1. Firstly, this research is conducted by choosing participants who would be involved in this research. The participants were 2016 Faculty of Language and Arts students, especially those who had taken the Structure 1 course.
2. Secondly, the writer used lists of the most common irregular verbs by Langan (2015) as the material of the first test.
3. Thirdly, there were three parts from the lists, basic form, past tense, and past participle parts. The writer would re-type the lists and empty the tables of past tense and past participle to be given to the students. (see the appendix)
4. Then, the writer conducted the first test consisting of 31 verbs to the second-semester students in Faculty of Language and Arts. The students had to complete the table of past tense and past participle only.
5. Next, the writer would see the results of the first test before doing the next step. If most students got all the answers correct, the researcher would continue to conduct the second test a week after. However, if it is the opposite, students are given the same test they did previously.
6. After that, the researcher created the second test. The contents of the second test were the same 31 lists of verbs as the previous test yet the second test would be in a multiple-choice form. This multiple-choice test

was taken from several books by Thaker (2008), Yeo (2008), Kumar (2008) and Grammar 1 book from Faculty of Language and Arts as a reference to create the second test. (see the appendix)

7. In the second test, participants had to choose the correct verbs which were provided, to fill in the blank, and to write the letter of their choice in the space provided in the margin. In one question, participants needed to choose the best conjugation in a certain sentence to make a grammatically correct sentence.
8. Then, the writer analyzed the data from the results of the two tests to find the results supporting the writer's research. The researcher used Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS 20) to calculate the data and used a t-test in SPSS to know the significant difference between the two tests.
9. Lastly, the researcher interpreted the results of the tests.

3.2 Method of Data Analysis

After collecting the data, the writer would analyze them quantitatively by using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS 20) to make the results of the first and second tests (the data) to see and to discover whether there was a significant difference between the first and the second tests. The writer would analyze the results of the two tests with the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS versi 20).

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

In this chapter, the researcher would like to discuss the analysis and the interpretation of the data related to students' cognition of

conjugation and their ability in applying conjugation in grammar. The writer used Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS vers 20) to see whether there was a significant difference between the first and the second test. The researcher distributed the tests to the Faculty of Language and Arts students in batch 2016. There were two types of tests, filling in the blank and multiple-choice types, which were related to grammar, especially to conjugation.

4.1 First Test

In the first test, the writer used a list of the most common irregular verbs by Langan (2015) as the material of the first test. There were 31 verbs which were considered as the most common irregular verbs. For instance, become, begin, break, bring, catch, choose, come, do, drink, drive, eat, feel, find, forget, get, give, go, grow, have, hide, is, keep, know, leave, read, see, shake, spend, take, tell, and write. (see the appendix) Also, there were three parts from the lists, basic form, past tense, and past participle parts. The writer re-typed the lists and emptied the tables of past tense and past participle.

The participants only completed the tables of past tense and past participle. For example, there was the word “*become*” then the students needed to write the form of past tense “*became*” and the form of past participle “*become*” in the provided blank. In addition, the results of the first test were very satisfactory. The mean of the first test was 96.

From the first test, the writer could see that the highest score of the first test was 100 and the lowest score of the first test was 85 (only one person who got 85). Also, there were 10 students among 53 students who got all the answers correct or got a hundred score in the first test. There were also 10 students who made only one mistake and other participants did really well in

conjugating the verbs. No participant got a score below 85. From the results of the first test, there were several verbs which students could answer correctly.

Table 19.
The results of the first test

Test 1								
92	100	90	98	98	87	98	100	96
100	98	98	98	93	93	98	95	100
95	96	95	96	96	100	93	96	96
91	96	95	96	100	96	96	98	100
98	96	100	92	95	98	95	96	96
93	100	85	91	90	92	100	98	
Mean = 96								

The words “*break, do, eat, feel, go, take*” were examples of irregular verbs which students felt easy to conjugate. All 53 participants could conjugate these below verbs correctly:

- break into broke and broken (see the appendix number 3)
- do into did and done (see the appendix number 8)
- eat into ate and eaten (see the appendix number 11)
- feel into felt and felt (see the appendix number 12)
- go into went and gone (see the appendix number 17)
- take into took and taken (see the appendix number 29)

Also, there were some irregular verbs that most participants could conjugate well. The verbs of “*begin, catch, come, find, get, give, and write*” were included as easy verbs. According to the

results of the first test, there was only one participant who made a mistake in each of the aforementioned verbs.

On the other hand, there were several irregular verbs in the first test which most participants had errors in conjugating, such as :

- choose into chose and chosen (see the appendix number 6)
- hide into hid and hidden (see the appendix number 20)
- is into was or were and been (see the appendix number 21)
- shake into shook and shaken (see the appendix number 27)

A number of 19 participants made errors in conjugating the verb “*choose*”. In this verb, many participants were confused in conjugating both past tense and past participle forms. There were some students who could conjugate the past tense form correctly (*chose*) but they made an error when conjugating the past participle form.

The correct past participle form of the word choose was *chosen*. However, most students conjugated the word “*choose*” into “*chosen*” with double o. Then, there were several participants who could conjugate the past participle form correctly yet they had errors in conjugating the past tense form. Most of them seemed to have the same mistake. Those participants wrote “*choose*” for the past tense form instead of the correct one “*chose*”. The mistakes which the students made were likely the same. They tended to double o in conjugating the verb “*choose*”.

Next, there were 9 students who made mistakes when conjugating the word “*hide*”. Some of them made mistakes when they conjugated into past tense form. The correct word should be “*hid*” but they answered it “*hidden*” which was supposed to be in past participle form only. Some participants considered the word hidden was in both past tense and past participle forms.

Then, there were 20 participants who made mistakes in the verb “*is*”. Most participants thought that the conjugations of the word

“*is*” were “*was*” for the past tense form and “*was*” for the past participle form. Whereas, the conjugations of the word “*is*” were “*was or were*” and “*been*”. Moreover, there were participants who did not answer at all or left the answer sheet blank for question number 21 the word “*is*”.

Additionally, the verb which caused most participants lots of errors was the word “*shake*”. There were 21 students who made mistakes in this verb. Most of them had errors in the past tense form. Many participants answered “*shoke*” instead of “*shook*” for the past tense form of the word shake. There were also some students who answered both “*shook*” for past tense and past participle forms instead of “*shook*” for past tense form and “*shaken*” for past participle form.

4.2 Second Test

The contents of the second test were the same 31 lists of verbs as the previous test. Yet, the second test was in a multiple-choice form. This multiple-choice test was taken from several books by Thaker (2008), Yeo (2008), Kumar (2008) and Grammar 1 book from Faculty of Language and Arts as references to create the second test. (see the appendix)

In the second test, participants had to choose the correct verbs which were provided, fill in the blank, and write the letter of their choice in the space provided in the margin. In one question, participants had to choose the best conjugation in a certain sentence to make a grammatically correct sentence.

Table 20.
The results of the second test

Test 2								
77	93	93	93	96	87	96	96	93
83	80	80	74	83	90	87	77	93
93	93	83	83	96	90	70	80	70
77	93	93	93	96	83	93	83	80
96	74	93	70	93	90	83	87	83
93	70	90	67	67	93	96	90	
Mean = 86								

The results of the second test were not as good as the first test. There was a decline from the first test. The mean of the second test was 86 and it was lower than the mean of the first test. Besides, no participant got a hundred percent or answered the test correctly in the second test. From the second test, the writer could see that the highest score for the second test was 96 and the lowest score for the second test was 67.

From the results of the second test, there were several verbs which students could answer correctly. The words “break, have, and write” were the examples of irregular verbs which students felt easy to apply conjugation in a sentence. All 53 participants could choose the conjugation correctly to make a grammatically correct sentence, such as :

The kindergarten teacher was not thrilled when Keith brought a live worm to class. (see the appendix number 4)

- | | |
|------------|------------|
| a. bring | c. brang |
| b. brought | d. bringed |

- I had a high fever last night. (see the appendix number 19)
 - a. have
 - b. had
 - c. having
 - d. is having
- My grandmother has written our family history. (see the appendix number 31)
 - a. writed
 - b. wrote
 - c. written
 - d. Write

However, the writer found several verbs that made participants confused to decide which one was appropriate to complete the sentence correctly. Although, those participants knew the correct conjugations really well which the writer could see from the results of the first test. Some participants knew the correct conjugations but they did not know how to apply those conjugations in a sentence.

From the first test, the writer could discover that certain participants could conjugate correctly in the first test yet they could not do well in the second test. The verbs were “*come, drink, feel, get, leave, and read*”. Then, the examples of the second test which many participants answered incorrectly were :

What have you learned since you here? (see the appendix number 7)

- a. come
- b. comed
- c. have come
- d. came

There were 26% of participants who knew the conjugation of the word “*come*” (as seen on the first test, they got correct answers) yet they could not do correctly in the second test. Although they knew the past tense form of come was “*came*” and the past participle form was “*come*”, they still answered incorrectly when applying in grammar. Most participants answered “*have come*”

and there were also several participants who answered “*come*”. The best answer for the above question should be “*came*”. The reason was because after the word “*since*” must be followed by past tense form.

The sentence above was the example of a complex sentence. Also, the idea which something began at a specific time in the past and continues to the present could be expressed by the word “*since*”. (Azar, Fundamentals of English Grammar -3rd edition with answer key, 2003) The present perfect tense should be used in a sentence with *since*, for example, I have been here since September. The present progressive, simple present, and simple past tenses should not be used in sentences with *since*. The pattern is that the present perfect tense is used in the main clause of a sentence and the simple past tense is used in the sub clause of a sentence. From the data above, the writer could see that there was lack of understanding the pattern of a complex sentence of present perfect and past tenses. Most participants were not aware of the use of tense after the word “*since*”.

- Have you a chocolate milk which I left on the table yesterday? (see the appendix number 9)
 - a. drink
 - b. drank
 - c. drank
 - d. drunk

Almost a half of the participants (40% of participants) who knew the conjugation well of the word “*drink*” (as seen on the first test), they did incorrectly in the second test. Although they knew the past tense form of drink was “*drank*” and the past participle form was “*drunk*”, they still could not do correctly when applying in grammar.

The sentence above was also included as a complex sentence. The reason was because there were two tenses in one sentence. There

were present perfect tense and simple past tense. An activity which happened at an unspecified time in the past could be expressed by the present perfect tense. However, an activity which happened at a specific time in the past should use simple past tense (Azar, Fundamentals of English Grammar -3rd edition with answer key, 2003). The example of simple past tense is *I ate banana one hour ago*. There is specific time (one hour ago) therefore people have to use simple past tense. The example of present perfect tense is *I have already eaten your banana*. There is no specific time in that sentence therefore people should use present perfect tense.

From the data above, most of the participants answered “*drank*” instead of “*drunk*”. The best answer was “*drunk*” because the question used present perfect tense and after the word “*have*” must be followed by past participle. Yet, most participants answered with past tense form. The writer could show that there was lack of understanding tenses in a complex sentence. Most participants assumed that they had to use simple past tense because the clue in a sentence was “*which I left on the table yesterday?*” (in simple past tense). Most participants were not aware of the use of tense after the word “*have*”.

- It had been a long day and we tired. (see the appendix number 12)
 - a. felt
 - b. feels
 - c. feel
 - d. feeling

As well as the word “*drink*”, the word “*feel*” also became an obstacle for the participants to apply in grammar. There were 38% of participants who knew the conjugation of the word “*feel*” (as seen on the first test, they got all correct in answering) yet they could not do well in the second test. Although they knew the past

tense form of feel was “*felt*” and the past participle form was also “*felt*”, those participants still answered incorrectly when applying it in a sentence. Most of them answered “*feel*” instead of “*felt*”.

The sentence above was categorized as a compound sentence. The examples of compound sentence are “*He made a blue cake, she made a pink cake*” and “*the stars are twinkling, the sky is clear*”. There must be the same tenses in one sentence. If the one used simple past tense, so the other one must use simple past tense too. From the data above, the writer could assume that there was lack of understanding tenses in a compound sentence. In question number 12, there was a bare clue which participants could see. The clue was “*it had been a long day and..*”. People could know that a sentence used simple past tense and they should continue with the same tense, simple past tense. Most participants were not aware to conjugate the appropriate verb. They mostly answered with simple present tense instead of simple past tense.

- Each pupil a Children’s Day gift. (see the appendix number 15)
 - a. get
 - b. are getting
 - c. gets
 - d. were getting

There were 24% of participants who knew the conjugation of the word “*get*” yet they could not do correctly in the second test. Although they knew the conjugation of get, they still could not decide which one was appropriate for that sentence. Most participants answered “*get*” instead of “*gets*”. The best answer was gets because the subject in a sentence was singular.

The sentence above was the example of subject-verb agreement sentences. There is a relation between the subject and a verb. A verb depends on the subject in person and number. People should be aware of the existence of the subject in a sentence. The reason

is that the subject does affect the verb which is used in a sentence. People need to conjugate the verbs correctly in order to have grammatically correct sentences. People should conjugate and depends on the subject or subject must agree with the verb. A singular subject must be followed by a singular verb. For instance, the sun shines. The sun is a singular subject and shines is a singular verb. A plural subject must be followed by a plural verb. For example, Birds sing. Birds are a plural verb and sing is a plural verb. Also, when there are two subjects connected by the word “and” must be followed by a plural verb. For instance, *My friend and I live in Semarang*. Two or more subjects require a plural verb. Therefore, the verb does not need to be changed or added –s. However, people should also concern about adding –s because not all verbs are followed by –s. There are verbs which are followed by –s, –es, and –ies.

Additionally, “every, each” are included as singular word. Therefore, those words are used with a singular noun not a plural noun, such as, every woman, each woman, every book, each book. Then, the subject is followed by a singular verb too. There was a clue in the question number 15, it was “each pupil..”. The word “each” could make participants easier to conjugate. The reason was because “each” is always followed by singular noun and it leads to conjugate to singular verb. The best answer must be “gets” because it was singular verb. The writer could see that there was lack of understanding subject-verb agreement sentences.

- The millionaire businessman all his money to charity. (see the appendix number 24)
 - a. left
 - b. leave
 - c. lefted
 - d. leaved

The past tense form of leave was “*left*” and the past participle form was “*left*”. There were 30% of participants who knew the conjugation of the word “*leave*” (as seen on the first test) yet they could not do correctly in the second test. They still answered incorrectly when applying in grammar.

From the data, the researcher could see that the participants had not understood yet in choosing the best verb and tense to make a grammatically correct sentence. The sentence was also included as a subject-verb agreement sentence. A verb depends on the subject in person and number. As the aforementioned paragraph, the subject does affect the verb which is used in a sentence. Participants need to conjugate the verbs correctly in order to have grammatically correct sentences. Also, they should conjugate and depends on the subject or subject must agree with the verb.

Most participants answered “*leave*” instead of “*left*”. From the question number 12, there was no specific time which could make participants confused. Yet, there was a clue from the subject of that sentence “*The millionaire businessman..*”. The subject was a singular noun therefore it should be followed by a singular verb. The verb could be in present tense or past tense. The word “*leave*” could be the correct answer if it was followed by *-s* at the end because the subject was *the millionaire bussinessman* who was singular. The choices of “*lefted*” and “*leaved*” were surely incorrect because they were not included as the conjugation of the word “*leave*”. The best answer was “*left*”.

- While Mr. Emerson the little boy a story, he fell asleep. (see the appendix number 25)
 - a. was reading
 - b. is reading
 - c. read
 - d. are reading

The verb read may be confusing for participants. The reason was because this verb had the same past tense and past participle form in written. The past tense form was “*read*” and the past participle was “*read*”. Yet, it became different if people conjugated in verbal way.

There were 32 % of participants who knew the conjugation of the word “*read*” (as seen on the first test, they got correct in conjugating without context) but those participants sadly could not do well in the second test. Although those participants knew the conjugation of “*read*”, they still answered incorrectly when applying in grammar. Most participants confused to decide what tenses they should choose.

The sentence above was included as a complex sentence. There were two different tenses in one sentence. From the data, the researcher could see that participants mostly answered “*is reading*” instead of “*was reading*”. The best answer for that question was “*was reading*” because it was a process and it happened in the past that people could know from a sentence *he fell a sleep*. However, they did not recognize that the moment happened in the past. The data is proven that there is lack of understanding tenses in a complex sentence.

4.3 The T-Test statistical significance

There are two broad classifications of statistical procedures, for instance, parametric and non-parametric. The data distribution which is assumed to be normal in the underlying population and parameters (means and standard deviation) is the definition of parametric statistical procedures. However, there is no or few assumption about the parameters of population distribution in non-parametric statistical procedures (Hoskin, 2010). Using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test can be a way to know whether the data

distribution is normal. Testing the quality of a given data to a academical distribution is the definition of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (Hassani, 2015). Hereby, the writer conducted a normality test using one-sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov test with SPSS 20.

According to the results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov normality test, it was shown that both scores and the tests results were distributed normally. As seen on the table above, the first test had z value = 1,189 and $p = 0,118$ ($p > 0,05$). The second test had z value = 1,487 and $p = 0,24$ ($p > 0,05$). The significant number of those two variables were more than 0,05 thus the data distribution can be said to be normal.

Table 21.
One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

		TEST_1	TEST_2
N		53	53
Normal Parameters ^a	Mean	95.81	85.94
	Std. Deviation	3.442	8.782
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		1.189	1.487
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.118	.024

Table 22.
Normality graph of test 1

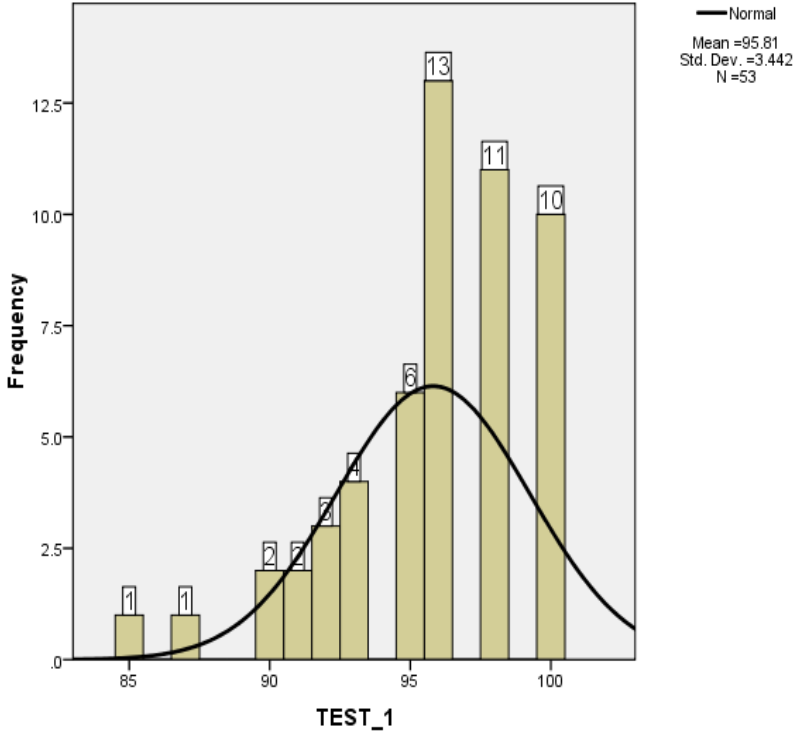
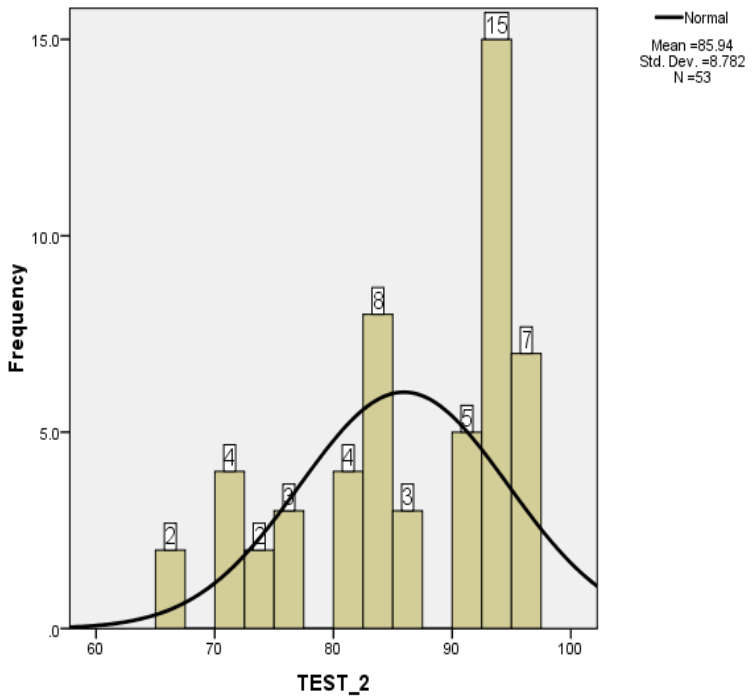


Table 23.

Normality graph of test 2



There were horizontal and vertical line as seen on these two above graphs. The horizontal lines showed the results of the first and second tests. Then, the vertical lines showed the number of subjects or participants who got a certain score. For example, there was one participant who got 85, there were two participants who got 90, and there were 13 participants who got 95 as seen on the first graph. Next, the curves in the both graphs revealed that the data was categorized as a normal distribution. The data distribution of this study was normal therefore the writer used t-test.

T-test is used for comparing one or two means. There are three main types of t-tests, such as, one-sample t-test, independent samples t-test, and paired samples t-test. One-sample t-test is used to test whether single variable's mean contrasts. Then, independent samples t-test is used for testing comparative research questions from a detailed constant. Next, comparing the means of two variables for a single group is the definition of paired samples t-test. (Fischler, 2005) The researcher used this paired samples t-test because it is the best way to analyze the data which has the same subject with two kinds of tests.

Additionally, there are two parts of paired samples t-test, for instance, directional hypothesis and non-directional hypothesis. A directional hypothesis leads to a one-tailed test. A directional hypothesis clearly describes whether the correct value of the parameter is less than or greater than the reference value defined in null hypothesis. However, a non-directional hypothesis does not predict whether the parameter of the true value is smaller or larger than the reference value which is defined in the null hypothesis. (McNeil, 1997) The researcher conducted a two-tailed test because the data had a non-directional hypothesis. The writer analyzed the results of the two tests and also compared the means with Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS vers.20).

Table 24.
Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Conjugation	95.81	53	3.442	.473
	Application	85.94	53	8.782	1.206

Table 25.

Paired Samples T-Test

		Paired Differences			t	df	Sig. (2 tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean			
Pair 1	Conjugation - Application	9.868	8.564	1.176	8.388	52	.000

A paired samples t-test was conducted to compare the mean of the first test and the second test. As seen on table 25, the writer could know the mean of the two tests was 9,868. The mean is to indicate one measure of main tendency. Then, standard deviation or people usually call SD means a standard which is used to measure the amount of variety. The standard deviation of the first and the second tests was 8,564. Next, standard error mean shows the connection between the transmission of individual observations around the standard deviation and the spread of sample means around the standard error. The standard error mean of the two tests was 1,176. The df can be defined as degrees of freedom. It is the amount of values in the last counting of a statistic which are free to differ. From the table, the degrees of freedom was 52.

In the table, T can be defined as the projected difference which is represented in group of standard error. T value can be either

positive or negative. The greater the measure of t, the greater the proof against the null hypothesis which there is no significant difference. It is more likely that there isn't a significant difference if the t value is closer to 0. The t value of the data was 8,388. From the t value, it could be a clue that there might be a significant difference because the t value is far from 0. In addition, the p value or the significant number from the data was 0,000. It was included as very significant because $p < 0,01$. The data could be said to be significant if the number of significance was less than 0,05. Additionally, the data could be said to be very significant if the significant number or p value less than 0,001. There was a significant difference in the mean of test 1 (M=95,81, SD=3,442) and test 2 (M=85,94, SD=8,782) conditions; $t(52)=8,388$, $p = 0,000$.

Therefore, the writer found out that there was a significant difference between the first test and the second test. These results pointed out that people who know conjugation well still cannot do satisfactorily in its application.

Table 26.
The sample comparison of the first test results and the unsatisfying second test results

First test	Second test
100	80
100	70
96	74
96	70
91	67
90	67

There were striking differences between the first test results and the second test results. There was 19% of participants who got perfect results in the first test. Yet, there was none of participants (0%) who got perfect result in the second test. Then, more than a half of the participants or 57% of participants got near perfect results. However, only 13% of participants got near perfect results. The lowest result of the first test was 85 which was made by only one participant. In fact, the lowest result of the second test was 67 made by two participants. There was none of the participants who got the result below 85. On the other hand, there was 43% of participants or almost a half of the participants who got the results below 85.

From the table above, the writer wanted to show the differences between the first test results and the second test results. The writer gave the sample of two participants who got perfect scores in the first test, in fact, they got unsatisfying scores in the second test or they were not able to apply the conjugations well in grammar. Also, there were several participants who got great score (above 90) in the first test yet they got bad scores in the second test. Especially, those who got scores 67 whereas they knew conjugation well which could be seen on the first test.

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

Based on the analysis of the previous chapter using SPSS 20, the results from conducting 2 tests showed that there was significant difference between the first and the second tests as the results of the first test did not affect the results of the second test. This can be concluded that the students who knew conjugation well does not mean they were also able to apply the conjugation in a context. It is proven that all students who had succeeded in the first test with perfect scores could not make another perfect score in the

second test. Most participants were unable to conjugate when the sentence was a complex sentence, a compound sentence, and a sentence that contains a subject-verb agreement sentence.

Regarding the above conclusions, the writer suggests the next researchers to conduct a series of tests instead of just pretest and posttest, and modify the type of the second test from multiple choice form to completing form. In addition, instructions are possible to be added as it may affect the understanding of conjugations.

References

- Ana, I. K., & Ratminingsih, N. M. (2012). Teaching English Tenses to EFL Learners: Deductive or Inductive? *International Journal for Cross-Disciplinary Subjects in Education (IJCDSE)*, 2(2), 998-1004.
- Azar, B. S. (1999). *Understanding and Using English Grammar*. (J. Johnston, Ed.) New York, United States of America: Pearson Education.
- Azar, B. S. (2003). *Fundamentals of English Grammar -3rd edition with answer key*. (S. Hartle, Ed.) New York: Pearson Education.
- Bussmann, H. (1996). *Routledge Dictionary of Language and Linguistics* (Vol. 452). (G. P. Trauth, K. Kazzazi, Eds., G. P. Trauth, & K. Kazzazi, Trans.) London, United Kingdom, England: Routledge London.
- Crystal, D. (2008). *A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics 6th edition*. Malden, United States of America: Blackwell Publishing.
- Debata, D. P. (2013, May 5). The Importance of Grammar in English Language Teaching - A Reassessment. *Language*

- in India*, 13(5), 1-5. Retrieved October 3, 2016, from The Importance of Grammar in English Language Teaching: <http://languageinindia.com/may2013/pradeepgrammarfinal.pdf>
- Eastwood, J. (1994). *Oxford Guide to English Grammar*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Elizifa, Z. (2015, June 12). Appraisal of the Extent Tanzanian EFL Testing Complies to Ideals of Test Construction: A Case of 2012 Certificate of Secondary Education English Language Examination. *Journal for the Study of English Linguistics*, III(1), 80-92.
- Fischler, A. S. (2005). Modul 6 : T-test. In T-test, *The Applied Research Center* (pp. 1 - 39). Florida : NOVA southeastern university.
- Fum, D., Giangrandi, P., & Tasso, C. (1989). some issues in the design of the verb expert. *tense generation in an intellegent tutor for foreign language teaching*, 124-129.
- Greenbaum, S. (1996). *The Oxford English Grammar*. New York, United States: Oxford Univeristy Press.
- Hashemi, L., & Thomas, B. (2003). *Grammar for first certificate with answers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hassani, H. (2015, August 4). Econometrics. *A Kolmogorov-Smirnov Based Test for Comparing the*, 590-610.
- Hoskin, T. (2010, January 1). Parametric and Nonparametric. *Demystifying the Terms*, 1-5. Retrieved from file:///C:/Users/user/Downloads/Documents/10.1.1.629.3640.pdf
- Kumar, S. S. (2008). *Complete Practice Book for Grammar, Vocabulary & Comprehension Primary 6*. Toh Tuck, Singapore: Educational Publishing House Pte Ltd.

- Langan, J. (2015). *English Essentials, Short Version*. Berlin: Townsend Press.
- Leech, G., & Svartvik, J. (2003). *A Communicative Grammar of English*. London, United Kingdom: Pearson Longman.
- McNeil, K. (1997, March 19). *Directional and Non-directional Hypothesis Testing: A Survey of SIG Members, Journals, and Textbooks*. Retrieved from document resume: file:///C:/Users/user/Downloads/Documents/ED409374.pdf
- Tarigan, B. (2001, January 13). Teaching English Grammar Communicatively in an Indonesian University. 1-286.
- Thaker, N. (2008). *Complete Practice Book for Grammar, Vocabulary & Comprehension Primary 4*. Toh Tuck, Singapore: Educational Publishing House Pte Ltd.
- Wilcox, K. M. (2004, April). *Defining Grammar: A Critical Primer*. Retrieved October 3, 2016, from Defining grammar: <http://scholarworks.montana.edu/xmlui/bitstream/handle/1/2541/WilcoxK04.pdf>
- Williams, C. (2007, March). Research Methods. *Journal of Business & Economic Research*, 5(3), 65-72.
- Wongsothorn, D. A. (2016). *about us :Approaches to Language Testing Online*. Retrieved September 21, 2016, from Approaches to Language Testing Online: <http://www.culi.chula.ac.th/etest/u2p06.html>
- Yeo, J. (2008). *Complete Practice Book for Grammar, Vocabulary & Comprehension Primary 2*. Toh Tuck, Singapore: Educational Publishing House Pte Ltd.
- Zhang, J. (2009, May). Necessity of Grammar Teaching. *International Education Studies*, 2(2), 184-187.

An Analysis of the Problematic Skills in the Structure and Written Expression Section of Paper- Based TOEFL

by

Jessica Enki Van Thiel

Y.E Budiyanana

Heny Hartono

ABSTRACT

TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language) has been recognized as the most widely used proficiency test in the world. This study focused on the students' errors in structure and written expression sections of TOEFL. It aimed to identify and investigate the skills that were difficult for students in the structure and written expressions of the paper-based TOEFL. This study involved 45 students from the English Literature and Englishpreneurship program in the Faculty of Language and Arts Soegijapranata Catholic University who were taking TOEFL Preparation classes. A quantitative approach with descriptive statistics was employed to complete the error analysis. The results of the study show that the problematic skills in section 2 of TOEFL for students were

inversions, agreement, parallel structure, reduced clauses, problems with nouns, problems with verbs and problems with adjectives.

Keywords: *TOEFL, structure and written expression section, problematic skills*

INTRODUCTION

TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language) has been recognized as the most widely used proficiency test in the world. It pertains to the scheme of evaluation means for testing the capability of non-English speaking speakers. Hence, some colleges and universities around the world recommend TOEFL as means to measure student candidates' English proficiency. In Indonesia, TOEFL is commonly used by higher education institutions to diagnose students' proficiency in English. The results of the TOEFL test are often used as a part of the requirements to have thesis or dissertation exams as well as a requirement to enroll in the universities.

In 2018, the Government of Indonesia also required a minimum TOEFL score of 500 for people who wish to apply for jobs as civil servants (Tim, 2018). Apart from the admission and job application, a TOEFL score is required to apply for scholarships. A TOEFL score is required by the Australia Awards Scholarship in Indonesia (AUSAID). AUSAID requires 525 on TOEFL PBT (Australia Awards Indonesia, 2015). Some other foundations such as Chevening, Fulbright, and LPDP also require TOEFL score. Considering the importance of TOEFL scores as one of the essential requirements to apply jobs, admissions, and scholarship, the Faculty of Language and Arts in UNIKA Soegijapranata Semarang also makes the students take TOEFL preparation classes

as compulsory subjects. A minimum TOEFL score of 500 has been set as one of the graduation requirements.

Several studies on TOEFL have been conducted by other researchers including Antoni (2014). His research concentrated on three sections of paper-based TOEFL. The participants of Antoni's research were the sixth-semester students of the English Department of Lecturers training and education, Faculty of Pasir Pengaraian University. He investigated the students' experience in TOEFL and which skill was problematic for the students. The finding shows that most of the students did not have proper preparation for completing the test. In the listening part, the students got difficulties to understand the spoken language. In the structure part, the students got difficulties in determining the subject and verb because of the limited knowledge that the students had on the strategies. Students also had difficulties in the reading section. Students' lack of vocabulary and knowledge about the topic of the stories became the main barrier for them to achieve higher score.

Another study was conducted by Munadia (2016). In her research, she found that many students faced difficulties in responding to the structure section in TOEFL. Her study was to find out the most challenging element of the structure section for the students. The result shows that students faced difficulties in some elements of grammar sections such as the reduced verb, the use of the verb, parallelism, subject-verb agreement, and relative clause.

Inspired by the two previous studies, the writer conducted this study in the Faculty of Language and Arts, Soegijapranata Catholic University, Semarang. In particular, this study focused on the students' errors in structure and written expression sections of TOEFL. This study involved 2016 batch students from the English Literature and Englishpreneurship program in the Faculty of

Language and Arts Soegijapranata Catholic University. The results of the study will be beneficial for the faculty to better prepare the TOEFL classes as well as developing better techniques and strategies to teach TOEFL preparation classes. In wider scope, the results of this study will also provide vivid description of the students' problems in dealing with TOEFL due to the role of English as a foreign language in the country. Based on what has been explained above, this study aimed to identify and investigate the skills that were difficult for students in the structure and written expressions of the TOEFL.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A test or examination is an assessment intended to measure students' knowledge, skill, ability or classification in other topics. A test may be written on paper, on a computer, and so forth (Terry & Hughes, 2003). Furthermore, the practice of making an objective judgment regarding the extent to which the device meets, exceeds or fails to meet the stated objectives is called testing. There are some functions of tests mentioned by Terry & Hughes (2003):

- (1) to measure the students' proficiency,
- (2) to discover how successful students have been in achieving the objectives of a course of study,
- (3) to diagnose students' strength and weakness,
- (4) to assist placement of students by identifying the stages or part of the teaching program most appropriate to them.

TOEFL in Higher Education

A well-known proficiency test among the students in the university is the TOEFL test. TOEFL, as a standardized test, has been widely used across nations of more than one hundred countries since its

initial establishment in early 1960 (Sulistyo, 2009). There are three kinds of TOEFL namely the ITP, IBT, and PBT. Among these three kinds, the PBT or paper-based TOEFL is the most commonly used in Indonesian educational institutions. This TOEFL version consists of three main sections as the following:

Table 1

The sections of TOEFL PBT® (ETS, 2009)

Section	Number of Questions	Administration Time	Score Scale
Listening Comprehension	50	35 minutes	31-68
Structure and Written Expression	40	25 minutes	31-68
Reading Comprehension	50	55 minutes	31-67
Total	140	115	31-667

As mentioned above, there are three sections on the TOEFL test. However, this study only focuses on structure section since the structure is one of the students' problems in TOEFL. The structure section is divided into the structure (15 items) and written expressions (25 items). Based on Philip (2001) there are 60 skills structure and written expression that are tested in TOEFL. This table will help the readers to classify the topics on the structure sections.

Table 2Structure skills on TOEFL

	Sentence with one clause (Skill 1-5)
Structure	Sentence with multiple clauses (Skill 6-12)
	Sentences With Reduced Clauses (Skill 13-19)
	Problems with subject/verb agreement (skill 20-23)
	Problems with parallel structure (skill 24-26)
	Problems with comparatives and superlatives (skill 27-29)
Written Expressions	Problems with the form of the verbs (skill 30-32)
	Problems with the use of the verbs (Skill 33- 36)
	Problem with passive voice verbs (skill 37-38)
	Problems with nouns (skill 39-42)

Problems with pronouns (Skill 43-45)

Problems with adjective and adverbs
(skill 46-51)

Problems with the article (skill 52-55)

Problems with a preposition (Skill 56-57)

Problems with usage (skill 58-60)

In the structure part, there are 3 (three) main topics: a sentence with one clause, a sentence with multiple clauses and sentence with reduced clauses as we can see in Table 2. Parent (2008) defines clause as a group containing a subject and a verb in a sentence. Subject and verb are the most basic in the grammar, the subject is a thing or a person that being discussed, and verb means a word indicating an action, an event or a state (Hornby, 1995). Meanwhile, the written expression part has 13 (thirteen) main topics. The objective of this part is to test the studnets' knowledge of the grammatically correct forms.

Error Analysis in Structure and Written Expression

Error analysis was coined in 1980s by Corder (1981). Corder categorised the differences between systematic and nonsystematic errors. Nonsystematic errors occur in someone

who speaks the native language. Corder calls these “mistakes” and states that they are not significant to the process of language learning. He keeps the term “errors” for the systematic ones, which occur in a foreign language Akiyama (2013).

It is unavoidable that the students make errors in their language learning process. Corder mentioned errors are significant in three ways :

1. To the teacher: they show a student’s progress
2. To the researcher: they show how a language is acquired, what strategies the learner uses.
3. To the learner: they can learn from these errors.

Errors will give a sign to teachers and researchers how the students’ language learning is successful. Error Analysis is an activity to reveal errors found in writing and speaking (Hasyim, 2002). Richards (1971) cited in Hasyim (2002) defines error analysis as follows:

Error analysis is a study of errors made by the second and foreign language learners. In order to find out how fluency someone knows a language (a), to find out how a person learns a language (b) and to obtain information on common difficulties in language learning(c).

Corder (1981) states that to do the error analysis data, there are several steps, such as (1) Collection of a participant of learner language, (2) Identification of errors (3) Description of errors, (4) Explanation of errors, (5) Evaluation of errors. At the end of the error analysis, an evaluation of the results of the analysis was carried out.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study applied quantitative approach. Quantitative research is a means for testing objective theories by examining the relationship among variables (Creswell, 2009). The participants of this study were 45 Faculty of Language and Arts Students who were taking TOEFL preparation II classes. One of the most essential components of the research design was the research instrument to obtain the data. In quantitative research, to obtain data researchers can use questionnaires, experiments, surveys, testing, etc (Osang, 2013). This study used a test to collect the data.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

From the results of data analysis, it was found that students made various kinds of errors. The table below shows the errors made by the students:

Table 3. The percentage of error classification of each item from the TOEFL preparation II class.

Item No.	Correct Percentage of error	Incorrect Percentage of Error	Topics	Skill
12	8.90%	91.10%	Sentences with inverted subject and verb	16
15	8.90%	91.10%	Sentences with inverted subject and verb	18
35	13.30%	86.70%	Problems with preposition	38
36	24.40%	75.60%	Problems with subject/verb agreement	20
2	26.70%	73.30%	Problems with subject/verb agreement	1

30	28.90%	71.10%	Problems with parallel structure	25
39	33.30%	66.70%	Problems with preposition	56
16	35.60%	64.40%	Problems with nouns	39
29	35.60%	64.40%	Problems with noun and pronouns agreement	45
5	35.60%	64.40%	Appositives	3
24	37.80%	62.20%	Problems with adjective	46
13	37.80%	62.20%	Sentences with reduced clauses	14
19	42.20%	57.80%	Problems with the use of the verb	33
32	42.20%	57.80%	Problems with nouns	60
9	42.20%	57.80%	reduced adjective clause	13
10	44.40%	55.60%	The use of noun clause connectors correctly	9
26	46.70%	53.30%	Problems with adjectives and adverbs	46
38	46.70%	53.30%	Problems with adjectives and adverbs	49
40	46.70%	53.30%	Problems with adjectives(use –ed and –ing adjectives)	51
22	53.3%	46.7%	Problems with comparatives and superlative	28
25	55.6%	44.4%	Problems with usage	59
3	60%	40%	Sentences with multiple clauses	6
8	64.4%	35.6%	Sentence with one clause	5
33	64.4%	35.6%	Problems with pronoun	44
4	66.7%	33.3%	Sentences with multiple clauses	7

17	66.7%	33.3%	problems with subjects/verbs Agreement	21
21	68.9%	31.1%	Problems with passive verbs	37
34	68.9%	31.1%	Problems with parallel structure	26
11	73.3%	26.7%	Sentences with multiple clauses	9
6	75.6%	24.4%	Sentences with multiple clauses	7
1	77.8%	22.2%	Sentence with one clause	1
14	77.8%	22.2%	Sentence with multiple clause	12
28	77.8%	22.2%	Problems with passive verbs	36
23	80%	20%	Problems with adjectives and adverbs	49
20	82.2%	17.8%	Problems with noun	39
27	84.4%	15.6%	Problems with articles	53
7	86.7%	13.2%	Sentence with one clause	3
37	91.1%	8.9%	Problems with comparatives and superlatives	29
18	93.3%	6.7%	Problems with the form of the verb	30
31	97.8%	2.2%	Problems with noun	39

To further investigate the students' structural problems in Section 2 of PBT TOEFL, the following table shows the summary of the skills which are problematic for students.

Table 4. The Description of the students' structural problems of Section 2 of TOEFL

Items No.	Correct percentage	Error Percentage	Skill	Skill number	Percentage
12	8,90%	91,10%	Sentences with inverted subject and verb	16	91,10%
15	8,90%	91,10%		18	
35	13,30%	86,70%	Problems with preposition	38	76,70%
39	33,30%	66,70%	Problems with preposition	56	
36	24,40%	75,60%	Problems with subject verb agreement	20	71,10%
2	26,70%	73,30%	Problems with subject verb agreement	1	
29	35,60%	64,40%	Problems with noun and pronouns agreement	45	
30	28,90%	71,10%	Problems with parallel structure	25	71,10%
13	37,80%	62,20%	Sentences with reduced clauses	14	63,30%
9	42,20%	57,80%	Reduced adjective clause	13	
6	35,60%	64,40%	Appositives (reduced adjective clauses)	4	
16	35,60%	64,40%	Problems with nouns	39	59,27%
32	42,20%	57,80%	Problems with nouns	60	
10	44,40%	55,60%	The use of noun clause connectors correctly	9	
19	42,20%	57,80%	Problems with the use of the verb	33	57,80%

24	37,80%	62,20%	Problems with adjective	46	55,53%
40	46,70%	53,30%	Problems with adjectives (use –ed and –ing adjectives)	51	
26	46,70%	53,30%	Problems with adjectives and adverbs	46	
38	46,70%	53,30%	Problems with adjectives and adverbs	49	

It can be seen from the tables above that the students found difficulty in understanding Inversion (91.10%), Preposition (76.70%), Agreement (71.10%) and Parallel Structure (71.10%). Then, those topics were followed by Reduced Clauses Problems (63.30%), Problems with Nouns (59.27%), Problems with Verbs (57.80%), and Problems with adjectives(55.53%). The colors on skill number column are used to classify the level of the item categories. The red color indicates the most difficult items with a correct percentage of less than 25%. The yellow color shows medium level with correct percentages of more than 50%.

Inversion

The definition of inversion is a literary technique in which the standard order of word is reversed. Based on the data, two items with Inversion were the most difficult topic (91.10%). This issue could happen because inversion in Bahasa Indonesia were hardly used in daily life unless in formal Bahasa Indonesia. Another possibility, the students did not know, or they did not get used to inversion. When a subject and a verb are inverted in a complex sentence, they got a problem to solve the inversion.

Preposition

A preposition is a function word that typically combined with a noun to form a phrase that usually expresses a modification or predication. A preposition is used to link nouns, pronouns, or phrases. Some students had difficulty in understanding prepositions. The students may have difficulty in a preposition because preposition in English is usually related to idiomatic expression.

Agreement

The agreement is known in some texts as Concord. The agreement is the correspondence of a verb with its subject in person and number, and of a pronoun with its antecedent in person, number, and gender (Nordquist, 2019). The antecedent is a phrase, word or clause changed by a pronoun in a sentence. In agreement topic, the students have problems when the subject is irregular plural. The writer assumed that some of the students did not know some words in English were irregular plural. When they did not know the subject was irregular plural, they could not choose the verb correctly to agree with a sentence. Another problem was the students could not recognize the subject, and the verb separated from the typical pattern in a sentence. For instance, in typical pattern, the subject next to the verb, but in another pattern, a verb could be put after a noun. This problem caused the students reckless to choose the option of the item.

Parallel Structure

To have a good English pattern in a sentence, the language should be balanced as possible (Philip, 2001). The balance is called a parallel structure, and it has several patterns. On this TOEFL test, the parallel structure related to paired conjunction. In other words,

one side must be parallel to what is on the other side. Common words on paired conjunction are *not only...but also*, *both... and*, *either..or*, *etc*. Some of the students know about parallel structure with paired conjunction this can be proved that the students could answer an item with parallel structure correctly. However, almost half of the participants missed the paired conjunction. The writer assumed the students did not realize the paired conjunction of *both* on Item 30 and the students focused on the other option on Item 30.

Reduced Clauses

In English, reduced adverb clauses refer to the shortening of an adverb clause to an adverbial phrase of the time, causality, or opposition (Beare, 2018). Based on the data that have been mentioned before, the writer concluded that the students have a problem to reduce the adverb clause. This happened because they did not know the rule or the pattern to reduce.

Problems with noun

The students also have problems when they have to pair the plural or singular noun. The students assumed *each* referred to plural that needs plural a noun. Another error was the students missed the rule of *others*, *other* and *another* that related to singular and plural noun.

Problems with adjective

The definition of adjective was written on a dictionary of Oxford. An adjective is a word naming an attribute of a noun (Hornby, 1995). Seemingly, the students have problems to classify words that belonged to adjectives or adverbs. Generally, when a word

ends in -ly in English, it is an adverb therefore, students sometimes failed to identify adjectives which end with-ly.

Problems with verb (The past with the present)

Most of the problems related to verbs are dealing with the past form. Although the students understood about past and present verbs, they often forget to change the verb forms.

CONCLUSION

From the discussion above, it was found that students had problems in answering the structure and written expression in these following skills: inversions (91.10%), prepositions (76.70%) agreement (71.10%), parallel structure (71.10%), Reduced clauses (63.30%), problems with nouns (58.27%), problems with verbs (57.80%) and problems with adjectives (55.30%). Those problems might occur due to students' lack knowledge of those skills or they do not have similar patterns in their first language.

References

- Akiyama, Y. (n.d.). Corder's Error Analysis. Retrieved from file:///G:/jurnal/Corder's Error Analysis _ Yuka Akiyama's Page 2013.html
- Antoni, R. (2014). An Analysis on 6th Semester Students' TOEFL Experience at English Department of Teachers Training and Education Faculty of Pasir Pengaraian University. *Jurnal Ilmiah Edu Research*, 3(33), 9–16. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00036846.2014.950795>
- Australia Awards Indonesia. (2015). Retrieved from file:///G:/jurnal/Australia Awards - Indonesia.html
- Beare, K. (2018). Reduced adverb clauses – Part I. Retrieved from

- <http://www.englishgrammar.org/reduced-adverb-clauses-part/>
- Corder, S. P. (1981). *Error Analysis and Interlanguage*. *University Press, Oxford*. Oxford University Press.
<https://doi.org/10.2307/326720>
- Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mix Methods Approaches*. *SAGE Publications* (3rd ed., Vol. 8). London: SAGE.
<https://doi.org/10.1163/22118993-90000268>
- Educational Testing Service. (2013). TOEFL ITP test taker handbook. *The TOEFL® ITP Assessment Series*. Retrieved from
https://www.ets.org/s/toefl_itp/pdf/toefl_itp_test_taker_handbook.pdf
- Hasyim, S. (2002). Error Analysis in the Teaching of English. *Jurusan Sastra Inggris, Fakultas Sastra, Universitas Kristen Petra*, 4(1), 62–74. Retrieved from
<http://puslit2.petra.ac.id/ejournal/index.php/ing/article/view/15485>
- Hornby, A. . (1995). *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*. Oxford University Press. Retrieved from
<https://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/>
- Husain, N. (2015). Language and Language Skills. *Research Gate*, (March), 1–11. Retrieved from
https://www.researchgate.net/publication/274310952_Language_and_Language_Skills?_esc=publicationCoverPdf&el=1_x_2&enrichId=rgreq-1bee4cbb3729a0365a16f9d087753efc-XXX&enrichSource=Y292ZXJQYWdlOzI3NDMxMDk1MjtBUzoyMTMwOTc2MzQ2MzU3NzZAMTQyNzgxNzgz0Mzg3MQ%3D%3D

- J.E, Osang. (2013). Methods of Gathering Data for Research Purpose and Applications Using IJSER Acceptance Rate of Monthly Paper Publication (March 2012 Edition-May 2013 Edition). *IOSR Journal of Computer Engineering*, 15(2), 59–65. <https://doi.org/10.9790/0661-1525965>
- Munadia. (2016). *Munadia. Mmum*. Banda Aceh. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/287503938_Evaluation_of_English_as_a_Foreign_Language_and_Its_Curriculum_in_Indonesia_A_Review
- Nordquist, R. (2019). Agreement in English Grammar. Retrieved from <https://www.thoughtco.com/what-is-agreement-grammar-1689075>
- Parent, M. (2008). Subject & Verb Agreement Subject & Verb Agreement Key. Manitoba. Retrieved from https://www.umanitoba.ca/student/academiclearning/media/Subject-Verb_Agreement_NEW.pdf
- Philip, D. (2001). TOEFL Preparation 1 Structure Module. New Jersey. Retrieved from <https://maryam-qonita.blogspot.com/2018/04/download-longman-complete-course-for.html>
- Richards, J. (1971). Error Analysis and Second Language Strategies. *English Language Teaching Journal*, 25, 204–219. Retrieved from <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED048579>
- Terry, R. M., & Hughes, A. (2003). Testing for Language Teachers. *The Modern Language Journal* (second). Cambridge University Press. <https://doi.org/10.2307/327632>
- Tim. (2018). Penerimaan CPNS. Retrieved from [file:///G:/jurnal/Tim\(2018\) penerimaan cpns.html](file:///G:/jurnal/Tim(2018) penerimaan cpns.html)

Probing into Students’ Attitudes towards the Teaching of World Englishes

By

Wuryani Hartanto

Introduction

In the last few decades, World Englishes or varieties of English have become a significant issue in the English teaching and learning processes all over the world. Crystal (1997) states that in the past, British and American English became the standard varieties of English, “the history of a global language can be traced through the successful expedition of its soldier/ sailor speakers and English has been no exception.” He further mentions that the present day world status of English is primarily the result of two factors. The first one is the expansion of British colonial power, and the second one is the emergence of the United States as the leading economic power of the twentieth century.

However, the roles of British and American English have currently lessened due to the existence of other varieties, such as Australian English, Singaporean English, Indian English, etc. These varieties of English language are different from the standard British or American English as a result of local influence. The terms most often used to describe the present day varieties of English are ‘

New Englishes ‘ or ‘ World Englishes ‘ (Nunan, 2003). He further states that it has become customary to use the plural form of ‘ Englishes’ to stress that English no longer has one single base of authority, pre-stige and normativity. One example of world Englishes is Singlish or Singaporean English. Chinese and Malay have certainly heavy influence on this variety of English. Interestingly, regardless of its distorted grammar and some weird vocabulary, Singlish is popular among contemporary Asians.

In short, the fact that English develops not only in its original countries is undeniable. It exists whether we accept it or not. As English teachers, we should not turn a blind eye to the rising popularity of world Englishes. Nunan (2003) mentions that there were four outstanding facts in the teaching learning process of English as a foreign language globally. The first one was following British or American styles, the second one is preparing the students to be like native speakers of English, the third one is hiring native speakers of English to be the instructors, and the last one is preparing accurate , standard English and western-based culture materials that do not prepare the students to speak English internationally. However, over 65% of International communication takes place between non-native speakers of English as over a billion of the world population use English as a foreign language (Crystal, 1997). This certainly outnumbers the use of English as a first language (400 million) and English as a second language (600 million). Furthermore, with the emergence of 60 to 70 New Englishes since 1960s, British English is now a minority among the many Englishes spoken all over the world. Thus, introducing varieties of English to our students is a necessity.

In an attempt to do so, the Faculty of Language and Arts

Soegijapranata Catholic University offers a course called ‘English in The Global World’. The course covers 5 varieties of English namely British English, American English, Australian English, Singaporean English, and Indian English. As part of program evaluation, a study of the students’ attitudes towards this course was done. Its main purpose was to reveal the students’ attitudes towards varieties of English taught in ‘English in the Global World’ class. Following Krech (1992), ‘attitude’ is an enduring system of positive or negative evaluation, emotional, feelings, and pro or con action tendencies of people with respect to a social object. He further states that attitude is a tendency to respond positively or negatively to an object or a person or situation. These positive and negative tendencies represent two dimensions, rather than only one. The most obvious quality is the behavioural tendencies of seeking versus avoiding contact with a person or other objects of the attitude. The second dimension pertains to affect, to like and dislike.

The results of this study are expected to serve as feedback particularly for the teacher of the course entitled ‘English in the Global World’ and other English teachers. Additionally, it is expected that this study give a clearer idea about the students’ attitudes towards these present day world widely spoken varieties of English. To narrow down the discussion, this study focuses only on the varieties of English taught in ‘English in the Global World’ class. They are British English, American English, Australian English, Singaporean English and Indian English. The main reason for including these varieties of English in this course is due to the large number of speakers using them all over the world that make them dominant among other varieties of English.

Research Methodology

The participants of the study were students of 2012 batch of The Faculty of Language and Arts. There were 54 students altogether. At the time of the research, they had just finished taking English in The Global World class. The data were collected using questionnaire as the instrument. A set of questions were formulated in the questionnaire with the options arranged based on the Likert Scale. Before the administration of the questionnaire a pilot study was done in order to reveal the drawbacks of the questionnaire and to improve it. In addition, some follow up interviews were conducted between the researcher and some research participants in order to crosscheck the results of the questionnaire and to elicit more data.

The results of the questionnaire were analysed using descriptive statistics (SPSS 20). The outcome was in the form of Mean, Standard Deviation, Minimum and Maximum scores. They were interpreted and crosschecked with the results of the interviews.

Discussion

The research participants were asked to fill out questionnaires in which there was a list of 5 varieties of English offered in English in the Global World class. They were asked to answer 50 questions which justified their attitudes towards each variety. Such questions were adopted from Gardner and Lambert's questionnaire (1972) for attitude justification. They were also asked to rank the varieties of English according to their preferences. However, due to the limited space, it is not possible to present all the results of the data analysis and the detailed discussion on them in this article.

Students' Preference to Learn a Certain Variety of English.

One of the questions asked was on the students' preference to learn certain variety of English. The result of the data analysis, the means, is presented in Table 1 and Chart 1:

Table 1 Students' Preference to learn a Certain Variety of English

	BE	AE	SE	AusE	IE
Students' Preference to learn a Certain Variety of English	2.5556	2.8333	2.0000	2.2593	2.8333

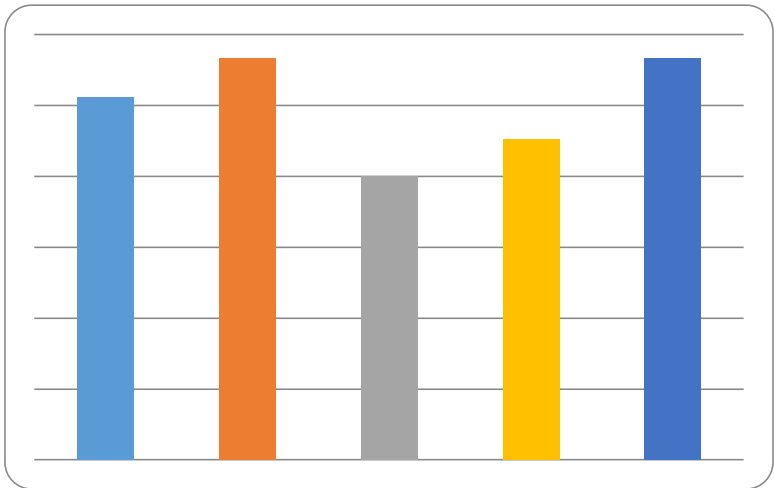


Figure 1. Students' Preference to learn a Certain Variety of English

As shown in table 1 and bar chart 1 above, the participants perceive American (Mean score 2.8333) and Indian English (Mean score 2.8333) as important to be taught compared to other English

varieties. Having high motivation in learning a certain English variety might help them master it better. Therefore, this aspect can be very beneficial for a learner. In addition to this, other varieties' Mean scores are 2.5556 (British English), 2.2593 (Australian English) and Singaporean English (2.0000).

Students' Preference to Use a Certain Variety of English Worldwide

Participants' tendencies to use a certain variety of English become an essential factor worth considering in this study. So, the question asked was on the students' preference to use a certain variety of English worldwide. The result of the data analysis, the means, is presented in table 2 and chart 2

Table 2. Students' Preference to Use a Certain Variety of English Worldwide

	BE	AE	SE	AusE	IE
Students' Preference to Use a Certain Variety of English Worldwide	2.5556	2.8704	1.9074	2.2407	2.8704

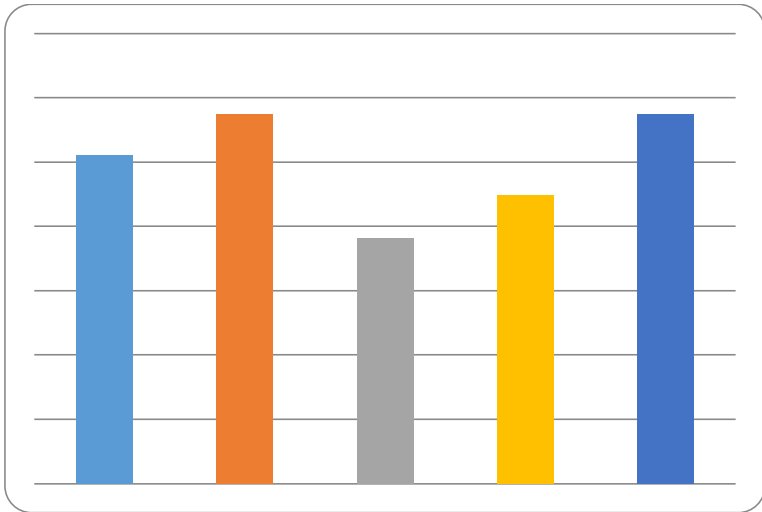


Figure 2. Students' Preference to Use a Certain Variety of English Worldwide

The table 2 and bar chart 2 above show students' preferences to use a certain variety of English worldwide. As can be seen, the mean for Singaporean English is only 1.9047. Thus, it can be concluded that this variety of English is the least preferable. Australian English (2.2407) is considered more preferable to be used worldwide. Meanwhile, British English, even though is used in many countries around the world does not occupy the highest position as its Mean score is only 2.5556. The highest rank goes to American and Indian English with both Mean scores fall about 2.8704

In general, the most preferable variety of English taught in English in The Global World class is American English followed by Indian English, British English, Australian English and Singaporean English consecutively. In terms of pronunciation, the students'

best preference falls on American English followed by British English in the second place. Interestingly, students prefer to be like native speakers of English rather than American English. The spelling of American English as well as the vocabulary also turn out to be the students' most preferable choice. Regarding usage, students on the average prefer to use American English and Indian English while British English comes third followed by Australian English and lastly Singaporean English. The average students agree that the five varieties of English taught in English in the Global World are what they need to learn about World Englishes.

Conclusion

With the wide varieties of English spread all over the world now, it is important to introduce our students not limited to the five varieties of English as taught in English in the Global World class. They even have to be exposed to other significant varieties of English. The advancement of technology especially electronic media can be utilized to obtain samples of communication in various kinds of English. Students should be encouraged to browse the internet for the purpose of finding them and if possible even to get engaged in real communication with the speakers of these varieties of English. It is also recommendable that further and deeper studies on the related field be conducted so that broader insights on varieties of English can be obtained.

References

- Brown, H. D. (2000). *Teaching by Principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy* (2nd ed.). New York: Pearson Education.
- Creswell, J. W. (2003). *Research Design: qualitative and quantitative approaches*. London: London Sage Publications, Inc.
- Crystal, D. (1997). *English as a Global Language*. Cambridge : Cambridge University Press
- Gardner, RC & Lambert, WE. (1972).. *Attitudes and Motivation in Second Language Learning*. Rowley: MA Newbury House
- Krech, R. (1992.) *Crutchfield and Egerton Ballachey, Individual in Society*. Mc Graw- Hill, New York
- Nunan, D. (1992). *Research Methods in Language Learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Nunan , D. (2003). *The Impact of English as a Global Language*. Cambridge : Cambridge University Press

An Analysis of the Faculty of Letters Students' Perceptions on the Use of English Language in Advertisements: A Case Study of *GoGirl* Magazine

**Written by
Irene Abigail
Budiyana**

Emilia Ninik Aydawati

**Reviewed by
Ekawati Marhaenny Dukut**

Abstract

Irene Abigail's thesis discusses about the use of foreign language in advertising. Being a student from the English Department of the Faculty of Letters, Soegijapranata Catholic University, she used six editions of *GoGirl* 2009 magazines to gather in total 94 advertisements as her primary data. As much as 44 advertisements were reported to have used a mixed language of Indonesian and

English. Another 47 advertisements used only English language and only 3 advertisements used Indonesian language only. The advertisements were distributed to 130 active students from her Department as respondents. Using Bovee and Arens theory on the function of advertisements to answer her three problem formulations: 1) What kinds of advertisement mostly printed in English language were found in *GoGirl* magazine?, 2) What parts of advertisement mostly printed in English language were found in *GoGirl* magazine?, and 3) What were the Faculty of Letters students' perceptions on the use of English language in advertisements found in *Gogirl* magazine? First, she found that 31 of her advertisements were mostly durable goods which included consumer advertisement and were considered as the kind of advertisement mostly printed in English language. Second, she found that there were 23 product names and 41 standing details (standing information) as the parts of advertisement which were mostly printed in English language. Lastly, she also found that through a questionnaire, 68% of her respondents agreed that the use of English language has made the advertisement interesting. She also found that 57% of her respondents perceived the use of English in advertisement to be the one most likely influencing customers to buy advertised products.

Keywords: advertisement, perception, English language, *GoGirl* magazine

INTRODUCTION

Irene Abigail was interested in studying advertisements because of Gernitsen et al's research in Europe, Belgium, France, Germany, the Netherlands, and Spain (2007) which found that two-thirds of 2.384 advertisements from *Elle* magazine in 2004 contain one or

more words in English. Gernitsen's findings were supported by Bhatia (1992) and Piller (2003) who reported that English language was frequently used in non-English speaking countries' magazine advertisements.

Out of the many magazines available for research such as *Cosmopolitan*, *Hig End*, and *Olga*, Abigail chose to use *GoGirl* because most of the text used in the advertisements were in English even though the magazine was originally published by the Indonesians in 2005. The magazine was quite popular when noting the fact that the original 20.000 copies quickly rose up to 30.000 copies (Abigail, 2010, p.3). This is interesting, considering that English is a foreign language in Indonesia. Abigail (2010, p. 4) had three research questions to answer:

1. What kinds of advertisements mostly printed in the English language are found in *GoGirl* magazine?
2. What parts of advertisement mostly printed in the English language are found in *GoGirl* magazine?
3. What are the Faculty of Letters students' perceptions on the use of English language in advertisements found in *GoGirl* magazine?

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The review of literature framed by Abigail (2010, p. 7-9) was based on the theories she learned from Discourse Analysis and Sociolinguistics discipline.

A. Discourse analysis

First of all, she cited Nunan (1993, p.7) who defined Discourse Analysis as the study to analyze the relationship between the language either in spoken or written and the contexts that are used. Carter et al (1997, p.165) was also cited because of their explanation that discourse analysis was used to involve the study

and analysis of the pattern of language that is used both in written and spoken texts. Thus, communicative oral language that ranged from a sermon, casual conversation, shopping transaction; or written language such as that found in a poem, a newspaper, advertisement, wall poster, shopping list, and a novel could be within the analysis of a discourse analyst. Especially in the case of conveying the messages of advertisements, an advertiser would try to analyze whatever is being spoken and written. Most of the time, the written text of advertisements tended to use complete sentences, whereas, in television advertisements or commercials, the spoken language used usually does not use complete sentences. According to Nunan (1993, p. 11), a basic sentence consists of a subject, verb, and complement. It is more formal than speaking. Yet, indirect interaction or spoken language, there is direct feedback in communication. This can be regarded as more advantageous than written language that has no direct feedback from the readers.

In dealing with advertisements, Abigail (2010, p. 9-12) cited Bittel, Burke, and LaForge (1984, p.149), who defined advertisement as a type of promotion that does not use personal contact. Abigail also cited Belch and Belch (2009, p.18) who added the information that the non-personal contact in advertisement meant that the advertising agency involved the mass media, such as newspapers and television to transmit a message to large groups of individuals, at the same time. Advertisement is the best-known and most widely discussed form of promotion because it presents informative and persuasive sales messages, that it became a very important promotional tool, particularly for companies whose products and services are targeted at mass consumer markets such as drug companies or automobile manufacturer.

Advertisements have a number of functions, they are: 1) to identify products and differentiate them from others, 2) to communicate information about the product; its features and its location of sale, 3) to induce the consumer to try new products and to suggest reuse, 4) to stimulate a products distribution, 5) to increase the product usage, and 6) to build brand preference and loyalty (Bovee and Arens, 1986, p. 89).

Based on Jenkins (1994, p. 39) information, an advertisement is generally divided into seven kinds:1) consumer, 2) business to business, 3) trade, 4) retail, 5) cooperative, 7) financial and recruitment advertisement. In promoting advertisements, Sobur (2003, p.116) states that there are two kinds of mass media used. First, is the printed ones such as found in newspapers, magazines, brochures, and billboards. The second kind is electronic ones, such as found in radios, televisions, films, and the internet. Out of all those mentioned media, Abigail (2010, p. 12-13) chose to use printed media because of the longer allocated time of reading the advertisements, so they are handier to use as research data as they are retained more easily than those commercials seen on television.

The type of printed media chosen for Abigails research is magazines. Abigail (2010, p. 19) cited Craviotto (2006, p. 2003) who regarded magazines as being the best-printed media that satisfied women because it offered many fashions and hairstyle products that entertained them. In analyzing the advertisements, Abigail gave attention to the written headline, body copy, slogan, standing details, picture, and product name (Gerntsen et al, 2007, p. 300) and also the subheads, captions, and logo used (Belch and Belch, 2009, p. 299).

GoGirl magazine is targeted for 15 to 23-year-old females, thus, the magazine becomes relevant to Abigail, who used some of her

classmates as respondents for her research. *Go Girl* is not a franchised magazine like the more worldwide *Cosmopolitan*. Although an Indonesian magazine, it often uses western artists and the English language to attract readers as consumers.

B. Sociolinguistics and perceptions

Abigail (2010, p. 21) believed that sociolinguistics discipline is relevant to discuss also in the review of literature, due to the relation it has for magazine advertisements that not only dealt with language but also with the society of the language used. Like most other people in the world that have the ability to use more than one language, Indonesians are also bilingual in order to be globalized people. Wardhaugh (1998, p. 84) says that people speak several languages: for the purposes of trade, and for communication with the outside world of wider social or political organization. Therefore, it is not unusual for Indonesians to often use code-switching, and therefore, gives reason also for why *GoGirl* magazines are prepared for globalized Indonesians.

As informed in the research questions above, Abigail is interested to find out the perceptions of the student respondents who agreed to analyze the advertisement she chose for her research. Relying on Belch and Belch (2009, p. 119), the finding out of how someone perceives something means finding out the personal beliefs, experiences, needs, moods, and expectations. Belch and Belch added that the perceptual process is also influenced by the characteristics of a stimulus, such as the size, color, intensity, and the context in which the advertisement has been seen or heard. Another theory is added by Blake and Sekuler (2006, p.515) which explains that perception is a condition where people give response to the objects that they see, hear, smell, and feel. Perceiving usually requires some action on the perceiver's part. When

touching an object, a perceiver is better able to identify it if the perceiver actively explores it by moving his/her fingers over it. Through this kind of sense, a perceiver is able to notice something and understand the true nature of something.

Citing Brentano (2003), Abigail (2010, p. 17) understands perception and language as two things that are closely related. And informs that human pivots around perception, both in waking states and in dream states. Thus, if people do not possess perceptual ability, then it is questionable whether language could ever have been invented. In fact, as stated by Belch and Belch (2009, p.139) perception is one of influences for a consumer's decision-making process. Realizing the important role of texts on printed advertisement and the effects that followed, herein, the student as respondents and readers of this research will be asked to share their perceptions as one of the findings for this research.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Abigail used a mixed-method for her research. The qualitative method was used to classify six editions of *GoGirl* advertisements based on the English language and parts of the advertisement used. The quantitative method was used to see the percentages that come out of Abigail's questionnaire.

Participants for the research were 130 out of 243 English Department, Faculty of Letters, Soegijapranata Catholic University students who were active during the time of research. The students were from academic years of 2005 to 2010. They were given a closed-ended type of questionnaires that used a five Likert scale as data.

After validating the questions used, the results of the questionnaire were analyzed using the SPSS system. The same SPSS was also used to analyze the advertisements used for the research.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

A. Advertisements printed in English language in *Gogirl* magazine

Using *GoGirl* magazines from 2009 editions of 48/ January up to 53/ June as data, Abigail (2010, p. 32) found that the 94 advertisements contain monolingual and bilingual advertisements. In more detail, the monolingual advertisements consisted of 47 (50%) of the advertisements that used English language only, and 3 (3%) of them used the Indonesian language only. Meanwhile, there are 44 (47%) of advertisements that were bilingual, because English and Indonesian words were used at the same time in the advertisements. This data proves that the magazine regards the English language as being the main attraction for its advertisement readers.

B. Kinds of advertisement mostly printed in the English language in *GoGirl* magazine

Using Jefkin's (1994) theory which classified advertisements into seven kinds, Abigail's research found that there were Consumer advertisement (CA) with 28% consumer goods (CG) and 39% durable goods (DG), 22% Business to business advertisement (BA), 0% Trade advertisement (TA), 0% Retail advertisement (RA), 11% Cooperative advertisement (CoA), 0% Financial advertisement (FA) and 0% Recruitment advertisement (ReA). The following table sums up the kinds of advertisements mostly printed in the English language:

Table 1:

No	Kinds of Ad '09 Editions	CA		BA	TA	RA	CoA	FA	ReA	T O T A L
		CG	DG							
1.	48 / January	4	6	3	-	-	1	-	-	
2.	49 / February	5	15	5	-	-	3	-	-	
3.	50 / March	9	6	4	-	-	3	-	-	
4.	51 / April	6	8	4	-	-	4	-	-	
5.	52 / May	6	5	8	-	-	3	-	-	
6.	53 / June	9	14	6	-	-	1	-	-	
SUBTOTAL	Number	39	54	30	-	-	15	-	-	138
	Percentage	28%	39%	22%	-	-	11%	-	-	100%

In the case of the most printed advertisements, Abigail (2010, p. 34) reported that there were durable goods advertisements, which consisted of *Surfer Girl* clothing brand, *Body & Soul* and *Ami-beauty* advertisements, and mobile phone brand advertisements. Next, the second most frequent were cosmetics and cologne advertisements. Then, the third most frequent were business to business advertisements, which informed about educational institutions' facilities found in *Laselle College International School*, *Jakarta International School*, *Universitas Paramadina*, and many more. Lastly, the least kind of printed advertisements found was about cooperative advertisements. Samples of these kinds of advertisements were advertisements from the *Java Jazz festival* and *ESMOD workshop* organizing committee. In her research, Abigail (2010, p. 36) also found a new kind of

advertisement classification, i.e. the entertainment advertisement, which not only gave information about the services of a business but also the frequency or the location of the radio station's details (see Table 2 below).

Table 2:

C. Parts of

No	Entertainment Advertisements Data
1.	99ers Radio
2.	RCT Fm
3.	101.1 Fm Istarsa Radio
4.	87.7 Fm Madama Radio
5.	106 Fm Kuta Radio
6.	106.1 Fm Geronimo Radio
7.	104.5 Fm Gemaya Radio
8.	104.6 Fm Star Fm Radio
9.	98.7 Fm Gen Radio

advertisement mostly printed in English language in GoGirl magazine

Based on Gerritsen et al's (2007, p.300) parts of advertisements, i.e. analyzing the headline (HI), subhead (Sh), body copy (BC), slogan (S), standing details (SD), picture (P), and product name (PN) as well as using Belch and Belch (2009, p.299) various components of advertisements, which consisted of the headlines, subheads, body copy, illustrations, captions, logos and the like, Abigail (2010, p. 37-43) found the following data.

First, in focusing on the product name, three kinds of classifications were found: 1) products with popular brand names: *Ion*, *Kotex* and *Pond's*, 2) products with name combinations/

compounding of two different names: *Sunsilk Conditioner* and *Garnier Light*, 3) compounding a brand name with another product description: *Ovale Facial Lotion* and *PPM School of Management*.

Second, in focusing on the slogan, there were 16 advertisements (18%) that contain English language usage. Examples were in the advertisements from Universitas Paramadina with its “Leadership Entrepreneurship Ethics”, and NOKIA with its “Connecting People”. In the example of Universitas Paramadina’s advertisement, which used the slogan, Abigail (2010, p. 40) interpreted the advertisement to really do tell about the university that concentrated on leadership, entrepreneurship, and ethics. She found that the university was described as one that does develop students to be successful entrepreneurship people that has good leadership, as well as having the ethics to become good human beings.

In focusing on the headline, Abigail (2010, p. 40-41) found 15 advertisements (17%) of them in English, that used headlines positioned at the top of the advertisements. Samples were seen in *Puteri - Flower Power!* and in Universitas Paramadina’s advertisement - *Meet Our Alumni*. This is in line with Belch and Belch (2009, p.300) who state that the headline will be read first or is positioned to draw the most attention.

In the *Puteri - Flower Power!* example, the word catches the attention of girls who are interested in cologne with several flowers fragrance. Moreover, still according to Belch and Belch (2009, p.300), the words can be categorized as indirect headlines since the words are not straight forward about identifying the product or service. However, the words are quite effective to attract readers' attention and interests because they provoke

curiosity and lure readers into the body copy to learn an answer or get an explanation.

The smallest parts of advertisements frequently printed are subheads and body copy. According to Belch and Belch (2009, p.301), the function of subheads on these advertisements are used to enhance the readability of the message by breaking up large amounts of body copy and highlighting key sales point. There are 13 advertisements each that uses subheads and body copy from the 44 advertisements analyzed. For instance, subhead is used in *The London School of Public Relations Jakarta*. It tries to emphasize the readers to continue their study in London School by stating: "Studying at LSPR. A journey towards your premium future career" (*GoGirl*, 51/ April 2009).

An example of the use of body copy is found in *Axioo* advertisement, published in *GoGirl*, 50/ March 2009 edition. According to Belch and Belch (2009, p.301) the main text portion of a printed advertisement is referred to as the body copy. In *Axioo* advertisement detailed features of the products, such as "integrated Wi-Fi. DVD dual, card reader support, and 1.3-megapixel cameras" are considered as the body copy.

D. The Faculty of Letters students' perceptions on the use of English language in *GoGirl* magazine advertisements

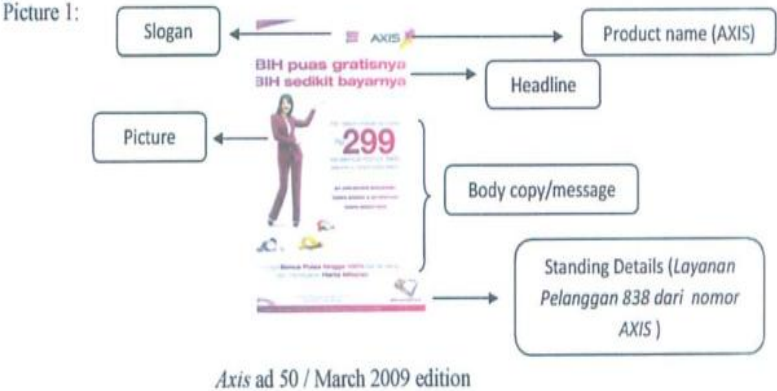
Perceptions of how Abigail's peers evaluate the advertisements used for her research was revealed through her questionnaire analysis result. Consisting of twelve statements, the questionnaire focused on the functions of advertisements. Before using the questionnaire as data for evaluation, Abigail was careful in having it piloted to 20 of her friends, so the validity of the questions has been checked with SPSS 13 like suggested by Ghazali (2006, p.45)

and Ardita (2010, p. 24). Abigail’s (2010, p. 46) questionnaire consists of three kinds of statement classifications (see Table 3 below):

Table 3:

Statement	Question Numbers
A. Students’ perceptions of <i>Axis</i> advertisement which is completely printed in Indonesian.	1,2,3,4,5,6, 7,8,9,10,11,12
B. Students’ perceptions of <i>Full Color</i> advertisement which is completely printed in English.	13,14,15,16,17,18, 19,20,21,22,23,24
C. Students’ perceptions of <i>Za</i> advertisement which is printed in English and Indonesian.	25,26,27,28,29,30, 31,32,33,34,35,36

Abigail’s (2010, p. av - bc) questionnaire are asking how strong her respondents agree or disagree with a 5 Likert-scale to the following picture, text, and statements:



1. *AXIS* advertisement which is completely in Indonesian language, and has the Body copy/ message: *Per nelpn maksimal cuma Rp 299 ke semua nomor AXIS sesukamu tanpa batas waktu. 24 jam sehari sesukamu tanpa syarat dan ketentuan. Tanpa registrasi,. Nikmati juga bonus pulsa hingga 100% tiap isi ulang dan menangkan harta miliaran*, in my opinion makes:
 - a. the advertisement becomes more interesting is given the response: 1.5% strongly agree, 43.8% agree, 47.7% neutral, 6.9% disagree, and 0% strongly disagree.
 - b. the advertisement is understandable is given the response: 8.5% strongly agree, 53.6% agree, 20.6% neutral, 14.6% disagree, and 2.3% strongly disagree.
 - c. the advertisement becomes easy to memorize is given the response: 5.4% strongly agree, 38.6% agree, 33.6% neutral, 16.5% disagree, and 3.6% strongly disagree.

2. The headline: *Lebih puas gratisnya, lebih sedikit bayarnya*, with the slogan: *GSM YANG BAIK* which is printed in Indonesian language, in my opinion makes:
 - a. the advertisement becomes more interesting is given the response: 10.8% strongly agree, 48.5% agree, 33.8% neutral, 6.2% disagree, and 0.8% strongly disagree.
 - b. the advertisement becomes more understandable is given the response: 1.5% strongly agree, 3.8% agree, 31.5% neutral, 3.8% disagree, and 1.5% strongly disagree.
 - c. the advertisement becomes easy to memorize is given the response: 1.5% strongly agree, 6.9% agree, 34.6% neutral, 43.1% disagree, and 13.8% strongly disagree.

3. The body copy which says: *Per nelson maksimal cuma Rp 299 ke semua nomor AXIS sesukamu tanpa batas waktu. 24 jam sehari sesukamu tanpa syarat dan ketentuan. Tanpa registrasi,. Nikmati juga bonus pulsa hingga 100% tiap isi ulang dan menangkan harta miliaran*, in my opinion makes:
 - a. the advertisement becomes more interesting is given the response: 6.9% strongly agree, 39.2% agree, 38.5% neutral, 13.8% disagree, and 1.5% strongly disagree.
 - b. the advertisement becomes more understandable is given the response: 8.5% strongly agree, 46.9% agree, 25.4% neutral, 16.5% disagree, and 0.6% strongly disagree.
 - c. the advertisement becomes easy to memorize is given the response: 7.7% strongly agree, 20% agree, 35.4% neutral, 33.1% disagree, and 3.8% strongly disagree.

4. In my opinion, according to the words and language used in Indonesian, in *AXIS* advertisement:
 - a. is able to deliver the product's message is responded
 - b. can create an image product
 - c. can induce the consumer to try/ buy the product somehow were not discussed by Abigail.

Picture 2:



5.

Full Color ad 49 / February 2009 edition

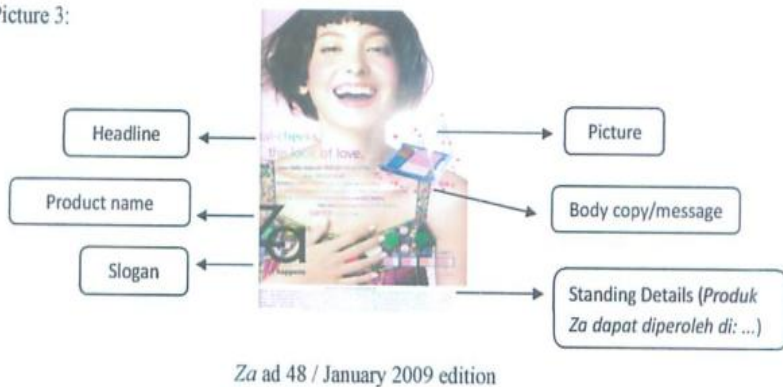
Full Color advertisement, which is completely printed in English, with the following body copy/ message: *party organizer sweet 17th birthday, prom night, birthday party, farewell party, reunion party, special events, etc.* Standing details: *Mal Taman Anggrek P2 no. 19 (Basement Are), Phone: Mobile: Add us on Friendster & facebook..*, in my opinion makes:

- a. the advertisement becomes more interesting is given the response: 16.2% strongly agree, 59.2% agree, 19.2% neutral, 4.6% disagree, and 0.8% strongly disagree.
 - b. the advertisement becomes more understandable is given the response: 3.8% strongly agree, 50.8% agree, 32.3% neutral, 11.5% disagree, and 1.5% strongly disagree.
 - c. the advertisement becomes easy to memorize is given the response: 6.9% strongly agree, 36.2% agree, 39.2% neutral, 17.7% disagree, and 1.5% strongly disagree.
6. The headline: *Celebrate your party with Full Color, Free Organizing Fee* and the slogan: *The party of your dream is just one step away*, which is printed in English, in my opinion makes:

- a. the advertisement becomes more interesting is given the response: 16.2% strongly agree, 61.5% agree, 16.9% neutral, 5.4% disagree, and 0% strongly disagree.
 - b. the advertisement becomes more understandable is given the response: 2.3% strongly agree, 44.6% agree, 39.2% neutral, 12.3% disagree, and 1.5% strongly disagree.
 - c. the advertisement becomes easy to memorize is given the response: 10% strongly agree, 36.9% agree, 42.3% neutral, 10.8% disagree, and 0% strongly disagree.
7. The body copy: *party organizer sweet 17th birthday, prom night, birthday party, farewell party, reunion party, special events, etc.*, which is printed in English, in my opinion, makes:
- a. the advertisement becomes more interesting is given the response: 6.9% strongly agree, 65.4% agree, 23.1% neutral, 4.6% disagree, and 0% strongly disagree.
 - b. the advertisement becomes more understandable is given the response: 5.4% strongly agree, 36.2% agree, 44.6% neutral, 12.3% disagree, and 1.5% strongly disagree.
 - c. the advertisement becomes easy to memorize is given the response: 3.8% strongly agree, 37.7% agree, 43.8% neutral, 13.8% disagree, and 0.8% strongly disagree.
8. In my opinion, according to the words and language used in Indonesian, in *Full Color* advertisement:
- a. is able to deliver the product's message is given the response: 15.4% strongly agree, 49.2% agree, 29.2% neutral, 4.6% disagree, and 1.5% strongly disagree.
 - b. can create an image product is given the response: 12.3% strongly agree, 53.1% agree, 27.7% neutral, 6.9% disagree, and 0% strongly disagree.

- c. can induce the consumer to try/ buy the product is given the response: 11.5% strongly agree, 39.2% agree, 40.8% neutral, 7.7% disagree, and 0.8% strongly disagree.

Picture 3:



9. **Za** advertisement which used mix languages of English and Indonesian, and with the body copy/ message: *Dalam satu sapuan kecantikanmu akan terpancar, sertakan selalu Za Blush dalam make-up kit kamu. Half matte powder dan lustrous pearl powder membuat hasil terlihat lebih hidup, dengan tampilan merona pada pipi kamu, dan akan membuat senyum kamu cantic terpancar*, in my opinion makes:
- a. the advertisement becomes more interesting is given the response: 13.8% strongly agree, 47.7% agree, 30.8% neutral, 6.9% disagree, and 0.8% strongly disagree.

- b. the advertisement becomes more understandable is given the response: 4.6% strongly agree, 43.8% agree, 33.1% neutral, 16.2% disagree, and 2.3% strongly disagree.
 - c. the advertisement becomes easy to memorize is given the response: 4.6% strongly agree, 38.5% agree, 40% neutral, 16.9% disagree, and 0% strongly disagree.
10. The headline: *Petal cheeks, the look of love* and slogan: *See what happens*, which is printed in English, in my opinion makes:
- a. the advertisement becomes more interesting is given the response: 11.5% strongly agree, 48.5% agree, 28.5% neutral, 9.2% disagree, and 2.3% strongly disagree.
 - b. the advertisement becomes more understandable is given the response: 7.7% strongly agree, 26.2% agree, 46.2% neutral, 18.5% disagree, and 1.5% strongly disagree.
 - c. the advertisement becomes easy to memorize is given the response: 8.5% strongly agree, 36.9% agree, 33.8% neutral, 20.8% disagree, and 0% strongly disagree.
11. The body copy: *Dalam satu sapuan kecantikanmu akan terpancar, sertakan selalu Za Blush dalam make-up kit kamu. Half matte powder dan lustrous pearl powder membuat hasil terlihat lebih hidup, dengan tampilan merona pada pipi kamu, dan akan membuat senyum kamu cantic terpancar*, which uses a mix of English and Indonesian language, in my opinion makes:
- a. the advertisement becomes more interesting is given the response: 9.2% strongly agree, 56.2% agree, 28.5% neutral, 6.2% disagree, and 0% strongly disagree.

- b. the advertisement becomes more understandable is given the response: 2.3% strongly agree, 41.5% agree, 40% neutral, 16.2% disagree, and 0% strongly disagree.
 - c. the advertisement becomes easy to memorize is given the response: 6.9% strongly agree, 36.2% agree, 35.4% neutral, 20.8% disagree, and 0.8% strongly disagree.
12. In my opinion, according to the words and language used in English and Indonesian, in *Za* advertisement:
- a. is able to deliver the product's message is given the response: 7.7% strongly agree, 59.2% agree, 23.1% neutral, 10% disagree, and 0% strongly disagree.
 - b. can create an image product is given the response: 4.6% strongly agree, 54.6% agree, 36.9% neutral, 3.8% disagree, and 0% strongly disagree.
 - c. can induce the consumer to try/ buy the product is given the response: 6.2% strongly agree, 56.9% agree, 28.5% neutral, 8.5% disagree, and 0% strongly disagree.

In summary, Abigail (2010: p.49) found the responses for the three kinds of advertisements as perceived by the respondents as follows (see Table 4).

Table 4:

No	Statement	Perception	<i>Axis</i> (Indonesian)	<i>Full Color</i> (English language)	<i>Za</i> (Mix languages)
1	Completely printed in one or two languages	More interesting	45.3%	75.4%	61.5%
		More understandable	62.3%	54.6%	48.4%
		Easy to memorize	43.9%	43.1%	43.1%
2	Headline and slogan printed in one or two languages	More interesting	59.3%	77.7%	60%
		More understandable	63.1%	46.9%	33.9%
		Easy to memorize	56.9%	46.9%	45.4%
3	Body copy printed in one or two languages	More interesting	46.1%	72.3%	65.4%
		More understandable	55.4%	41.6%	43.8%
		Easy to memorize	36.9%	41.5%	43.1%
4	Words and language used in an advertisement	Able to deliver the message well	73%	64.6%	66.9%
		Can create image product	70.7%	65.4%	59.2%
		Can induce the consumer to try or buy the product	48.4%	50.7%	63.1%

According to Abigail (2010, p. 49) the students' perceptions on the use of English language in advertisement are high. It is known from the percentage number especially on statements number 1 and 4. It is, therefore, reasonable to state that most students' agreed to the use of English language in advertisement in Indonesia since English makes the advertisement more interesting and could possibly attract customers to buy the products.

CONCLUSION

Based on the research result, Abigail (2010, p. 83-85) concluded that in general the advertisements in six editions of *GoGirl* magazine in 2009 starting from 48/ January until 53/ June are printed in English language and mixed languages (English and Indonesian). From the 94 advertisements that were used in the research, the advertisements were categorized into three types. The first category were 44 printed advertisements in mix languages (English and Indonesian). The second category were 47 printed advertisements that were only in English language. The last, were 3 printed advertisements, which were in Indonesian language only.

Because the focus of attention were only in those with English language, the third category were not used in the research. In analyzing the advertisements, Abigail (2010) found 31 of the advertisements were durable goods taken from consumer advertisements and considered as the kind of advertisement mostly printed in English language. With the 91 advertisements as data, it was also found that there were 23 of them with product names.

By distributing a questionnaire, which asked about how Indonesian respondents perceived the language used in *Axis* (Indonesian text), *Full Color* (English text), and *Za* (Mixed Indonesian and English text) advertisements, like summed up in Table 4, it was found that *Full Color* with all English text was considered the most interesting, *Axis* with all Indonesian text was the most understandable and easiest to memorize. Likewise, with regards to the headline and slogan used, *Full Color* was evaluated as the most interesting, *Axis* was the most understandable and easy to memorize.

In response to the body copy of the advertisements, *Full Color* was the most interesting, *Axis* was the most understandable, and *Za*

with mixed languages was the easiest to memorize. Meanwhile, in the words and language used, *Axis* was the one able to deliver the message well and can create an image product, and *Za* was the one that can induce consumers to try and buy the product.

Abigail's research showed an indication that the use of English language in advertisements is not related to how frequent the language is used in a given country. English in Indonesia is a foreign language, but it is popularly used in Indonesian magazine advertisements, such as *GoGirl*. The research was also believed by Abigail as proof English as a global language was often used for words or expressions that would most probably be difficult or clumsy to translate into the local language.

References

- Abigail, I. (2010). An analysis of the Faculty of Letters students' perceptions on the use of English language in advertisements: A case study of *GoGirl* magazine. Unpublished undergraduate thesis. Semarang: Soegijapranata Catholic University.
- Ardita S, V. (2010). The Perception of The Eighth Semester Students of English Department on Thesis Writing: A Study on English Departments in Semarang, Semarang: Unpublished.
- Arikunto, S. (2002). *Prosedur Penelitian: Suatu Pendekatan Praktek*, Jakarta: Renika Cipta.
- Belch, G. E., & Belch, M. A. (2009). *Advertising and Promotion: An Integrated Marketing Communications Perspective*, 8 ed., New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc.
- Blake, R. & Sekuler, R. (2006). *Perception*, 5th ed., Singapore: McGraw - Hill, Inc.

- Bovee, C. L., & Arens, W.F. (1986). *Contemporary Advertising* 2nd ed., Illinois: Irwin.
- Brown, G., & Yule, G. (1983). *Discourse Analysis*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Chen, C. W. Y. (2006). The mixing of English in magazine advertisements in Taiwan. *World Englishes*, 25 (3/4), 467-478, Oxford: Blackwell Publishing Ltd.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2007). *Research Methods in Education*, London and New York: Routledge.
- Creswell, J.W. (2003). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Method Approaches*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Gerritsen, M. et al. (2007). English in product advertisements in Belgium, France, Germany, the Netherlands and Spain. *World Englishes*, 26 (3), 291-315. Oxford: Blackwell Publishing Ltd.
- Jefkins, F. (1994). *Advertising*, 3rd ed. London: Pitman Publishing.
- Kotler, P. & Armstrong, G. (1994). *Principles of Marketing*, 6th ed. Northwestern University of Chicago: Prentice Hall, Inc.
- Nunan, D. (1993). *Introducing Discourse Analysis*. England: Penguin Books.
- Schiffman, H.R. (1990). *Sensation and Perception*, 3rd ed. USA: John Wiley and Sons, Inc.
- Sobur, A. (2003). *Semiotika Komunikasi*. Bandung: PT Remaja Rosdakarya.
- Spolsky, B. (1198). *Sociolinguistics*. Bristol: Oxford University Press.
- Wardaugh, R. (1998). *An Introduction to Sociolinguistics*, 3rd ed. Oxford: Blackwell Publishing Ltd.
- Weibacher, W. M. (1984). *Advertising*. New York: Macmillan Publishing Co.

A Review of Language, Discourse, and Class: What's Next?

By
Gerardus Adhyanggono

Christian W. Chun's "Language, discourse, and class: What's next for sociolinguistics?" in *Journal of Sociolinguistics* Vol. 23 (2019), pp.332–345, is a theoretical article interrogating a number of issues about the concepts of class, pertinent to language and discourse in the field of Sociolinguistics. Thus, a class is the central idea in this article. The issues mentioned previously include the notion of what defines class and class membership, the significant concept of over-determination in relation to class-characterizing performance, discursive self-positionings in various domains and scales, the re-examination of intersectionality construct, and class-related identity politics. With these main aspects, class, discourse, identity, identity politics and over-determination become the indispensable concepts to deal with.

As the background, the problem brought to light in the article is when class is understood as a social grouping, then sociolinguistic inquiries regarding the analysis of language use in a particular class always involve selecting individuals into mutually exclusive class categories. And this happens to be frustrating. Therefore, the philosophical paradigm of class in this article is defined not as a social [and categorical] grouping, but as "the social processes of

producing, appropriating and distributing surplus labor” (Gibson-Graham, Resnick & Wolf, 2001, as cited in Chun, 2019, p. 333). In other words, class needs to be viewed as “a social-relational process in performative motion dynamically shaped by situational contexts” (Chun, 2019, p. 333). This relational process relates to language-in-action. Therefore, language use in this concept of class does not normatively conform to that of the language used in the social category based-class.

The objective of the article is to explicate how this alternative class analytic paradigm can explore class process and performativity, which “emerges and circulates in local discourse contexts of interaction” (Buscholtz & Hall, 2005, as cited in Chun, 2019, p. 333). With this objective, the article argues that sociolinguistics now needs to have the proposed model of alternative class analysis on social process and performativity drawn from the interdisciplinary viewpoints of economics, sociology, anthropology, and cultural studies. The alternative approach can help sociolinguists to understand and engage with the contemporary problems of nationalist and demagogic discourses frequently manifested in violence toward the “Other”. This is due to the evidence that the static paradigms of intersectionality and identity politics are still insufficient in their analyses.

Chun divides the article into seven sections under the following sub-headings: introduction, over-determining class, the lived discursive domains of class, classed ways of speaking? class and identity politics, sociolinguists’ classed identities? and future directions. In the introductory section, the author comes with the background, problem, objective and argument of this article. The second section, over-determining class, the author explains what it means by class in this alternative paradigm within the context of

some scholarly debates on class across the disciplines of sociology, cultural studies, and economics. Here, the core concept of class offered and articulated in the article is that of anti-essentialist conception of class by making use of Marxist theoretical model of class (Harvey, 2010; Marx, 1976). The author asserts that “class is not a “thing” but only exists in performative processes in motion (Chun, 2019, p. 334). The notion of overdetermination, or what Chun prefers to call it ‘interanimating’, is also introduced in this section. It is a complex conception of causality in which relational and mutual ‘intereffectivity’ (affect and effect) among social-semiotic, cultural, political, and economic processes take place. With this ‘interanimating’ individuals are viewed as participatory agents in multiple class processes at a single moment and over time.

The third section features two participant interviews illustrating aspects of this alternative analysis. They are drawn from US contexts pertinent to the positionality of the author as a scholar and activist of class inequalities in US society. This section explains the interanimating processes that contribute to the class positionality of White working-class men in the US. The interview is concerned with the intertwining of the wages of Whiteness and race, making it the lived discursive domains of class. The sample participants are of the interview with a former cook of Boston and with a public school teacher in California. As to the fourth section, the focus is on ways of speaking that represent working class, for instance. Chun reiterates Marcyliena Morgan’s idea of the incongruity of speech community, linguistic system, and style of speaking. In her much-noted example of a French hip-hop artist talking to US one, Morgan (2004) asserts that they “present a speech community in which they share the style of speaking,

method of grammatical innovation, lexical creativity, and more – but not the same linguistic system” (p.6). Then, Chun (2019), in contrast, points out that “speech communities perceived as working class across the US might share the same linguistic system but not necessarily the same style of speaking” (p.339). This fourth section underscores the need for sociolinguists to move out of their ‘comfort zone’ by conducting more ethnographic sociolinguistic studies. This endeavor is designed to explore the methods of working-class people in diverse interanimating domains of gender, race, ethnicity, age and sexuality talk in the same or different manner.

The fifth section presents class and identity politics. This part deals with how specific culturally and socially constructed meaning-making processes can produce class together with experientially lived contexts. This suggests that the examination of the extent to which the interactional, interanimating, and mutually enabling dynamics of linguistic and discursive performativities to happen and develop. In the last analytical part of the article, Chun reminds us of the indispensable factor of a classed identity analysis, which is the analyst’s own classed identity and background. This is important as it provides reflexivity of the role of the researcher in the analytical process conducted. The consideration to include this aspect is also rendered by the fact that sociolinguists may offer analytical results of class definitions and categories within the scope of language use, but how they are experienced lively can be greatly different.

The article is overall quite solid theoretically. However, the conclusion the author has made in the form of “future direction” does not reflect this solidity. In the ‘conclusion’, Chun extends possible areas that sociolinguist may explore with regards to these

alternative paradigms of class analysis and classed identities/politics. This, for instance, is evident in: “Another aspect to explore would be the ways in which mobility (and the lack thereof) and particular located-ness index class in various racialized and ethnic domains” (Chun, 2019, p. 342) of the last two paragraphs (among others!). Even in the very last paragraph, I guess that the author does really re-emphasize the ‘usage’ of the alternative paradigm offered, that is to understand and engage with the contemporary problems of nationalist and demagogic discourses frequently manifested in violence toward the “Other”. Instead, the author further questions, “what are the ways in which we as sociolinguists should seek to investigate how to use heretofore discourse analytic approaches with the aim of developing and facilitating on-the-ground discursive frameworks and methods to cultivate and advance class-for-itself consciousness for progressive and indeed, revolutionary projects seeking social and economic justice for all working people?” (Chun, 2019, p. 342).

References

- Chun, C. W. (2019). Language, discourse, and class: What’s next for sociolinguistics? *Journal of Sociolinguistics*, 332–345. <https://doi.org/10.1111/josl.12359>
- Harvey, D. (2010). *A Companion to Marx’s Capital*. London; New York: Verso.
- Marx, K. (1976). *Capital: A Critique of Political Economy*. London: Penguin Books.
- Morgan, M. (2004). Speech Community. In A. Duranti (Ed.), *A Companion to Linguistic Anthropology* (p. 625). Oxford: Blackwell Publishing Ltd.

A List of Contributors

Gerardus M., Adhyanggono is a lecturer at the Faculty of Language and Arts, Soegijapranata Catholic University. His major work is around the area of Literature and film studies, two areas on which his research interest also lies. Special for this book, however, he successfully reviewed two state-of-the-art articles on Sociolinguistics.

Wuryani Hartanto is a lecturer at the Faculty of Language and Arts, Soegijapranata Catholic University. Her major work is around the area of Linguistics and the World Englishes, two major areas she has dedicated her time on teaching. In this book, she contributed her research on Students' Attitudes towards the Teaching of World Englishes.