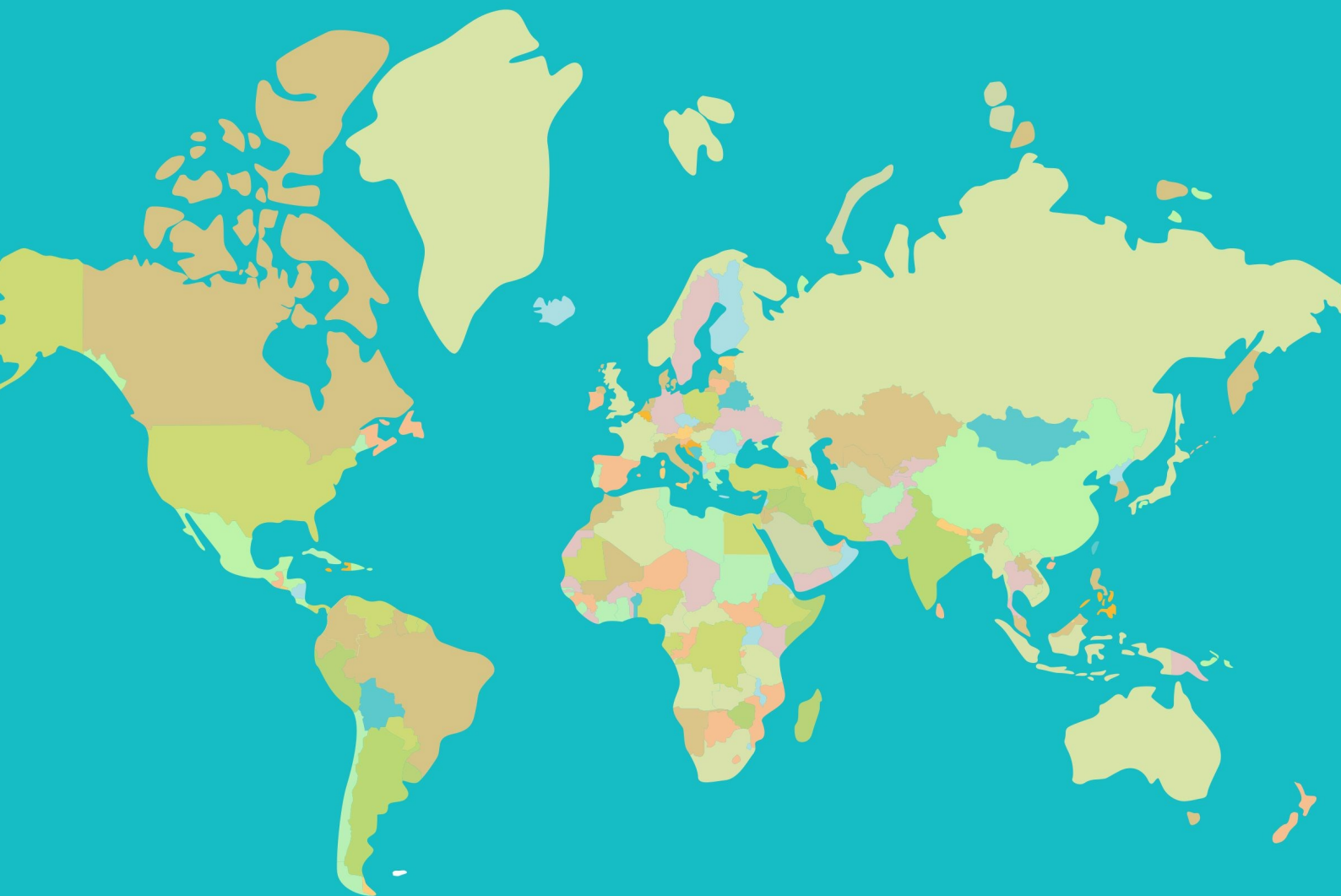


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UNDERSTANDING LANGUAGE REVITALIZATION STRATEGIES IN INDIGENOUS LANGUAGE SCHOOLS IN NORTHWEST AREA OF THE UNITED STATES

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Abstract

The expansion of globalization and the demand to establish one lingua franca for international communication has brought a significant impact on the decline of local languages around the globe. This issue calls for language revitalization programs so that all the Indigenous languages can be passed on to the younger generations. This small-sample-qualitative study describes the strategies used by Indigenous language schools in the Northwest area of the United States and further elaborates on the unique elements of those strategies. Five websites covering the information on Indigenous language school programs in Kalispell, Inghelium, Spokane, Browning, and Arlee were analyzed. In general, schools emphasize the relationality between elders, community, and educational institutions to preserve the language successfully. In addition, technology was utilized to help younger generations access materials more easily. This connection was built through creating listening materials by recording and transcribing the remaining fluent speakers, recording songs and lullabies, introducing Indigenous languages through storybooks, and launching mobile-friendly language apps.

Keywords: indigenous language, language loss, language revitalization

Introduction

The expansion of globalization and the demand to establish one lingua franca for international communication has brought a significant impact on the decline of local languages around the globe. Moseley (2010) believed that 2,473 of the Indigenous languages are currently facing a state of language endangerment. Harmon and Loh (2010) mentioned that 210 Indigenous languages are still spoken in the USA and Canada. However, only 34 of those languages were spoken by speakers across generations. If there is no sufficient effort to pass those languages to the younger generations, at least half of the world's languages may no longer exist or be recognized (Austin and Sallabank, 2011; Fishman, 1996; Krauss, 1992).

Despite the challenges, numerous efforts have been made to address this language loss issue in the past few years. The most common effort to undertake is establishing Indigenous language immersion programs and language schools for students across ages. For example, Begay (2013) documented that immersion language programs were initiated in the Ft. Defiance, Arizona, to facilitate

kindergarten and first-grade students seeking to learn the Navajo language. Further, she mentioned that a Hawaiian language immersion program, Ka Papahana Kaiapuni Hawai'i, also helps students in grades one through five learn the Indigenous language. Other programs to preserve languages have also been developed beyond the school-wide area, and many of them are started by and for the Indigenous community. In Indonesia, for example, the Indigenous language literacy training project was started by a village-based embroidery group attended by a group of mothers. Language learning, thus, is community-led and emphasize learning through mentoring and social networking (UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning, 2016)

The growth of the language revitalization programs sparked my interest in observing and understanding the strategies employed to preserve the Indigenous languages. As part of the community in Montana, I am interested in exploring the Indigenous language school programs in Montana in particular and in cities in the Northwest area of the United States in general. The research questions guiding this study are 1) How do Indigenous language schools in the Northwest area of the US foster language revitalization? What are some strategies implemented in the schools? And 2) What are the unique features and critical elements of Indigenous language schools that foster the language and cultural revitalization in the Northwest area of the US?

Literature Review

Beliefs in Language Learning and Use

The history of Indian boarding schools in the United States, which began in the 17th century, has brought detrimental effects on the existence of Indigenous languages (Galla, 2018). The quote: “kill the Indian, save the man” has caused generational trauma and discouraged people from passing the language to the younger generations. “Linguistic shame and guilt have also settled upon some youth, as well as on adults who often deny, hide, and suppress their Native identities, and are made to feel inferior because of their linguistic and cultural capital” (Galla, 2018, p. 3). They lost their rights to celebrate the uniqueness of their linguistic heritage and culture. In a world where English plays a prominent role as a lingua franca, the Indigenous people are forced to learn and speak English in the mainstream education system. No wonder there has been a rapid decline of Indigenous language speakers since then.

While bilingualism could be one of the ways to create harmony, wherein people could maintain the Indigenous language and at the same time learn English, many government policies do not support this possibility to happen. The enactment of Proposition 227 in 1998 in California, for example, is a manifestation of English domination. This proposition has sharply reduced the amount of time that students spend in a bilingual setting, favoring the ‘English first’ principle (Kamenetz, 2016). Moreover, numerous studies that have not been designed well exacerbated this issue. Contradictive findings between past and current studies have created what Kamenetz (2016) referred to as a culture war, separating scholars into two opposite beliefs: bilingualism creates confusion, vs. bilingualism gives lifetime benefits for cognition.

Studies in the first half of the twentieth century documented that monolingual children outperform bilingual ones cognitively. This finding perpetuates the belief

that bilingualism creates confusion for children, not to mention verbal development issues. Switching between two languages is considered overwhelming since the brain has its limitations. This belief has made schools and educators more convinced to focus students' attention on learning English. Fortunately, thorough reviews and meta-analysis studies revealed that studies in the first half of the twentieth century mostly involved participants from socially disadvantaged groups. Thus, the result revealed the association between socioeconomic status and cognitive performance instead of the correlation between bilingualism and cognition. More recent studies are designed more thoroughly and consider the effect of confounding variables. Therefore, participants from both the treatment and control groups have equal variability of socio-economic status and demography. Hence, more modern research proved that bilinguals outperform their monolingual peers in their cognition and encourages our society to introduce more than one language to students. The findings of those studies give some hope for the advancement of Indigenous language education and immersion programs at schools and eliminate the doubt to teach children more than one language since early stages.

Language Revitalization

Language is used by a linguistic community, a group of people who interact using a similar linguistic form & social norm that govern the system and forms (Gumperz, 1964). It is undeniable that the number of speakers in a linguistic community influences the persistence and existence of a language. Languages that do not survive revolutionary might experience an extinction or a language loss (Edward, 2012). When the speakers of a particular language keep declining and the efforts to revitalize the language are not made, there is a high probability that the language will not survive or be recognized by the younger generations. This issue calls for language revitalization.

Language revitalization is defined as “the development of programs that result in re-establishing a language which has ceased being the language of communication in the speech community and bringing it back into full use in all walks of life” (Hinton, 2001, p. 45). One of the targets of language revitalization programs is to increase the number of fluent speakers across generations. Numerous studies mentioned that in the past few years, even though fluent speakers have declined, the language revitalization programs have contributed to the significant increase of language learners. For example, in British Columbia, there are only 4,132 First Nations fluent speakers (3% of the population). However, through the language revitalization program, 13,997 language learners (10.2%) are expected to be fluent speakers (First People Cultural Council, 2018). More specifically, First People Cultural Council (2018) divided language users into four categories, which are fluent speakers, semi-speakers, silent speakers, and language learners. Semi speakers usually could understand and speak the language in daily life situations, even though they might experience some difficulties. On the other hand, Silent speakers could understand the language when they listen to it but have lower speaking skill mastery. It is expected that the revitalization programs could bring back the full use of Indigenous languages in the community by enhancing the language acquisition from learners to fluent speakers.

The establishment of “language nests, immersion schools, state and federal language policies, and committed family members and educators” (Galla, 2018, p.

4) in the past few years have promoted the use of Indigenous language in academic settings, workplace, and media. It is worth noting that the level of language vitality is determined by the number of speakers and the domain of language use. As proposed by First People Cultural Council (2018), it is essential to measure how much a language is used in determining its vitality.

Language Resources

First People Cultural Council (2018) defines language resources as “any kind of documentation, recordings, curriculum materials, computer-based resources, books and archives that are available in the language.” The aspect of relationality plays a pivotal role in maintaining and enhancing language resources. Positive collaboration between elders/culture bearers and educators, for example, is essential in establishing recordings and transcription of the Indigenous languages. Many stories and other cultural aspects are passed on across generations in verbal forms. Building a healthy relationship with elders and knowledge holders and incorporating their voices into learning resources would be the most appropriate strategies for providing authentic learning resources or materials.

Technology is often incorporated into the teaching and learning process in this digital era. Numerous Indigenous language schools have initiated efforts to archive language learning resources on websites or learning apps. Galla (2018) mentioned that the use of technology in Indigenous language revitalization could be a double-edged sword. The technology could support language revitalization and broaden the language domains if appropriately used. On the other hand, the misuse of technology could perpetuate colonization in Indigenous education. In his article, *Decolonizing Technology*, Meighan (2021) posits that the most fundamental issue that must be considered when incorporating technology in Indigenous Language revitalization programs is “identifying which or whose knowledge system is being enacted. Who created the website? What is its purpose? How is data being shared or stored online?” (p. 398).

Methods

A qualitative approach was implemented in the study to address the research problems. Creswell (2007) and Leedy and Ormrod (2005) explain that a qualitative approach was typically used to answer the questions about the nature of phenomena, with the purpose of describing and understanding the phenomena. The results yielded from a qualitative analysis are descriptive (Merriam, 2002; Miles & Huberman, 1994). Accordingly, this study aimed to describe the strategies used by Indigenous language schools in the Northwest area of the United States and further elaborate on the unique elements of those strategies. This study was carried out by analyzing the approaches and teaching materials descriptively in each language school.

In brief, the researcher selected several Indigenous language school websites that provide the information needed. A thorough analysis was conducted by selecting the classroom activities, materials, and curriculums listed on the websites to address the first and second research problems. There were five websites analyzed, which covered the area of Kalispell, Inchelium, Spokane, Browning, and Arlee.

Findings and Discussion

“There is no handbook on saving your tribal language, so you figure it out.” This fascinating quote was found in one of the Indigenous language immersion schools I analyzed. This quote manifests place-based education that highly values the relationality between learning and the land where the community lives. Place-based education is not rigid. It is flexible, and no one specific ‘prescription’ will fit into all tribal language revitalization efforts. Hence, this section will present numerous language resources and strategies used in five Indigenous language immersion schools in Western are of the United States.

The use of storybooks to teach language and culture

Human brains can remember stories and anecdotes better than mere lists of sentences or paragraphs that have no connection with them. Therefore, Indigenous people have long been using stories and humor to teach lessons, cultural and moral values, and many other cultural aspects within the respective community. To preserve this storytelling tradition, all language schools observed in this study implement storytelling as one of the strategies to teach Indigenous languages. The collection of the stories was archived on the websites to be accessible outside classroom settings. The stories on the websites were presented in different ways. For example, Spokane Tribe Language and Culture Immersion School website presented fifteen stories written in the Spokane language with its English translation. The unique feature of the storytelling section is that each story was equipped with a recording of the story in Spokane Language. In every corner of each paragraph, web visitors could find a play button that can be played whenever they are interested in listening to the recording of the stories. More interestingly, some illustrations, which seem to be hand drawings, were presented to help readers visualize the story's setting and characters.

Similarly, the Salish language immersion program website in Kalispel also presents fifteen stories in their Kalispel Story I curriculum. The stories presented on this website seem to be made for in-class activities. Several worksheets follow up each story to enable students to obtain hands-on practice. The stories were equipped with illustrations, vocabulary-building activities, a summary of language expressions, and numerous games such as crosswords and matching to review the words and expressions learned from the stories. The unique activity on this website is creating sequence pictures. Teachers or educators could download and cut the drawings and ask students to rearrange the stories following the chronological order of the story they read before doing the sequence pictures activity. Unlike the Spokane Tribe Language websites, the Kalispel Salish Language immersion website does not present the recording of the stories.

The two websites above enable visitors to access and download the stories. On the other hand, the other websites only presented the audio recording of the stories. Inchelium Language School, for example, does not list the stories for the language school but mentions the story gatherings activity under the “Language House” section. In brief, even though stories were presented in different ways, all those five language websites highly value storytelling as one of the teaching strategies in language revitalization programs. This fact aligns with Cain’s (2019) statement that most Native American communities have been utilizing storytelling to share their cultural wisdom and teach the younger generations how to navigate their paths.

The use of lullabies to preserve the language and create the school-family connection

Miyashita and Shoe (2009) argue that people tend to retain phrases more quickly when they memorize them with a melody. Similarly, as stated by Rainey and Larsen (2002), people who learn “a new list of words sung with melody experienced greater ease in relearning them after a week than people who learned it without music” (in Miyashita and Shoe, 2009, p. 184). The findings of those studies suggested that songs could facilitate word and phrase memorization and retention. The use of songs and lullabies will be engaging and meaningful for both students and families. Introducing songs and lullabies could be done both at school and at home, enhancing the possibility for a continuous learning process for young learners.

However, songs and lullabies in language learning could not be found in all five websites observed in this study. Only three (Piegan Institute, Spokane Tribe Language and Culture, and Kalispel Salish language immersions) out of the five websites employed songs and lullabies in their language learning resources. Piegan Institute is probably the only website that provides the lullabies initially from the Indigenous community of Blackfoot. The other two websites provide English songs such as Baa Baa Black Sheep, I’m A Little Tea Pot, Three blind Mice, etc. They are English songs that are sung in the Salish language. All songs are provided in the form of YouTube videos with some illustrations and transcription in the Salish language. From my observation, there were no worksheets or post activities presented on the websites.

On the other hand, Piegan Institute has started the project to archive the remaining Blackfoot lullabies. This project was conducted by Mizuki Miyashita, a linguistic professor at the University of Montana, and Shirlee Crow Shoe, an educator at Piegan Institute. This project was started in 2007 and was conducted by interviewing six elders from the Blackfoot community. They successfully documented five Blackfoot lullabies and expected these lullabies to be used as learning resources. The target of the learning materials is not limited to preschool and kindergarten students but also parents with infants. One of the unique features of the Blackfoot songs is that they mostly talk about animal characters such as coyotes, moose, elk, and crow (Miyashita & Shoe, 2009). Similar to stories, lullabies are used to build the connection between parents, especially mothers and children. Lullabies and songs also resemble a particular community's cultural beliefs and values. Thus, they can be utilized to transfer language and cultural perspectives. As Hawes (1974) asserts, understanding songs and lullabies could give listeners information about how Blackfoot speakers or parents educate children.

The recording of interviews with elders

One aspect that could support language revitalization's success is creating a connection between academic institutions and the elders or cultural bearers. One of the efforts that could be done is involving elders and knowledge holders in the curriculum making and learning resources establishment. Additionally, as mentioned earlier, the decline of fluent speakers calls for the urgency of language

preservation through interviews with fluent speakers in the hope that they can be the model for language learners.

Language learning always requires inputs in the form of both listening and reading. The proponents of the audiolingual learning method believe that adults learn naturally when they listen and receive input, similar to babies. They would then undergo a decoding process and produce speech upon receiving inputs. Audio or video recordings of an interview with elders will be valuable input. Those recordings are authentic materials that can be an accurate model of speech. In addition to the linguistic benefits, interviewing elders would help learners attain cultural knowledge from the experts.

Out of the five language immersion websites observed in the study, only one immersion school records the interview with the fluent speakers. Inchelium Language and Culture immersion school started the interview project in 2018 and ended it in 2020. The school received the grant to conduct an interview with fluent speakers and transcribe the interview result in Okanagan Salish Language. More than 100 recordings were documented. All of them were divided into three different terms. The immersion students conducted some interviews in the fall and some in the summer. These interview recordings range from a simple short interviews conducted by students at Incheilium Tribal Childcare to the complex ones conducted by adult learners at Incheilium Language House. Students were asked to prepare and pre-write questions before the immersion interview sessions. The interviews' topics ranged from personal issues, such as families, work, etc., to complex ones, such as historical and cultural values. The website mentions that due to the few remaining speakers of fluent speakers in the south end of our territory, they "have been recording speakers from the northern end of our territories, up into the southern interior region of British Columbia, Canada." (Incheilium Language and Culture Association, n.d.)

The last sections of interviews were conducted by Hellen Toulou, a member of the Colville Confederated Tribes Arrow Lakes Band. Hellen conducted the interviews with Dr. Mattina, a linguist of the Okanagan language, from 1968 to 1970. This interview yielded recordings about local historical values. This three-year interview program resulted in nineteen recordings in total.

The use of technology

Technology is another facilitative tool that can support the language revitalization effort. Some examples of technology use are the establishment of online dictionaries. Two (Spokane Tribe Language and Culture and The Piegan Institute) out of five websites provide online dictionaries. Web visitors could quickly go to the "resources" section and click the online dictionary to access this facility.

Another example of incorporating technology in the immersion program is the online tutoring program provided by the Kalispel Salish language immersion website. The tutoring program is conducted via Adobe Shockwave Plugin and requires the Windows Media Xtra. The Kalispel Salish program is the most advanced compared to the other immersion programs in terms of technology. In addition to online tutoring software, this school offers Salish Font and Keyboard compatible with both Windows and Macintosh. This school also creates a mobile-

friendly Kalispel Language App that can be downloaded through Apple App Store and Google Play.

Conclusion

The rapid decline of Indigenous languages around the globe calls for the urgency of language revitalization programs. Numerous community-led programs have been started informally among the Indigenous people. Numerous immersion schools have also been established to save and preserve those endangered languages. Five websites covering the information on Indigenous language school programs in Kalispell, Inchelium, Spokane, Browning, and Arlee were analyzed in this study. It is expected that this study could provide an overview of numerous possible strategies that can be implemented to enhance language education in academic and non-academic settings (e.g., in families, community, etc.)

In general, this study found that schools emphasize the relationality between elders, Indigenous knowledge holders, and educational institutions to preserve the language successfully. The tentative conclusion from this small sample is that the Indigenous language immersion programs promote language through storytelling, songs and lullabies, interview recordings with elders and fluent speakers, and technological tools. Among all strategies, storytelling is the only activity offered in all of the website samples observed in this study. Future studies could explore more detailed strategies used in other areas of the United States. Additionally, it is worth noting that numerous websites might also provide home-based Indigenous language learning strategies. Future studies in this field could yield beneficial and practical strategies for learning activities outside the school setting.

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THE IMPORTANT ROLE OF METACOGNITIVE STRATEGIES IN INDONESIAN EFL READING LEARNING CONTEXTS

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Abstract

It is decent to be purported here that the continual and precise internalization of metacognitive strategies in Indonesian EFL reading contexts will bring about positive influential impacts for L2 readers' cognitive and affective reading development. Highly metacognitive L2 readers generally experience more stress-free and meaningful reading learning enterprises since they have become more critical, self-regulated, independent, and adaptable readers who are resistant to exacting reading learning challenges. This present qualitative study employed a document analysis approach to strongly encourage Indonesian EFL educationalists to steadily implement metacognitive strategies in their multivariate reading classroom vicinities. The obtained results uncovered that metacognitive reading strategies progressively transfigured Indonesian EFL learners into more self-regulated and autonomous L2 readers longing to inherent life-long second language learning spirit on their daily basis as academicians.

Keywords: EFL speaking, narrative inquiry, self-efficacy

Introduction

It is fairly repudiated here that introducing Indonesian EFL learners to a wide variety of second language texts is one of the exacting target language teaching-learning enterprises which must be undergone by both educationalists and learners. Crucially, learners are commissioned to infuse more robust construction of second language reading proficiency to enable them to compete globally with worldwide citizens. Nazurty et al., (2019) postulate that it becomes a paramount matter for Indonesian EFL learners to possess laudable L2 reading skills to be more qualified future professionals in their working fields. In EFL learning contexts, reading can be deemed as one of the pivotal 21st-century learning competencies that should be mastered fully by learners to transfigure them into more proficient second language academicians. This conception is in agreement with the theory of second language reading skills devised by Floris and Divina (2015) asserting that by possessing a higher level of L2 reading competencies, Indonesian EFL learners will simultaneously improve their overall target language proficiency. Similarly, Kementerian Pendidikan Dan Kebudayaan (2016) declares that the second language learning resilience will be

dramatically increased when learners are constantly exposed to a vast range of L2 texts since they have been more accustomed to facing a plethora of laborious reading learning obstructions when interacting with their targeted texts.

On the contrary, it is easier to unearth that the majority of Indonesian EFL learners are struggling vigorously while reading a considerable genre of second language reading texts. This fact is in harmony with the prior L2 reading research evidence showcased by Ahmadi et al., (2013) repudiating that the laborious, unpleasant, and frustrating L2 reading learning dynamics frequently experienced by EFL learners even though they have been continually exposed to insistent classroom reading practices. One of the serious reading learning obstacles hindering learners to construct such a profound and critical understanding of their texts is the dearth of reading comprehension. It has been a consensus that reading comprehension is one of the paramount elements that should be inculcated by learners whenever they encounter a substantiate number of L2 texts to obtain the major big takeaway and deepen their specific understanding of the subject-specific matters in a meaningful manner. This line of perspective is in concord with the theory of reading comprehension adduced by Sari (2016) averring that through the robust establishment of reading comprehension, EFL learners will be eased in comprehending the main ideas forming in their texts as well as expanding their existing knowledge toward the specific matters being elaborated in those written texts.

On top of that, there were a wide array of second language reading learning hindrances frequently hampering Indonesian EFL learners from constructing such a critical understanding of their texts such as lack of vocabulary knowledge, reading motivation, reading objectivities, reading strategies, and active interactions with their passages. These aforementioned L2 reading learning issues are in tandem with the major findings of prior reading study plied by Mbato (2019) revealing that language teachers need to promote more enjoyable, interactive, and proactive L2 reading learning environments where all learners can potentially cultivate their high reading awareness along with critical thinking skills.

Another gigantic L2 reading learning issue educationalists should notice is the cultivation of reading anxiety generally occurred among learners. By possessing a higher degree of reading anxiety, learners are more liable to show avoidance reading behavior, slacken their reading learning efforts, construct a low level of reading volition, and withdraw themselves from the ongoing reading learning activities. These major reading hurdles are closely interlinked with the findings of a reading anxiety study conducted by Limeranto and Subekti (2021) accentuating that the excessive growth of L2 reading anxiety should be diminished by constructing more enjoyable, contextual, and interesting reading learning dynamics elevating learners' second language reading independence and proactive reading participations. Another efficient L2 reading strategy was also proffered by Lestariningsih (2016) investigating the significance of background knowledge in facilitating Indonesian EFL learners' reading comprehension development. From the obtained results, the majority of participants had been capable of deepening their current understanding of the specific topics being elucidated in their reading texts due to the constructive and contextual L2 reading strategies consistently incorporated by their teachers.

Apart from the utilities of those above-explained L2 reading learning strategies, one of the major important efficient strategies worthwhile to be internalized in globalized and Indonesian EFL reading learning contexts is metacognitive strategies.

Through the appropriate implementations of metacognitive strategies in L2 reading learning enterprises, Indonesian EFL learners will transfigure into more self-regulated, better reading learning controllers, efficient problem-solvers, and judicious decision-makers in the light of careful planning, monitoring, and evaluating strategies. Ahmadi et al., (2013) as well as Zhang and Seepho (2013) arguing that highly-metacognitive L2 readers will be more capable of exerting greater controls over their ongoing reading learning dynamics with the support of metacognitive strategies comprising of planning, monitoring, and evaluating stages deemed as higher-order consecutive learning controlling skills enabling those readers to be more self-regulated academicians, effective problem-solvers, and prudent decision-makers.

In line with EFL learners' reading comprehension growth as well as the nature of Indonesian EFL learning settings, the successful inculcation of metacognitive reading strategies also allows learners to gain a better understanding of their specific texts, utilize a special set of reading strategies appropriate to their reading learning contexts, monitor their current comprehension toward the topics being expounded in their texts, and better reflect whether they have attained the major ideas taken from the texts successfully or not. All of these above-mentioned L2 reading learning benefits were attested by prior metacognitive research findings unfolded by Forrest-Pressley and Waller (2013) explicating that EFL learners will be able to gain more in-depth understanding and insert more applicable reading strategies through the broader expansion of metacognitive reading strategies. In a similar vein, Muhid et al., (2020) also underscore the critical importance of metacognitive reading strategies in terms of efficient reading time management, the proliferation of higher-order thinking skills, the sustainability of reading learning volitions instilled by learners, and the prolific productivity in accomplishing a considerable number of reading learning tasks.

Furthermore, it is vitally essential to be stated here that the successful internalization of metacognitive strategies in multiverse L2 reading learning settings is also influenced by the existing reading strategies incorporated by EFL teachers. Educators must enact their second language reading learning activities in a constructive, systematic, and contextual fashion where all learners are capable of honing their metacognitive strategies; planning, monitoring, and evaluating strategies as well as metacognitive knowledge; declarative, conditional, and procedural knowledge. By forging all of these metacognitive elements, learners will fully activate their metacognitive way of thinking whenever they confront laborious reading learning dynamics since they have been well-trained in harnessing metacognitive strategies leading them to be more strategic L2 readers. This strand of arguments is bolstered by Ahmadi et al., (2013) emphasizing that highly-metacognitive L2 learners successfully breed from the well-planned metacognitive reading strategies transforming them into more critical and skillful L2 readers.

The significant cultivation of metacognitive reading strategies also enables L2 readers to confidently and efficiently cope with a wider range of reading learning challenges potentially hindering their reading skills, motivation, and comprehension further development. This may be due to the higher degree of reading learning awareness, precise reading strategy implementations, and conscientious monitoring as well as evaluating reading strategies internalized amid arduous reading learning processes. Mbato (2019) argues that the accurate incorporation of metacognitive reading strategies will rejuvenate the overarching learners' reading learning dynamics as they undergo more meaningful reading learning enterprises through the activation

of accurate reading strategies, robust reading awareness, and profound reading learning evaluations. Similarly, there is also a mutual interplay among L2 reading comprehension levels, motivation, and metacognitive strategies since highly-metacognitive L2 Readers are found they continuously harness a complete set of metacognitive strategies; planning, monitoring, and evaluating whenever they are approaching varied reading texts compared to those possessing low metacognitive awareness who merely cast their profound attention in comprehending the given texts superficially without exactly knowing the appropriate conditions, situations, and contexts in which the metacognitive reading strategies are worthwhile to be applied. This contention seems to concur with the theory of metacognitive reading strategies propounded by Naeini (2015) exclaiming that the huge gap taking place between proficient and developing EFL readers is caused by the metacognitive strategies efficient implementations in their specific reading contexts in which highly-metacognitive L2 readers consistently apply a vast range of metacognitive reading strategies rather than other low metacognitive L2 readers merely read their texts directly without even knowing the specific approaches or knowledge concerning the metacognitive reading strategies further implementations. In line with the above-explained exhaustive delineations regarding the paramount role of metacognitive strategies in Indonesia EFL reading learning contexts, this present study was guided by the following research problems proposed in these lines.

1. What is the significance of metacognitive strategies in Indonesian EFL reading learning contexts?
2. Why do educationalists expand the further utilization of metacognitive strategies in Indonesia EFL reading learning contexts?

The Seminal Theory of Metacognition

Historically speaking, the emergence of metacognition theory was affected by the educational breakthrough for designing more holistic, effective, and meaningful learning dynamics for school pupils in 1979's. Flavell (1979) repudiated that more contextual teaching-learning processes engaging learners in such a deep thinking process are indispensably required to breed more critical future academicians. To a lesser extent, it was also discovered that there was a huge difference between proficient and developing learners while accomplishing particular learning tasks. The proficient learners tend to finish their learning tasks with gratifying results compared to other learning companions since they incorporated the frequent use of metacognitive strategies. Riyadi et al., (2017) uncovered that the majority of EFL learners employed the active use of metacognitive strategies prone to transfigure into more successful academic achievers compared to those implemented less metacognitive strategies in their learning venture. According to Flavell (1979), highly-metacognitive learners will also be better in planning, monitoring, and evaluating their ongoing learning processes since they have stipulated their predetermined learning objectives through the persevere learning actions to release those learning outcomes in future events. Differing from Flavell's (1979) seminal theory of metacognition, Reeve and Brown (1985) compartmentalized metacognition into two specific components namely metacognitive knowledge and cognitive goals.

In metacognitive knowledge, learners will transfigure into better controllers over their learning venture through the activation of triadic metacognitive knowledge components namely declarative, procedural, and conditional knowledge requiring

them to infuse more balanced stability between the existent beliefs in their learning capabilities and tasks to better cope with plenty of learning challenges. While in the cognitive goals, learners are commissioned to regulate their ongoing learning enterprises through the deployment of efficient learning strategies and problem-solving skills.

In reverse, the term metacognition is still murky for globalized educationalists, practitioners, researchers, and policy-makers in today's teaching-learning contexts due to the intricate complexities of this term, relationships with other learning terms such as constructivism, self-regulation, self-efficacy, and volition. Zohar and David (2009) confess that the conflictual and controversial specific metacognition terms had prompted globalized educational researchers to conduct more in-depth investigations on sub-components of the metacognitive learning approach in conformance with their relevant 21st-century teaching-learning scientific terms namely self-efficacy, self-regulation, volition, and social constructivism. In correlation with this fuzziness, Veenman et al., (2006) also advocated worldwide educational researchers to enact such a more clear-cut boundary between the terms metacognition and self-regulation since metacognition is defined as the controllability of cognitive processing to better manage the ongoing learning dynamics to reach the specific pre-determined learning objectives. While self-regulation is an ever-changing psychological learning attitude wherein learners made a vigorous learning attempt to stay focus on their learning trajectories by controlling their existing learning behaviors, attitudes, and actions to achieve the desired learning outcomes.

The Influential Benefits of Metacognitive Reading Strategies

Through the full and precise utilization of metacognitive reading strategies, Indonesian EFL learners will potentially transfigure into more competent, strategic, and critical L2 readers, at the same time possessing the robust enhancement of higher-order thinking skills. These advantageous L2 reading values are inextricably associated with the major positive influences promoted by metacognitive reading strategies acknowledged by Yulita (2017) affirming that second language teachers applying metacognitive reading strategies in accord with their learners' reading learning needs, preferences, styles, and proficiency will successfully produce more competent L2 readers inculcating the potent establishment of higher-order thinking skills since they have been well-trained regarding how to be more strategic and effective readers while reading a plethora of diverse texts. To embody these fruitful L2 reading learning benefits, Indonesian EFL teachers are advised to revisit their implemented reading learning strategies in diverse wide-ranging classroom settings by incorporating more contextual, applicable, and appropriate reading learning activities in which learners' metacognitive reading strategies can be fostered sustainably. This indispensable reading learning need can be juxtaposed with the theory of metacognitive reading classroom design postulated by Pammu et al., (2014) believing that the precise and interactive second language reading learning dynamics will eventually allow EFL learners to develop their higher-order thinking along with metacognitive reading skills fully.

In a similar trajectory, the crystallization of self-regulated learning behavior, as well as learning autonomy, can also be ascertained through the continual internalization of metacognitive reading strategies since learners will be more capable of directing their intended positive learning behaviors, attitudes, and motivation in

such a well-planned manner to achieve their desired learning outcomes stipulated at the onset of learning dynamics. Ahmadi et al., (2013) contend that the prolific cultivation of metacognitive reading strategies will potentially enable EFL learners to be more self-reliant and self-regulated L2 readers since they sustainably exhibit their persistent reading learning behavior amid taxing hindrances impairing their main focus in following the ongoing reading learning dynamics.

Some pioneer studies on metacognitive reading strategies also scientifically proved that metacognitive strategies successfully transformed EFL learners into more self-regulated and independent L2 readers. The first study was conducted by Nash-ditzel (2010) unfolding that the continual and accurate utilization of metacognitive reading strategies progressively promoted striking springboards for EFL learners' reading learning attitudes, behavior, and perspectives by becoming more motivated to read a wide range of L2 reading texts continually outside of the classroom circumstances. In another identical study, Zhussupova and Kazbekova (2016) prompted second language educators to sustainably implement metacognitive reading strategies in their diverse wide-ranging L2 classroom modes to get their learners to be more familiar with a considerable amount of effective reading strategies and transfigure into more critical thinkers while interacting with a substantiate amount of text genres. Anchored on all of these above-mentioned findings, Mehrdad et al., (2012) also advocated globalized EFL teachers to capitalize metacognitive reading strategies at the outset of L2 reading learning enterprises to successfully bring about a higher degree of reading learning contentment for learners wherein they can channel their reading learning endeavor to comprehend their targeted texts in such a better purpose resulted at the significant enhancement of reading comprehension elevation.

Method

This present qualitative study was plied in the support of a document analysis approach to generate some renewable, rewarding, and meaningful insights out of the specific paramount phenomenon being discussed by the prior studies. In concord with this research objectivity, the researcher had conscientiously selected the 30 relevant prior studies investigating more exhaustively the positive influences promoted by metacognitive strategies in Indonesian EFL reading contexts. Further, the major big take-away specifically derived from these 30 metacognitive studies assented the paramount need for Indonesian EFL educationalists to introduce more contextual, feasible, and comprehensible metacognitive strategies at the commencement of L2 reading learning activities to breed more critical, self-regulated, resilient, and proficient future EFL readers.

During the data analysis processes, the researcher compartmentalized each specific research finding into some specific major themes and potently supported by the arguments and previous relevant findings generated from the identical studies to encourage all Indonesian EFL educational experts, practitioners, researchers, policy-makers, and teachers to appropriately design more suitable intensive metacognitive training daily-classroom programs aiming to forge learners' cognitive, affective, and higher-order thinking skills simultaneously. The three specific major themes can be discerned in these following blank spaces namely: (1) Metacognitive strategies progressively elevate L2 readers' reading proficiency, (2) The robust establishment of metacognitive strategies bring L2 readers to reap more fruitful reading learning

outcomes, and (3) The promotion of intensive metacognitive reading learning activities to breed more strategic as well as critical L2 readers.

Findings and Discussion

This subsection attempted to expound all of the major-specific findings generated by previous studies of metacognitive reading strategies implemented in Indonesian EFL reading learning contexts. As noted in the previous subchapter, all of the categorized findings will be delineated in the support of specific major themes, and the further explications of those results are expectantly hoped to encourage Indonesian EFL experts, practitioners, policy-makers, and educators to work hand-in-hand to design more meaningful, contextual, and applicable metacognitive reading learning enterprises in the future L2 reading learning encounters.

Table 1. Metacognitive Strategies Elevate L2 Reading Proficiency

Theme 1	Authors
Metacognitive Strategies Progressively Elevate L2 Readers' Reading Proficiency	Pammu, Amir, and Maasum (2014); Setiyadi et al., (2016); Sari (2016); Mudra (2018); Hamiddin and Saukah (2020); Muhid et al., (2020).

From the table presented above, it can be parsed that the appropriate utilization of metacognitive strategies will gradually improve L2 readers' reading proficiency. The emergence of this first positive reading learning influence is affected by the dynamic nature of metacognitive strategies commissioning L2 readers to be more fluent decision-makers, judicious problem-solvers, and critical thinkers while confronting a wide array of exacting reading challenges. At the core, highly-metacognitive L2 readers are the figures continuously implementing metacognitive strategies in their reading learning enterprises resulted in the full attainment of target language learning competencies. As alluded to in the prior subsection, readers' capabilities of harnessing metacognitive reading strategies precisely will lead them to be more proficient second language academicians since they have successfully incorporated the crucial streams of effective reading strategies such as scanning, skimming, synthesizing main ideas, summarizing, and paraphrasing. To keep in mind, this set of pivotal reading strategies is not inborn, yet they should be honed continuously to breed more high-quality L2 readers exhaustively mastering targeted discipline-specific fields. Aligned with the above-mentioned advantageous values promoted by metacognitive reading strategies, Pammu, Amir, and Maasum (2014) discovered that the efficient incorporation of metacognitive strategies enabled Indonesian EFL readers to overcome the upcoming L2 reading learning hurdles more effectively, which in turn transform them into more strategic readers. Akin with this major finding, Setiyadi (2016) also unveiled that highly-metacognitive L2 readers can also transfigure into more successful academicians due to the careful planning, monitoring, and evaluating stages they consistently applied in their reading learning enterprises. All of these specific findings are also inextricably associated with the positive influential impacts promoted by metacognitive reading strategies as unfolded by Sari (2016) propounding that the suitable implementations of metacognitive reading strategies will also allow learners to foster their higher-order thinking skills into the utmost levels through the efficient L2 reading strategies, critical understanding

of the topics being discussed in the reading passages, and a higher degree of reading learning awareness.

In addition to the above-explained striking positive impacts brought about by metacognitive reading strategies, it is also worthwhile to be underscored here that metacognitive reading strategies can potentially rejuvenate the overarching L2 readers' affective states about reading learning trajectories. Put more simply, L2 readers infusing a higher level of metacognitive reading strategies will have more tendency to explore a vast array of challenging texts to foster their metacognitive knowledge; declarative, procedural, and conditional knowledge as well as a complete set of three major streams of metacognitive strategies; planning, monitoring, and evaluating. Through this proactive L2 reading learning action, these readers will transfigure into more life-long academicians inculcating a higher degree of reading learning persistence and motivation. This line of arguments is in conformance with the major metacognitive reading strategies finding unearthed by Hamiddin and Saukah (2020) avowing that the actual presence of proficient, critical, and long-life L2 readers can be ascertained through the intensive utilization of metacognitive reading strategies requiring them to forge their metacognitive knowledge along with strategies, which at the same time inculcating a higher degree of reading perseverance along with volition within readers. In the same way, Mudra (2018) also propounded that highly-metacognitive L2 readers will also be more resilient academicians consistently made vigorous attempts to implement a considerable number of appropriate reading strategies to resolve the existing reading learning issues hampering the conduciveness of their reading processes, comprehend the major ideas forming in their texts with more sophisticated reading strategies, and be capable of simplifying particular intricate ideas in their texts. Through all of these positive L2 reading learning springboards, it can be argued that Indonesian EFL learners will become more critical, strategic, and skillful L2 readers.

Table 2. The Robust Establishment of Metacognitive Strategies Bring L2 Readers to Reap More Fruitful Reading Learning Outcomes

Theme 2	Authors
The Robust Establishment of Metacognitive Strategies Bring L2 Readers to Reap More Fruitful Reading Learning Outcomes	Annury et al., (2019); Sunggingwati and Rusmawaty (2017); Alsofyani (2019); Bria and Mbato (2019); Rahman (2020); Riyadi et al., 2017); Fauzi and Ashadi (2019); Fani, Andriani, and Husna (2017); Wahyudi (2020).

As evidenced by the data inserted in table 2, it can be conjectured that the potent construction of metacognitive strategies will potentially enable L2 readers to achieve more gratifying reading learning outcomes. These gratifying reading learning outcomes are subsumed into two categories namely cognitive and affective streams. In a cognitive stream, highly-metacognitive L2 readers will be more adaptable to their current reading learning situations by stipulating the most appropriate reading learning strategies that suit their ongoing reading learning contexts. It can also be stated that these types of readers are more liable to survive and thrive in various arduous reading learning conditions since they are capable of adjusting their current reading strategies with other probable strategies beneficial to assist them to obtain more gigantic reading learning success. This matter of perspective confirms the results from Annury,

Mujiyanto, Saleh, and Sutopo (2019) averring that L2 readers infusing more robust formation of metacognitive reading strategies will be more adaptable decision-makers while encountering varied precarious reading learning situations compared to other readers who rigidly stick to their mainstays of specific reading strategies. In an affective state, L2 readers fully infusing a higher degree of metacognitive reading strategies will simultaneously become more innovative, confident, and persevere academicians by deploying some indispensable reading strategies probably forging their higher-order thinking skills in terms of searching for a vast array of new vocabulary, guessing meaning from context, and collaborating with other learning companions to gain a better understanding of their targeted texts. This strand of another finding also resonates well with a previous metacognitive reading strategies study conducted by Sunggingwati and Rusmawaty (2017) adducing that through challenging and feasible L2 reading texts, Indonesian EFL readers can increase their self-confidence as well as sophisticated contextual reading strategies invention concurrently leading them to be highly-metacognitive, critical, and resilient readers.

The further incorporation of metacognitive reading strategies can also shed an optimistic wave for the striking development of L2 readers' reading experiences. It can also be articulated that L2 readers possessing a more robust establishment of metacognitive reading strategies are willing to read a plethora of distinctive texts potentially rejuvenate their current perspectives on the subject-specific matters, which simultaneously transfigure them into more competent L2 readers infusing more comprehensive mind. This finding is in tune with the prior major finding of metacognitive reading strategies study plied by Alsofyani (2019) encouraging Indonesian EFL teachers to incorporate metacognitive reading strategies in their diverse wide-ranging second language classroom circumstances to ingrain more fortitude reading learning endeavor within readers, activate readers' awareness to showcase more gratifying reading performances consistently, and expanding their current perspectives toward the topic being elaborated in their texts. L2 reading learning enterprises are not easy as we thought since laudable reading attitudes, behavior, and progression can be embodied by the successful nurturance of conducive as well as stress-free reading learning circumstances wherein readers will gain more intensive opportunities to foster their critical thinking, metacognitive knowledge, metacognitive strategies, reading maturity, and reading skills into the fullest potentials.

As a corollary, second language teachers are advocated to play less-domineering roles while releasing these encouraging reading learning climates to enable all learners to make striking reading learning advancement through the maximization of metacognitive reading strategies. This suggestive finding is intimately intertwined with the previous work of Bria and Mbato (2019) unrolling that it had become a high time for Indonesian second language educators to design more suitable metacognitive reading learning dynamics and renew their current roles as supportive reading facilitators to provide greater reading learning assistances for learners to foster their reading proficiency, performances, and achievements significantly. Rahman (2020) also uncovered that the internalization of both metacognitive strategies along with knowledge should be introduced at the commencement of L2 reading learning activities to fully enlarge learners' current reading learning experiences as well as render them to be more competent, critical, and adaptable L2 readers.

Table 3. The Promotion of Intensive Metacognitive Reading Learning Activities to Breed More Strategic as well as Critical L2 Readers

Theme 3	Authors
The Promotion of Intensive Metacognitive Reading Learning Activities to Breed More Strategic as well as Critical L2 Readers	Dardjito (2019); Mistar et al., (2016); Cahyono (2006); Nazurty et al., 2019); Mahardhika et al., (2021); Mbato (2013); Wahyuni et al., (2018); Mahardhika and Pammu (2021); Yulita (2017); Salasti, Hayati, and Anggraini (2020); Maryam et al., (2019); Aziz et al., (2019); Manalu and Wirza (2021); Nurfadhilah (2016); Mbato (2019).

Consistent with the ultimate major theme forming in table 3, the expansion of continuous metacognitive reading learning activities needs to be established, reinforced, and cultivated in diverse wide-ranging Indonesian EFL reading classroom settings to release the nascence of strategic as well as critical L2 readers. It is noteworthy to mention here that Indonesian EFL teachers have to design more contextual metacognitive reading learning activities where all learners can develop their higher-order thinking skills, metacognitive reading awareness, learning autonomy, and metacognitive strategies. Although it will be a pain-staking and energy-draining process at the onset of L2 reading learning enterprises, all of these sacrifices will be paid off when language teachers have made a clear discernment that their learners have successfully made a significant reading learning progression in terms of performances, achievements, and comprehension.

In light of these complexities, Indonesian EFL teachers can commence their reading learning venture by identifying their specific learners' reading learning preferences, needs, styles, and levels to appropriately design more engaging metacognitive reading learning dynamics in which all learners can progressively elevate existent reading comprehension, proficiency, and skills into the fullest potentials. All of these suggestive reading learning materials design seems to concur with the previous findings of metacognitive reading strategies study plied by Darjito (2019) repudiating that Indonesian EFL teachers need to address more contextual implementations of the existing reading texts imparted for learners in which they are capable of rehearsing their metacognitive reading strategies more effectively. Mistar, Zuhairi, and Yanti (2016) also note that Indonesian EFL educators will successfully raise more proficient, strategic, and critical L2 readers only if they assented to apply more dynamic metacognitive reading learning dynamics in their multiverse classroom vicinities. In conjunction with all of these relevant findings, Nazurty, Priyanto, Pratiwi, and Mukminin (2019) prompt Indonesian EFL educationalists to infuse metacognitive reading learning enterprises as one of the inseparable academic journeys endured by their learners to fully improve their reading comprehension, performances, and attitudes synchronously.

As a crux of all of these matters, the accurate implementation of metacognitive reading strategies can also bring about more holistic L2 reading learning enterprises where all learners will become more proficient L2 readers inculcating the robust entrenchment of metacognitive strategies. These influential positive impacts will, in turn, help L2 readers to transfigure into more self-regulated second language academicians, at the same time, erecting more advanced progression of other paramount effective psychological learning states; self-efficacy, self-motivation, volition, and attributional beliefs. Concerning these gigantic positive influences

affected by the appropriate utilization of metacognitive reading strategies, it is worth repudiating here that the life-long reading learning initiative will eternally reside within learners' long-lasting academic journeys. These elaborated findings have created a mutual interplay with the previous metacognitive reading studies generated by Mahardika et al., (2021) asserting that the nascence of transformative L2 reading learning dynamics can be eventually attained after the full activation of tangible metacognitive reading learning dynamics. Concerning this finding, Mbato (2013) also suggestively advised Indonesian EFL educators to steadily internalize metacognitive reading strategies as one of the indispensable parts of their daily-routine second language classroom learning dynamics to raise more self-regulated second language academicians longing to explore a considerable number of knowledge in their multivariate texts.

Conclusion

As an ultimate remark, metacognitive strategies are worthwhile to be cultivated in Indonesian EFL reading learning contexts due to the full manifestation of independent, self-regulated, proficient, innovative, strategic, and critical L2 readers persistently willing to cope with taxing reading learning challenges in an attempt to significantly elevate their triadic reading competencies into the utmost levels; reading performances, achievements, and attitudes. Scientifically speaking, this current qualitative library study has added positive nuances for the expanding body of prior studies investigating the significance of metacognitive reading strategies implementation in a diverse wide range of Indonesian EFL classroom contexts. For the further advancement of this language learning area, future identical studies are suggested to expand the body of this current work by exploring the critical importance of metacognitive reading strategies applications in other three remaining pivotal second language learning skills; listening, speaking, and writing

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SPEECH FUNCTIONS IN THE ELLEN DEGENERES' SHOW

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Abstract

Learning and having a deep understanding of speech functions are important in order to diminish misunderstanding in a process of communication. Thereupon, this research aims to identify the speech functions used by Ellen DeGeneres and her guests. In this research, the researcher formulated two research questions: 1) Which speech functions that are used by Ellen DeGeneres and her guests? and 2) What are the differences of speech functions used by Ellen DeGeneres and her guests? In order to answer the research questions, the researcher used the qualitative data method by applying content analysis. There are then found six speech function categories used by Ellen DeGeneres. Those functions were instrumental, regulatory, representational, interactional, personal, and heuristic. Moreover, Ellen's guests used five speech functions. Those functions were regulatory, representational, interactional, personal, and heuristic. In the five videos, Ellen was more dominant in using heuristic and regulatory functions. Meanwhile, Ellen's guests were more dominant in using interactional, regulatory, and representational functions.

Keywords: Ellen DeGeneres, Ellen's guest, speech function

Introduction

As social creatures, people certainly need to communicate with others because they cannot live alone. They can express their feelings to others, interact with other people, share their experiences and knowledge, solve some problems, and trigger new ideas when they are communicating. According to Velentzas and Broni (2014), "One definition of communication is any act by which one person gives to or receives from another person information about that person's needs, desires, knowledge, or affective states".

When people want to communicate with other people, they need a language as a medium of communication. Wardhaugh (2006) states that language is a code that is used by people when they communicate one to another. Additionally, Armstrong and Ferguson (2010) state that language is used to either deliver information or request services in several conditions such as asking services in a market. Therefore, language is an important thing in people's life because they use it in the process of communication.

Based on the explanation above, it is important for people to communicate in the society by using a language. However, in understanding the language used in a society, people need to learn sociolinguistics. Deckert and Vickers (2011) state that

sociolinguistics focuses on the way people use language in their life. Additionally, Holmes (2013) says that sociolinguistics is related to the language and context where the language is used.

One of the parts learned in sociolinguistics is speech function. It focuses on people's way to deliver some ideas in the process of communication so the listeners can understand well. Halliday (1973) states that there are seven functions of language. They are instrumental, regulatory, representational, interactional, personal, heuristic, imaginative, and metalinguistic. Moreover, Holmes (1992) states that there are six functions of language. They are expressive, directive, referential, metalinguistic, poetic, and phatic.

In daily conversation, people use various functions of language. Besides in daily conversation, speech functions can also be found in electronic and social media such as television, YouTube, and Instagram. For example, videos of television programs such as "The Ellen DeGeneres Show", which can be downloaded from YouTube. The Ellen DeGeneres Show is one of American television programs. This program is hosted by Ellen DeGeneres. As a host, Ellen DeGeneres uses different functions of language. It can be seen from the way she leads the discussion with her guests. Moreover, Ellen's guests also use different functions of language in the talk show.

Therefore, in this era, it is important to learn and understand the speech functions. This part of the sociolinguistics field helps people to grasp each function of speech in a conversation. Then, people can deliver the message to others well. As a result, people can diminish misunderstanding in the conversation. Moreover, learning and understanding speech functions can create a good interaction among people.

Speech Function

In daily conversation, people talk differently to other people. This statement is in line with Holmes (2013:274) who says that people adapt their language when they are talking to others, such as children, colleagues, and customers. They use various categories of speech functions because those categories have different purposes in a conversation. Therefore, the functions of language are important to understand because the functions of language also affect their forms.

Halliday (1973) states that there are seven functions of language. Those functions are instrumental, regulatory, representational, interactional, personal, heuristic, and imaginative.

Instrumental Function

Halliday (1973) states that instrumental function is used to satisfy people's needs and it enables people to get what they want. Additionally, in the book *Applied Studies Towards a Sociology of language*, Halliday explains that "it is the 'I want' function, including of course 'I don't want'." (as cited in Bernstein, 2004, p.349).

Regulatory Function

Regulatory function aims to control some events. It also controls someone's actions. Besides, "the regulatory is the 'do as I tell you' functions of language" (Halliday, 2006, p. 71). Regulatory function by Halliday (1973) is similar to directive function by Holmes (1992). Directive function, as Holmes and Wilson (2017) state, aims to get other people to do something. Directive function is in the form of interrogative, imperative, and declarative. The first is interrogative. Holmes (2013)

states that interrogative form is the polite attempt to get other people to do something. The next is imperative. Holmes (2013) states that imperative form is used to express commands. Furthermore, Thompson (2013) states that imperative form is used to prompt someone to do something. The last is declarative. According to Holmes (2013), declarative form is the polite attempt to ask other people to do something.

Representational Function

Representational function is used to make statements, explanations, reports, or representations of reality (Halliday, 1973). This function is similar to referential function by Holmes (1992). Referential function as Holmes and Wilson (2017) explain, is used to give information. For example, “The ice is cold.” The sentence represents the reality of the ice. Other examples are “Biology examination will be started at 7 a.m.” and “We are going to learn about respiratory system.” The first sentence consists of information about the time when Biology examination begins. Meanwhile, the second sentence consists of information about the material that is going to be learned.

Interactional Function

Halliday (1973) states “the interactional function of language serves to ensure social maintenance”. In other words, this function aims to maintain social relations with other people. Furthermore, interactional function by Halliday (1973) is similar to phatic function by Holmes (1992). Phatic function, as Holmes and Wilson (2017) explain, aims to express solidarity with others. The example of the interactional is presented below.

John : Hi, Mike!

Mike : Hi, John!

John : How are you, Mike? Mike : Great, thanks.

Based on the example above, the sentences “Hi, Mike!”, “Hi, John!”, and “How are you Mike?” show greeting utterances. Meanwhile, the sentence “Great, thanks” shows a good answer for the hearers. Moreover, the sentences that are uttered by John and Mike can keep social relations because they greet each other, and Mike responds to John’s greeting well.

Personal Function

Personal function aims to express someone’s feelings and emotions as well as speakers’ personality (Halliday, 1973). Personal function is similar to expressive function by Holmes (1992). Expressive function, as Holmes and Wilson (2017) explain, is used to express the speaker’s feelings. Halliday (1973) states “A person’s individuality is usually characterized by his or her use of the personal function”.

Heuristic Function

Halliday (1973) states that heuristic function aims to enrich knowledge and learn about the surrounding. This function directs to answer because it is in the form of questions.

Imaginative Function

Halliday (1973) states that imaginative function allows a speaker to create fictional senses in telling fairy tales or writing novels. This function also gives the

freedom of using language to create impossible dreams. Afterward, according to Holmes and Wilson (2017), imaginative function in their poetic function focuses on aesthetic features. The examples of poetic function, as stated by Holmes (2001), are a poem, an ear-catching motto, and a rhyme.

Metalinguistic function

Holmes (1992) states that metalinguistic function is used to comment on language itself. For instance, 'Hegemony' is not a common word. The word "hegemony" means leadership and domination by a country over other countries or nations. Afterward, "not a common word" is the comment of hegemony because it is not a familiar word or rarely used by people.

In addition to the theory of speech function, the researcher reviewed some researches that are relevant to the speech function. Tarigan (2018) did the same research. She analyzed the speech function used by the main characters in the Moana movie. In collecting the data, she watched and analyzed the script of Moana movie that was downloaded from a website, namely Fandom. The findings of the research showed that Moana used five speech function categories and Maui used six speech function categories. Moana was dominant in using regulatory function while Maui was dominant in using personal function.

Martanto (2014) also did the same research. He analyzed the speech functions used by Alex Hitches and Sara Mendes in the "Hitch" movie. The findings of the research showed that ten kinds of speech functions used by Alex and Sara. They were statement, answer, question, acknowledgement, contradiction, command, offer, disclaimer, rejection, and acceptance. The highest function that was used by both of them was a statement.

Sibarani and Santoso (2019) did the same research as Martanto (2014). They analyzed speech function in the E-Talk Show Program. Furthermore, the theory of speech functions by Halliday (1994) was used in analyzing the data. The researchers used host's and guests' utterances in the E-talk show program on TvOne as the data. In addition, the researchers applied qualitative content analysis method in this research. The results of the research showed that the guests used statement, question, command, and offer in both of sensitive topics. However, the guests on an opponent's side did not use command.

Moreover, Hapsari (2019) did a similar research about speech function. She analyzed speech functions in the student's group discussion at the tenth grade of MAN Salatiga. In this research, qualitative study applied because the data were not in the form of numbers. In collecting the data, the researcher did the observation, the interview. She also recorded the students' group discussion and used transcription. The findings of the research showed that the students used 42 utterances of expressive, 60 utterances of directives, 51 utterances of referential, 62 utterances of metalinguistic, 3 utterances of poetic, and 9 utterances of phatic in their group discussion.

The Ellen DeGeneres Show

The Ellen DeGeneres Show is an American television program. This television program was released on September 8th, 2013 and it is hosted by Ellen DeGeneres. Besides, it is included as a comedy talk show. According to Timberg and Erler (2010), the TV talk show is controlled by some rules that make it different from other

television programs. Moreover, Ilie (2001) states talk show is known as an entertainment program that is designed to be funny and relaxing.

Method

This study is a qualitative research. According to Denzin and Lincoln (2005), qualitative research concerns interpretation and natural approach (p.3). During the qualitative research process, human has important roles. In 2009, Ary, Jacobs, Sorensen, and Razavieh state that human is the instrument of qualitative research who collects and interprets the data (p.424). Moreover, data in qualitative research are not in the form of numbers. Neuman (2014) states that qualitative data are in the forms of written or spoken words, symbols, and visual images such as videos (p. 204).

In answering the research questions, the researcher used content analysis by collecting and analyzing the transcripts of The Ellen DeGeneres Show as the source of data. According to Flick (2015), content analysis is the procedure of analyzing data, which is in the form of text, such as media products and interview data (p. 163). Additionally, Krippendorff (2018) also states that “the most obvious sources of data appropriate for content analysis are texts to which meanings are conventionally attributed: verbal discourse, written documents, and visual representations” (p. 404). After getting the data in a form of text, the researcher made some codes and divided the text into sentences. This statement is in line with Mishra & Mohanty (2020) who explain that the text is either coded or divided into some levels such as words, phrases, or sentences before it is analyzed. Furthermore, Wood and Kroger (2000) state that “content analysis involves a much more mechanical process of categorization, neglects the possibility of multiple categorizations, and aims to quantify the relationship between coding categories” (p. 33).

Findings and Discussion

Speech Functions Used by Ellen DeGeneres

Based on the data analysis, the researcher found that Ellen DeGeneres used eight speech functions in the five videos. The results of the analysis are presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Frequency of Each Function Used by Ellen DeGeneres

No.	Speech Function	The Frequency of Each Function
1.	Instrumental	3
2.	Declarative	4
3.	Imperative	25
4.	Interrogative	1
5.	Representational	25
6.	Interactional	11
7.	Personal	3
8.	Heuristic	57
9.	Imaginative	-
10.	Metalinguistic	-
	TOTAL	129

Instrumental

According to Halliday (1973), instrumental function is used to satisfy someone's needs and enable someone to get what he or she wants. As seen in Table 4.1, there were three utterances of the instrumental function used by Ellen DeGeneres, as follows:

1. "I want to see her react again."

The word "want" in this sentence indicates the instrumental function. According to the Oxford Learner's Dictionaries, the word "want" means "to have a desire or a wish for something or somebody." In this sentence, Ellen wanted to see Britney's reaction when she played mix and match game. Then, Ellen called Britney as the guest, and Ellen asked her to play mix and match game again.

2. "I want to hear about your acts of good."

The word "want" in this sentence indicates the instrumental function because it enables someone to get what he or she wants. According to the Oxford Learner's Dictionaries, the word "want" means "to have a desire or a wish for something or somebody." From the whole sentence, it meant that Ellen wanted to hear the audience's acts of good. Then, she asked all audiences in the show to go to her website and tell their good actions.

3. "I want to hear your act of good."

The word "want" in this sentence indicates the instrumental function because it enables someone to get what he or she wants. According to the Oxford Learner's Dictionaries, the word "want" means "to have a desire or a wish for something or somebody." From the whole sentence, it meant that Ellen wanted to hear audiences' acts of good. Then, she asked all audiences to go to her website and tell their good actions.

Declarative

Declarative is a form of the directive function. According to Holmes (2013), declarative function is a polite attempt to ask other people to do something. This function typically ends with a full stop. Below are the utterances included to declarative function found in the videos:

1. "You can't do that at the museum."

The words "can't do" in this sentence indicate the declarative function because those words are used to ask other people to do something. In order to emphasize the declarative function, Ellen used the negative form of the modal verb "can." According to the Oxford Learner's Dictionaries, the modal verb "can" is "used to say that it is possible for somebody or something to do something, or for something to happen." From the whole sentence, it meant that Ellen controlled Parker's action because it was impossible to run and stand too close to some portraits when she was in the museum.

2. "You must have so much fun."

This sentence is included in the declarative function because it was used to ask Snoop Dog to do particular actions while Ellen gave an idea about what he had to do. In order to emphasize the declarative function, Ellen used the modal verb "must" to say that something is necessary or very important. From the whole sentence, it meant

that Ellen asked Snoop Dog to have fun while he was doing his work with Martha Stewart. She did that because she thought that having so much fun was necessary.

3. “You should celebrate that.”

The words “should celebrate” indicate the declarative function because those words are used to ask other people to do something. From the whole sentence, it meant that Ellen asked Simon Cowell to celebrate his birthday because he was going to be 60 and it was amazing.

Imperative

Imperative function is a form of the directive function. Holmes (2013) states that imperative function is used to express commands. Moreover, Thompson (2013) explains that imperative function aims to encourage someone to do something. As shown in Table 4.1, the imperative function used by Ellen DeGeneres was found in 25 utterances. Below are six of them.

1. “Put the tutu on.”

The word “put” indicates the imperative function because it commands other people to do something. According to the Oxford Learner’s Dictionaries, the word “put” means “to attach or fix something to something else.” In this sentence, Ellen instructed Parker to wear the tutu because Parker wanted to show her ballet ability. Therefore, she used the word “put” in order to command Parker to wear the tutu.

2. “Tell me about yourself.”

The word “tell” indicates the imperative function because it orders other people to do something. According to the Oxford Learner’s Dictionaries, the word “tell” means “to give information to somebody by speaking or writing.” In this sentence, Ellen asked Britney to tell about herself, such as her name, job, and address. Ellen instructed Britney to tell about herself because she wanted to know more about her fan.

3. “Let’s go here.”

The word “let’s” indicates the imperative function because it commands other people to do something. According to the Oxford Learner’s Dictionaries, the word “let’s” is used for making suggestions or as a polite way of telling people what someone wants other people to do. In this sentence, Ellen encouraged Britney to stand on the other side that was near the screen because they wanted to play mix and match game.

4. “Pick one.”

The word “pick” in this sentence conveys the imperative function because it orders other people to do something. According to the Oxford Learner’s Dictionaries, the word “pick” means “to choose somebody or something from a group of people or things.” In this sentence, Ellen instructed Britney to choose a number because they were playing mix and match game.

5. “Turn those over.”

The word “turn” conveys the imperative function because it commands other people to do something. In this sentence, Ellen instructed one member of her crew to turn two squares because Britney and she wanted to play mix and match game again.

6. “Go to my website, tell us what you’re doing.”

The words “go” and “tell” in this sentence indicate the imperative function because those words command other people to do something. In this sentence, Ellen asked people who watched The Ellen DeGeneres Show to look at Ellen’s website and tell what they were doing. She asked many people to do that because she wanted to know people’s acts of good.

Interrogative

Interrogative is a form of the directive function. According to Holmes (2013), interrogative is the polite attempt to ask other people to do something. As shown in Table 4.1, there was one utterance of the interrogative function used by Ellen DeGeneres, as follows:

1. “Could you imagine, when you started out,?”

The word “could” indicates the interrogative function because it asks other people to do something in a polite way. In this sentence, Ellen DeGeneres asked Snoop Dog if he could imagine his career would not only last long but also expand to different areas. Then, he said that he was able to do different things and that he was not afraid to take risks in his career.

Representational

Representational is used to make statements, explanations, reports, or representations of reality (Halliday, 1973). Moreover, Holmes and Wilson (2017) explain that this function is used to provide information. Below are some of the utterances of representational function used by Ellen.

1. “We doubled it to make it a little bit harder.”

This sentence belongs to the representational function because it gives information about the game to Britney. In the previous mix and match game, the number of squares was 12. When Ellen asked Britney to play mix and match game again, Ellen’s team doubled the amount of the squares in order to make the game a little bit harder. Adding more squares in the game could also make Britney feel confused in choosing a number. Therefore, the name of the game was Mega Mix and Match Game because Ellen’s team doubled the amount of the squares.

2. “I’m going to give you three chances to match some things.”

This sentence is included in the representational function because it informs Britney about mix and match game. In this sentence, Ellen told Britney that she wanted to give three chances when Britney played the game.

3. “This is your birthday present.”

This sentence belongs to the representational function because it provides information for Simon Cowell. In this sentence, Ellen informed Simon Cowell that a

hat brought by one of Ellen's team was his birthday present. After he received the hat, he said "It's a hat, isn't it?" and he tried to wear that hat.

4. "Two more tries."

This sentence belongs to the representational function because it provides information to Britney. In this sentence, Ellen informed Britney that she still had two chances in playing mix and match games. Then, at the second chance, she chose number 21 and 3. Furthermore, at the third chance, she chose number 24 and 7.

5. "I have a gift for you."

This sentence is included in the representational function because it informs Snoop Dog. In this sentence, Ellen told Snoop Dog that she wanted to give him a gift. The gift that was given by Ellen was an apron.

Interactional

Halliday (1973) states that "the interactional function of language serves to ensure social maintenance". Additionally, it is used to show solidarity between people (Holmes & Wilson, 2017). Therefore, interactional function is very crucial in social relations. As shown in Table 4.1, there were 11 utterances of the interactional function used by Ellen DeGeneres. However, in this study, the researcher would only discuss five of them.

1. "Hi, Jessica, nice to meet you."

This sentence is included in the interactional function. The term is used to greet other people when they meet each other for the first time. From the whole sentence, it meant that Ellen welcomed Jessica well from the beginning of the show by uttering those words when she came as the guest. Then, she responded to Ellen by saying, "Hi, nice to meet you."

2. "Thanks for being here."

This sentence is included in the interactional function because of the word "thanks." According to the Oxford Learner's Dictionaries, the word "thanks" is used to show that someone is grateful to other people for something they have done. From the whole sentence, it meant that Ellen thanked Jessica and Parker for being able to come to the show as the guests. Ellen really appreciated their coming.

3. "Oh, congratulations."

This sentence is included in the interactional function because of the word "congratulations." It is used to show solidarity because someone has achieved something. According to the Oxford Learner's Dictionaries, the word "congratulations" means "a message congratulating somebody." From the whole sentence, it meant that Ellen congratulated Britney because she got Ellen's water after playing the mix and match game.

4. "It's good to see you."

This sentence is included in the interactional function because it is used to begin a communication between people that can keep their social relation. Ellen said, "It's good to see you" because the purpose of that clause was to greet a person whom

someone once met before. From the whole sentence, it meant that Ellen DeGeneres gave warm welcome to Simon Cowell for coming to the stage because they did not meet for a while.

5. “Hello you two.”

This sentence is included in the interactional function because of the word “hello.” According to the Oxford Learner’s Dictionaries, the word “hello” is used as a greeting when a person meets somebody, in an email, when someone answers the phone or when they want to attract somebody’s attention. From the whole sentence, it meant that Ellen greeted Latonya and Kevin Esch after they came to the stage.

Personal

According to Halliday (1973), a personal function is used to express someone’s feelings, emotions, and even personalities. As shown in Table 4.1, there were three utterances of the personal function used by Ellen DeGeneres, as follows:

1. “I’m very happy.”

This sentence is included in the personal function because of the word “happy.” This word expresses the speaker’s feeling. According to the Oxford Learner’s Dictionaries, the word “happy” means “feeling or showing pleasure.” In this sentence, Ellen felt happy because she said that Simon Cowell seemed very happy and he said, “So do you.”

2. “I love that.”

This sentence is included in the personal function because of the word “love.” According to the Oxford Learner’s Dictionaries, the word “love” means “to like or enjoy something very much.” In this sentence, Ellen really liked a job, which was a veterinary technician. The task of a veterinary technician is to help all animals to live healthily. In expressing her interest in the veterinary technician, Ellen used personal function.

3. “I love Drew Brees, too.”

This sentence belongs to the personal function because Ellen used the word “love.” However, it did not mean that Ellen fell in love with Drew Brees, instead, it meant that Ellen admired him. In expressing her admiration towards Drew Brees, Ellen used the personal function.

Heuristic

According to Halliday (1973), a heuristic function is used to learn about surrounding and enrich knowledge. As seen in Table 4.1, there were 57 utterances of the heuristic function used by Ellen DeGeneres. However, in this study, the researcher would only discuss seven of them.

1. “How did she get in touch with you?”

This sentence is included in the heuristic function because it explores someone’s action. In order to emphasize the heuristic function, Ellen used the word “how” to show that Ellen explored the way Jessica and Parker met Michelle Obama.

2. “What was your reaction when you finally got tickets to the show?”

This sentence is included in the heuristic function because of the word “what.” According to the Oxford Learner’s Dictionaries, the word “what” is used to ask for particular information about somebody or something. Ellen used the word “what” because she wanted to know about particular information. This sentence showed Ellen’s curiosity about Britney’s reaction when she finally got the ticket show.

3. “How did you get here?”

This sentence is included in the heuristic function because it explores someone’s action. In order to emphasize the heuristic function, Ellen used the word “how.” According to the Oxford Learner’s Dictionaries, the word “how” means “in what way or manner.” In this sentence, Ellen explored about Britney’s way so she could arrive in The Ellen DeGeneres Show.

4. “How did the Snoop Dog meet the Martha?”

This sentence is included in the heuristic function because it explores someone’s action. In order to emphasize the heuristic function, Ellen used the word “how.” According to the Oxford Learner’s Dictionaries the word “how” means “in what way or manner.” In this sentence, Ellen explored the way the Snoop Dog and the Martha met.

5. “How do you feel about it?”

This sentence belongs to the heuristic function because it asks about particular information. In this sentence, Ellen was curious about Simon Cowell’s feelings because he was going to be 60. Then, he answered that he felt great although he did not even like to celebrate his birthday.

6. “What made you want to do this for her?”

This sentence is included in the heuristic function because of the word “what.” According to the Oxford Learner’s Dictionaries, the word “what” is used to ask for particular information about somebody or something. In this sentence, Ellen wanted to know particular information about the reason why Kevin Esch wanted to give tip and pay expenses for Latonya. Then, he answered that he felt good when he did good things.

7. “How did you find out that he paid all your expenses [sic]?”

This sentence is included in the heuristic function because of the word “how.” According to the Oxford Learner’s Dictionaries the word “how” means “in what way or manner.” In this sentence, Ellen wanted to know Latonya’s way to find out that Kevin paid all her expenses.

Speech Functions Used by Ellen’s Guests

Based on the data analysis, the researcher found that Ellen’s guests used seven speech functions in the five videos. Those seven speech functions were declarative, imperative, interrogative, representational, interactional, personal, and heuristic.

Table 4.2 Frequency of Each Function Used by Ellen's Guests

No.	Speech Function	The Frequency of Each Function
1.	Instrumental	-
2.	Declarative	3
3.	Imperative	6
4.	Interrogative	1
5.	Representational	10
6.	Interactional	18
7.	Personal	8
8.	Heuristic	4
9.	Imaginative	-
10.	Metalinguistic	-
	TOTAL	50

Declarative

Holmes (2013) states that declarative function is the polite attempt for asking people to do something. As seen in Table 4.2, there were three utterances of the declarative function used by Ellen's guests, as follows:

1. "You can do a turn."

This sentence is included in the declarative function because it was used to ask Parker to do particular action while Jessica gave an idea about what she had to do. In order to emphasize the declarative function, Jessica used the modal verb "can" to say that it is possible for somebody or something to do something, or for something to happen.

2. "Just stick your tongue out every time we do a picture."

The phrase "just stick your tongue" indicates the declarative function because those words are used to ask other people to do something. In this sentence, Simon Cowell asked his family to stick their tongue when they did a picture because he did not like his photo taken, while Lauren liked to do a picture wherever they go.

3. "Oh, please believe it."

This sentence is included in the declarative function because of the word "please." This word is used to ask other people to do something. According to the Oxford Learner's Dictionaries, the word "please" is "used as a polite way of asking for something or telling somebody to do something." In this sentence, Snoop Dog asked Ellen to believe that he would not make recipes that had marijuana infused in his next book because he wanted to keep his book clean.

Imperative

Holmes (2013) states that imperative function is used to express commands. Moreover, Thompson (2013) states that imperative function is used to encourage other people to do something. As seen in Table 4.2, there were six utterances of the imperative function used by Ellen's guests, as follows:

1. “Look, look, right there.”

This sentence is included in the imperative function. The word “look” indicates the imperative function because it instructs people to do something. In this sentence, Parker instructed Ellen and Jessica to look at the screen because the photo of Parker who was standing in front of the picture of Michelle Obama was shown on the screen.

2. “Do the jump.”

This sentence is included in the imperative function. The word “do” in this sentence indicates the imperative function because it instructs someone to do something. According to the Oxford Learner’s Dictionaries, the word “do” means “to work at or perform an activity or a task.” In this sentence, Jessica instructed Parker to perform the activity mentioned, which was doing the jump.

3. “Look at her face.”

This sentence belongs to the imperative function. The word “look” indicates the imperative function because it instructs someone to do something. According to the Oxford Learner’s Dictionaries, the word “look” means “to turn your eyes in a particular direction.” In this sentence, Jessica instructed Ellen to look Parker’s face when Ellen wanted to show all kinds of different tutus.

4. “Let’s see.”

The word “let’s” indicates the imperative function. According to the Oxford Learner’s Dictionaries, the word “let’s” is used for making suggestions or as a polite way of telling people what a person wants somebody to do. In addition, this sentence also shows the fundamental base of imperative which is ‘I want us’ to do something. From the whole sentence, Snoop Dog instructed Ellen to find new words that she could learn from him.

5. “Look, he’s wearing a helmet.”

The word “look” in this sentence indicates the imperative function because it commands other people to do something. According to the Oxford Learner’s Dictionaries, the word “look” means “to turn your eyes in a particular direction.” In this sentence, Simon Cowell instructed Ellen to look a picture of Eric who was wearing a hat on the screen.

6. “--and so is Lauren, look. “

The word “look” in this sentence indicates the imperative function because it commands other people to do something. According to the Oxford Learner’s Dictionaries, the word “look” means “to turn your eyes in a particular direction.” In this sentence, Simon Cowell instructed Ellen to look at Lauren’s picture that was shown on the screen.

Interrogative

Holmes (2013) states that the interrogative function is a polite attempt for asking people to do something. As seen in Table 4.2, there was one utterance of the interrogative function used by Ellen’s guests, as follows:

1. Would you like to show her?

This sentence belongs to the interrogative function because it asks other people to do something in a polite way. In order to emphasize the interrogative function, Jessica used the word “would.” According to the Oxford Learner’s Dictionaries, the modal verb “would” is “used in polite offers or invitations.” From the whole sentence, it meant that Jessica asked Parker to show her ballet ability.

Representational

There were ten utterances of the representational function used by Ellen’s guests. Representational function is used to make statements, explanations, and reports (Halliday, 1973). Moreover, it is used to give information (Holmes & Wilson, 2017). Below are some of the utterances from the videos that showed that Ellen’s guests used representational function.

1. “We’ve been there a few times before.”

This sentence is included in the representational function because it gives information to many people. In this sentence, Jessica informed Ellen and all audiences that they had been in that museum a few times before.

2. “There’s Michelle Obama, right there.”

The word “there” indicates the representational function because it gives information to other people. According to the Oxford Learner’s Dictionaries, the word “there” is used to show that something exists or happens. In this sentence, Parker gave information to Jessica, Ellen, and all audiences about the picture of Michelle Obama that she saw on the screen.

3. “I tried to get tickets for six and half years [sic].”

This sentence belongs to the representational function because it gives information to many people. In this sentence, Britney informed Ellen and all audiences that she had tried to get a ticket show for six and a half years. In the process of getting the ticket, she did many things such as downloading every game of Ellen in her phone, writing to Ellen all the time, standing outside in Ellen’s 60th birthday, and dancing in the side of the road for 60 honks.

4. “That’s the video.”

This sentence is included in the representational function. The word “that’s” in this sentence indicates the representational function because it provides information for other people. According to the Oxford Learner’s Dictionaries, the word “that” is used to refer to a person or thing that is not near the speaker or as near to the speaker as another. In this sentence, Britney pointed the video on the screen showing her action when she was trying to get the ticket show.

5. “I got over 200 honks.”

This sentence belongs to the representational function because it informs many people. In this sentence, Britney informed Ellen and all audiences that she got more than 200 honks because of her action. She stood and wore a dancing inflatable woman costume on the side of the road for 60 honks for Ellen’s 60th birthday. In fact, she got more than 60 honks.

Interactional

Halliday (1973) states “the interactional function of language serves to ensure social maintenance”. Moreover, Holmes and Wilson (2017) state that it is used to express solidarity.). Below are the utterances of the interactional function used by Ellen’s guests.

1. “Hi, nice to meet you.”

This sentence belongs to the interactional function. It is used by people when they meet other people for the first time. From the whole sentence, it meant that Jessica responded to Ellen’s warm welcome because they met each other for the first time.

2. “Thank you for having us.”

This sentence belongs to the interactional function because of the phrase “thank you.” This phrase is used to show solidarity because a person has done something for another person. From the whole sentence, it meant that Jessica thanked Ellen and her team because of their acceptance towards Jessica and her daughter in the show.

3. “Good job.”

The phrase “good job” is used to show solidarity because it shows an appreciation towards someone for something they have done. Jessica said “Good job” to Parker after she did the jump in front of Ellen and all audiences. Then, all audiences gave applause because of Parker’s performance. Appreciating someone can keep the social relations built with other people.

4. “Sorry.” (Video 2)

The word “sorry” indicates the interactional function. Britney said “sorry” to Ellen because she thought that her attempts to get the ticket show were very excessive. In the process of getting the ticket show, she downloaded every game of Ellen on her phone, wrote all the time, and stood on the side of the road for 60 honks for Ellen’s 60th birthday.

5. “Hi, how are you?”

This sentence is included in the interactional function because it is used to begin a conversation among people. From the whole sentence, it meant that Latonya greeted Ellen at the beginning of the show. She tried to get closer to Ellen by uttering those words.

Personal

According to Halliday (1973), personal function is used to express someone’s feelings, emotions, and even personalities. As seen in Table 4.1, there were eight utterances of the personal function used by Ellen’s guests, as follows:

1. “I’m from Cleveland, Ohio.”

This sentence is included in the personal function because of the words “Cleveland, Ohio.” Those words declare someone’s identity. From the whole sentence, it meant that Britney wanted to show her identity to Ellen and all audience that she was from Cleveland, Ohio.

2. “I work at vet-- I have few jobs, actually.”

This sentence is included in the personal function because of the word “vet” and “few jobs.” Those words declared someone’s identity especially her occupation. In this sentence, Britney wanted to show her identity to Ellen and all audiences about her jobs.

3. “My birthday is December 21th [sic].”

This sentence is included in the personal function because of the words “December 21th.” Those words declare someone’s identity. From the whole sentence, it meant that Britney wanted to show her identity especially her date of birth.

4. “I love this.”

This sentence belongs to the personal function because of the word “love”. According to the Oxford Learner’s Dictionaries, the word “love” means “to like or enjoy something very much”. From the sentence, it meant that Snoop Dog liked the apron with the writing “Lakers” on it. The apron was given by Ellen when Snoop Dog came as the guest.

5. “I feel actually great.”

This sentence is included in the personal function because of the word “great.” It expresses the speaker’s feeling. According to the Oxford Learner’s Dictionaries, the word “great” means “very good or pleasant.” In this sentence, it meant that Simon Cowell expressed his great feeling to Ellen and the audiences because he was going to be 60.

6. “I love Drew Brees.”

This sentence belongs to the personal function because of the word “love.” It expresses the speaker’s feeling. However, the word “love” in this sentence did not mean that Latonya fell in love with Drew Brees but it meant that she admired him. In expressing her admiration, Latonya used the personal function.

7. “I love you too.”

This sentence is included in the personal function because of the word “love.” It expresses the speaker’s feeling. In this sentence, Latonya expressed her feeling to Ellen by using the word “love” because the word “love” in this sentence meant affection.

8. “I was so happy to get that tip.”

This sentence is included in the personal function because of the word “happy.” It expresses the speaker’s feeling. According to the Oxford Learner’s Dictionaries, the word “happy” means “feeling or showing pleasure, pleased.” From the whole sentence, it meant that Latonya felt very happy because she received a tip from Kevin Esch.

Heuristic

According to Halliday (1973), the heuristic function aims to learn about the surrounding and enrich knowledge. As seen in Table 4.2, there were four utterances of the heuristic function used by Ellen’s guests, as follows:

1. “What was that?”

This sentence belongs to the heuristic function because of the word “what” to ask for particular information about somebody or something. From the whole sentence, it meant that Jessica wanted to know about a certain ballet move that would be shown by Parker.

2. “Were you high when you did that?”

This sentence is included in the heuristic function because of the words “were you high....” Those words indicate the heuristic function because it explores someone’s action.

3. “Where’s the picture?”

This sentence is included in the heuristic function because of the word “where.” According to the Oxford Learner’s Dictionaries, the word “where” means “in or to what place or situation.” From the sentence, Simon Cowell was curious, and then he asked about the picture of him when he was not wearing a helmet.

4. “What is that picture?”

This sentence belongs to the heuristic function because of the word “what.” According to the Oxford Learner’s Dictionaries, the word “what” is used to ask for particular information about somebody or something. From the whole sentence, it meant that Simon Cowell asked for particular information about the picture that was shown on the screen.

The Differences in Speech Functions Used by Ellen DeGeneres and Her Guests

The differences in speech functions used by Ellen DeGeneres and her guests are presented in this part. The data are presented in Figure 1. As shown in Figure 4.1, there were eight speech functions used by Ellen DeGeneres. Meanwhile, there were seven speech functions used by Ellen’s guests.

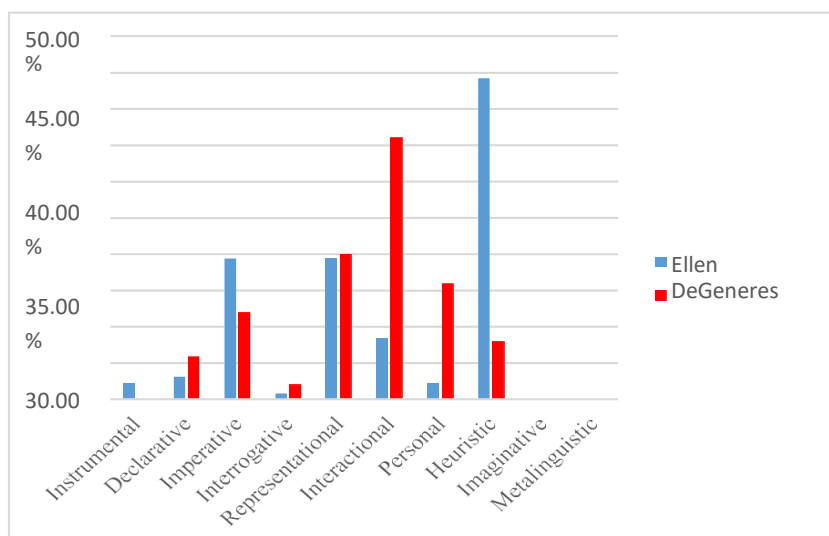


Figure 1. Percentage of Speech Functions Found in Ellen Degeneres’ and Her Guests’ Utterances

Instrumental

Instrumental function is used to satisfy someone's need and it enables someone to get what he or she wants. As presented in Figure 4.1, Ellen used this function by 2.3%. Meanwhile, Ellen's guests did not use this function. The example of Ellen's utterance is "I want to see her react again".

Declarative

Declarative function is the form of directive. It is used to ask other people in a polite way and it ends with a full stop at the end of a sentence. As shown in Figure 4.1, the declarative function gets 3.1%, meaning Ellen used it less frequently than her guests. Meanwhile, Ellen's guests used it 6%. The results show that both Ellen and her guests did not really use this function in their conversation. The example of Ellen's utterance is "All of you should be wearing helmet". Meanwhile, the utterance of Ellen's guests is "You can do a turn".

Imperative

Imperative function is the form of directive. It is used to ask other people to do something and it usually ends with an exclamation mark. As seen in Figure 4.1, the imperative function gets 19.4%, meaning Ellen used it more frequently than her guests. Meanwhile, Ellen's guests used it 12%. The results show that Ellen was more dominant in using this function. Some examples of the utterances performed by Ellen are "Put the tutu on", "Come over here", and "Tell me about yourself."

Interrogative

Interrogative function is the form of directive. It is used to ask other people to do something in a polite way. As seen in Figure 4.1, the interrogative function gets 0.8%, meaning Ellen used it less frequently than her guests. Meanwhile, Ellen's guests used it 2%. The results show that both Ellen and her guests did not really use this function in their conversation. The example of Ellen's utterance is "Could you imagine, when you started out that your career would not only last this long, but all the different areas that you would go into?". Moreover, the example of Ellen's guests utterance is "Would you like to show her?".

Representational

Representational function is used to make statements, explanations, and provide information. As seen in Figure 4.1, the representational function gets 19.4%, meaning Ellen used it less frequently than her guests. Meanwhile, Ellen's guests used it 20%. The difference is up to 0.6%. The results show that Ellen's guests were more dominant in using this function. Some examples of the utterances performed by Ellen's guests are "We've been there a few times before" and "I got over 200 honks."

Interactional

Interactional function is used to maintain social relations among many people. As seen in Figure 4.1, the interactional function gets 8.5%, meaning Ellen used it less frequently than her guests. Meanwhile, Ellen's guests used it 36%. The results show that Ellen's guests were more dominant in using this function. Some examples of the utterances performed by Ellen's guests are "Thank you for having us" and "Hi, nice to meet you."

Personal

Personal function is used to express someone's feelings, emotions, and personalities. As shown in Figure 4.1, the personal function gets 2.3%, meaning Ellen used it less frequently than her guests. Meanwhile, Ellen's guests used it 16%. The results show that Ellen's guests were more dominant in using this function. Some examples of the utterances performed by Ellen's guests are "I'm from Cleveland, Ohio", "I love this", and "I feel actually great."

Heuristic

Heuristic function is used to obtain knowledge and learn about the surrounding. As seen in Figure 4.1, the heuristic function gets 44.2%, meaning Ellen used it more frequently than her guests. Meanwhile, Ellen's guests used it 8%. The results show that Ellen was more dominant in using this function because she is a host who is responsible for leading the discussion. Some examples of Ellen's utterances are "How did she get in touch with you?", "What was your reaction when you finally got tickets to the show?", and "How did you get here?"

In the process of data validation, the researcher asked for a help from a lecturer who teaches sociolinguistics. There were seven comments that were given by the lecturer. The first comment was about replacing the total column with the frequency column. Secondly, it was about adding a source in the declarative part. Third, the researcher was asked to recheck the sentence, "You can't do that at the museum", whether it belongs to the declarative or imperative function. Next, as the fourth comment, the researcher was asked to add context and the response in the sentence, "Could you imagine, when you started out, that your career would not only last this long, but all the different areas that you would go into?". Fifth, the researcher was also asked to recheck the sentence, "What was your reaction when you finally got tickets to the show?", whether it belongs to the interrogative or heuristic function. Sixth, it is about rechecking the sentence, "What are you doing?". Seventh, the researcher was asked to give an explanation about how to distinguish between declarative and imperative function.

Conclusion

After the process of analyzing data, there are two conclusions that can be drawn from the research. The first conclusion comes from the results of the first research question, namely, the speech functions used by Ellen DeGeneres and her guests. In this study, the researcher found six speech function categories used by Ellen DeGeneres. They are instrumental, regulatory, representational, interactional, personal, and heuristic. Meanwhile, the researcher found five speech function categories used by Ellen's guests. They are regulatory, representational, interactional, personal, and heuristic. The second conclusion comes from the results of the second research question, namely, the differences in speech functions used by Ellen DeGeneres and her guests. The researcher found six speech function categories used by Ellen DeGeneres and five speech function categories used by Ellen's guests. Heuristic is used by Ellen as the first function while Ellen's guests use the interactional function. Ellen DeGeneres uses regulatory as the second function. Meanwhile, Ellen's guests use representational and regulatory functions. Ellen DeGeneres also uses representational as the third function while her guests use personal function. Then,

interactional is used by Ellen DeGeneres as the fourth function while Ellen's guests use heuristic function. The fifth functions used by Ellen DeGeneres are instrumental and personal.

After doing the research, the researcher suggests that ELESF students learn more about speech functions, so they have a deep understanding of them. If they understand, they can implement all functions well, so misunderstanding in a conversation can be decreased. After doing the research, the researcher recommends future researchers to read more references about speech functions. It will be easier for future researchers to categorize and analyze data into each function if they have a deep understanding of speech functions.

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- <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=a1OJkOa8gyc&t=158s> (Simon Cowell Can't Eat Cake on His 60th Birthday)
- <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=VGcIX2CbM8M&t=28s> (Ellen Meets Uber Driver and Her Generous Passenger)

WORD-FORMATION PROCESSES OF MEDICAL LEXICAL ITEMS IN *THE JAKARTA POST*'S-ARTICLES

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Abstract

The understanding of medical lexical items needs to be improved in society to make people know and aware of their health issues in their daily life. This research focused on the morphology phenomenon, especially the word-formation process that happened in *The Jakarta Post*'s articles. This research aims to know the formation of medical lexical items that appear in the articles. The data was collected from *The Jakarta Post*'s articles, especially articles related to health topics. The data were classified into several types of word-formation based on the theory from Bauer (1983 & 2003), which supported by (Yule (2006). The researcher used a qualitative approach, specifically document analysis in analyzing the data. There are two questions in this research, which are (1) What word-formation processes of medical lexical items are involved in *The Jakarta Post* articles?, (2). How are the medical lexical items formed in *The Jakarta Post* articles?. Through this analysis, it was found eight types of word-formation which were involved in the articles related to health. It was found 165 lexical items in 11 articles. They are 10.9% for compounding, 47.3% for derivation, 3.0 % for blending, 7.3% for abbreviation and acronym, 12.1% for borrowing, 17.0% for inflection, 0,6% for back-formation, and 1.8% is clipping. The researcher hopes that it can help people to understand more about medical lexical items and the word-formation process.

Keywords: Morphology, medical lexical item, word-formation, *The Jakarta Post*

Introduction

Language is always interesting to be discussed. Many languages exist in this world; one of them is English, which is used worldwide to communicate among people. English language is commonly used as a second language and foreign-language in several countries. In several fields such as economics, laws, politics, and medical, English has several particular lexical items or terms which are very different from the lexical items that we regularly use in daily life. There are lexical items that might be known by some people, but sometimes they are also tricky because they have different meanings in another field which can be misleading and misunderstood

Generally, language has unique constructions where the top of the hierarchy is called a sentence, and the end of the hierarchy is called a morpheme. There is a study of forming word in linguistics, and it is called morphology, which deals with the internal structure of a word and its morphemes. It is an interesting study which will

be helpful for everyone who learns English because it will help them understand more about the words and their formations.

In this era, online media grows rapidly because it is efficient, and it also may share information with everyone in a short period of time. People start to leave the conventional way to share information such as by letter or other printed documents. They start doing everything online, which can be accessed by everyone and everywhere at any time. Nowadays, people pay more attention to health issues which has become one of the most discussed topics everywhere in online media, whether in blogs, newspapers, magazines, articles or even videos on YouTube.

One aspect which is very important in health issues is the medical lexical items. In society, understanding medical lexical items can help them understand their condition clearly when they have health issues. It is also important to be learned by medical practitioners, especially when they give a diagnosis for the patients. As a patient, it is important to know exactly several medical lexical items because sometimes doctors explain an emergency or critical situation using medical lexical items. The importance of the accuracy of medical lexical items also needed by medical practitioners to record any health issues of the patients. The research done by Agustine and Pratiwi (2017) for medical records in Bambanglipuro Public Health Center shows that 77.2% of medical terms are not opportune. It should not have happened because medical practitioners have important roles, especially the doctors, the nurses, and also the medical records officer which is classifying and diagnosing the condition of the patients.

Medical lexical items also need to be learned by English Language Education Study Program (ELESP) students to improve their understanding of vocabulary in other fields. It can help them when they are working which is related to the medical field such as translation projects, teaching, transcribing, or even broader job related to health. Health becomes a prevalent issue which is always discussed in the newspaper and magazine worldwide. It is because people pay more attention to their health. One of a newspaper which always give tips and news related to health is *The Jakarta Post*.

The Jakarta Post is one of the Indonesian daily newspaper that uses English to deliver the news in its articles. *The Jakarta Post* can be read by everyone, both Indonesian and foreigner, because it uses English. *The Jakarta Post* is oftentimes read by all generations, the younger may read it in school because many teachers use *The Jakarta Post* as the media of teaching and learning. At the same time, the older may read it in institutions, offices, or anywhere else.

Morphology

Morphology comes from Greek which *morph-* means ‘*shape, form*’ and *-logy/ology* means ‘*a study*’. According to Bauer (2003, p.4), *morphology* is the study of a word and its structures. In linguistics, *morphology* refers to the branch of linguistics which deals with word and its internal structure, also the process of how they are formed (Arnoff and Fuderman, 2011). It means that *morphology* is the branch of linguistics that focuses on the study of word-form and its structure.

According to Katamba (1993, p.19), morphology is the study of the internal word structure. It means that morphology, which is a sub-branch of linguistics focuses on the study of words. It deals with the internal structure of word-form. At the same time, the basic unit that being analyzed in morphology is morpheme (Bauer, 1983, p.13). A morpheme is the smallest unit of language in word structures that has meaning. It can

be considered that morphology is the study of morphemes and their arrangements in forming words. While according to Basbell (2015) the interaction between morphology and phonology is called morphophonology. It means that morphophonology deals with the sound changes when the morphemes are combined to form words. There are four steps of the process of morphology according to Ba'dulu and Herman (2005) in their book. They are identifying morpheme, word-formation, morphophonology processes, and dictionary.

Morpheme

Bauer (2003); Plag (2003); and Katamba 1995) stated that morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit. Morpheme is also commonly defined as the smallest linguistic piece that has a grammatical function. It means that morpheme is the smallest unit in the word structure. A word may consist of a morpheme, such as *hand*, or a meaningful piece of a word, such as affixes-*ed* of *looked*, and it cannot be divided again into smaller meaningful parts (Arnoff and Fudeman, 2011, p.2). There is no smaller meaningful unit than morpheme.

Free morpheme

A Free morpheme is a morpheme that can stand by itself with meaning even without any additional affixes. According to Plag (2003, p.10), a morpheme that can occur in their own way is called free morpheme. A free morpheme can form a word by itself and it does not need another morpheme to have meaning. Examples of free morphemes are “walk, supply and treat”. Those words have meaning even without any bound morpheme or affixes attached to it.

Bound morpheme

A bound morpheme is a morpheme that can only occur when it is attached to other morphemes (Plag, 2003:10). It is a morpheme that can be a conjunction and affixes. A bound morpheme cannot stand itself with meaning. It needs to be attached with a free morpheme in order to have meaning. The examples of bound morphemes are “pre-, -ist, -tion” in the word “pretest, internist, and isolation”.

Root, Base, and Stem

According to Katamba (1993, p.41), “root is the irreducible core of a word, with absolutely nothing else attached to it”. In comparison, Bauer (1983, p.20) stated that a root is a form that cannot be analyzed furthermore even in terms of derivational and inflectional morphology. It means that root is part of a word that becomes the main word before any affixes are added and it is word-form that still remains when all inflectional and derivational affixes have been removed. Root is always in present when it is a lexeme. For example, “*walking*” the root is “*walk*”. In the other hand, root is not always individual. Plag (2003, p.10) stated that there is also a bound root that occurs only in other morphemes. Mostly English is derived from Latin terminology. The examples are, *approb-* in *approve* and *simul-* in *simulant*.

Stem is part of a form that exists before grammatical or inflectional affixes have been added (Katamba, 1993, p.45). It means that a stem is a unit before the suffix is added to it. The example is *car* (root) becomes *cars* (stem). The suffix -s is added to the root *car* to form a plural car which is *cars* it is considered as stem.

A base is a word-form to which an affix can be added (Bauer, 1983, p.21). In many cases, all roots are base but not all of the bases are a root. The affixes which added in the base can be inflectional or derivational affixes. The example is “untouchable” the base can be “touch or touchable”

Lexical Item

According to Hartmann and Stork (1972, p.129), lexical item is “a unit of the vocabulary of language such as word, phrase or term as listed in a dictionary”. It is supported by Bauer (2003, p.334), who stated that lexical item is any item listed in the lexicon, and it is not only ordinary lexeme but also included phrasal verbs and idioms. It may also define as a lexeme and word as mentioned before. Furthermore, some experts give definitions about *word* and one of them is Aitchison (1978, p.3), which stated that words are the minimum free form which is the smallest form that can occur by itself. It can be considered that a word is defined as the smallest part phrase that can stand by itself. It means that a word is the unit of language that has meaning and can stand by itself, the example is “book”. While Richards (1985: 311) stated that a word is the smallest linguistic unit that might occur on its own in speech and writing. It is used in daily conversation to communicate with other people, both written and spoken.

History of Medical Lexical Item

Medical lexical item is a terminology used in a specific field by medical practitioners and health organizations. The lexical items were found by Old Greek which had started medical practice by their experience on Old Greek-philosophy. According to Banay (1948) stated that “approximately three of fourth of medical terminology comes from Greek”. Greek medical practitioners had realized the importance of the scientific exact lexical items in the medical field which needed to be created, and they started leaving the traditional way. As time goes by, medical lexical items came to the Rome Empire. Davidona (2011) stated that “the reason for the superior position of Greek medical terminology over the Latin one lies in the fact that the first doctors in Rome were not the Romans, but Greeks coming from Greek centers of science such as Athens, Alexandria, and Asia Minor”. The medical terminologies used in the Rome Empire were Greek in the medical field, and this development made the Rome Empire become the center of the development of medical terminology.

One of the Roman medical writers, Celsus rewrote and translated the medical book from Old Greek into Latin. He was known as one of the founders of Latin medical terminology. Due to the Latin lack of several terminologies, Celsus and other medical practitioners had to borrow the terms from Old Greek in order to complete the terminology (Bujalkova & Dzulganova, 2015). It is supported by Mareckova (2002) who stated that English medical lexical items mostly come from Latin. It is because the borrowing process from English to Greek is through Latin.

The Old-Greek and Latin become the founder of medical lexical items which are used until today. The medical terminology has divided into two parts which are anatomical (based on Latin) and clinical (based on Greek). According to *Terminologia Anatomica. International Anatomical Terminology* (1998) Anatomical terminology contains 5,800 Latin terms which is mean 4/5 of them are Latin and 1/5 are Greek. Clinical terminology can be considered as the terms that classify diseases, symptoms, diagnosis, and procedures. This term is not absolute because there are also Latin

clinical terms and Greek anatomical terms. Nowadays, many medical lexical items come to English after they are changed in Latin or Latinate from Greek. The example is the noun lexical items in Latin “*bronchus*” which from the term “*Bronchos*” in Greek.

The Principal of Forming Medical Lexical Item

It has been mentioned before that Greek and Latin are the main terms in English medical terminologies. Bekisheva et al. stated that sometimes the lexical motivation behind the Greek or Latin-originating term is confusing, and it requires to find out its etymology (in Povoroznyuk, 2015). The Greek terms came into the English language through Latin (Banay, 1948). It becomes the reason why most of English medical lexical items borrowed from Greek and Latin. The examples are “*thorax*, *gastr*, and *ophthalm*”. Those terms are directly borrowed from Greek. Dzuganova (2011) states that “one-term can be simple (underived) word, compounds or combination of derived and compound words”. It means that medical terms can be formed by the combination of the derivation and compounding process.

English Medical lexical items are mostly formed by derivation which is usually derived terms from Greek and Latin. The example of derivation in the medical lexical item is *virology* which *viro* (root) from *virus* and *logy* (suffix). While compounding is also commonly happened in medical lexical items because basically before it derived into a term, it is a single word. The example of compounding in the medical lexical item is “*blood donor*” which are two words that compound together.

There are four main elements that build the medical lexical item they are; *word root*, *combining form*, *prefix*, and *suffix* (Gyls and Wedding, 2009, p.2). Word root is the main foundation of a medical lexical item. All medical terms were built with at least one root as it has discussed that the root used in the medical lexical item comes from Old-Greek and Latin. The example is *nephros* which the word root is *nephr* from Greek and the meaning is 'kidney'.

Combining form is used to connect word root with a prefix, suffix, and other roots. Combining form ‘o’ or ‘i’ commonly is a vowel. It is used to connect word root or affixes which are consonant to create a better sound. There is no meaning in the combining form and it is only used to indicate the word root and the affixes for a learner and also makes the pronunciation not awkward. Cohen and DePetris (2014) drew the illustration of combining form in building medical terminology below.

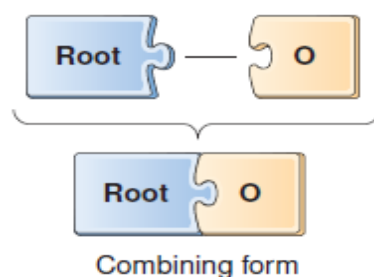


Figure 1: A root with combining vowel is called a combining form

Source: Medical Terminology: An Illustrated Guide 7th Edition

The combining form is not absolute. It can be used and not in the word. The combining form that connects word root and word root indicates that the word is

compound in which there are multiple roots in a word (Gyllys and Wedding, 2009, p.14).

The example of combining form which indicates the compound word, is explained below.

Osteoarthritis

Oste (root) + *o* (combining form) + *asthr* (root) + *itis* (suffix)
(bone) + *o* + (joint) + inflammation

It can be seen that the root *oste* which means bone and *asthr* which means joint are the main roots in this terminology. Both of the roots have their own meanings and are connected by the combining form. The compounding process creates a new lexeme which has a different meaning than before. The meaning after the word being combined is inflammation of bone and joint.

There are affixes in the medical lexical items that have the same roles as English affixes. A prefix is added before the word root and the suffix is attached to the end of the word. Suffix in medical usually related to disease, procedure, treatment, and diagnosis (Gyllys and Wedding, 2009, p.3). While prefix mostly indicates number, time, position, direction, and negation (Gyllys and Wedding, 2009, p.4). It is supported by Cohen and DePetrìs (2014) that drew the illustration of building medical terminology using suffix and combination form below.

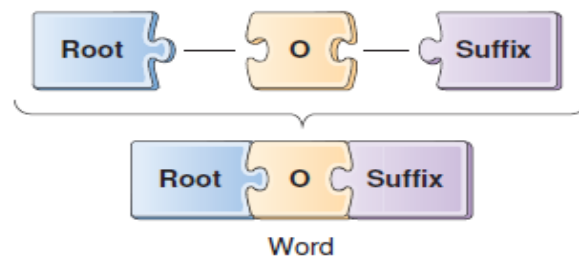


Figure 2: Word which formed from word root, combining form, and suffix

Source: Medical Terminology: An Illustrated Guide 7th Edition

The example of a medical lexical item with the suffix is explained below.

Rhinoplasty

Rhin (root) + *o* (comb. Form) + *plasty* (suffix)
Nose + *o* + surgical repair

From the example above, we can see that *rhin* is the main root which is added by a suffix *-plasty*. The combination of the root and the suffix creates a new meaning in the medical terminology which is surgical reparation for the nose.

The example of a medical lexical item with prefix explained below

Dystocia

Dys (prefix) + *tocia* (root)
(Difficult) + (childbirth)

From the example above, we can see that *dys-* is the prefix of the lexical item which is added to the root *tocia*. The combination of the prefix and the root creates a new meaning in the medical dictionary which means difficult childbirth.

Medical terminology can be formed from the combination of word root prefix and suffix. Cohen and DePetris (2014) drew the illustration of forming medical terminology using word root, prefix, and suffix below.

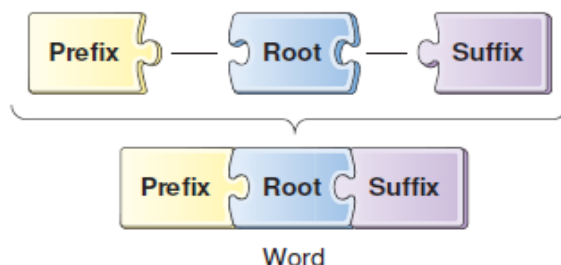


Figure 3: Medical terminology which formed from word root, prefix, and suffix
Source: Medical Terminology: An Illustrated Guide 7th Edition

The example of medical lexical item with prefix and suffix.

Circumrenal

Circum (prefix) + *ren* (root) + *al* (suffix)

(around) + (kidney) + pertaining to

From the example above, we can see that the lexical item *circumrenal* consists of prefix, root, and suffix. The combination of *circum-*, *ren* and *-al* creates a new lexeme which has a different meaning. The term *ren* is from Latin, which means kidney. The meaning of the word after all the elements are combined becomes pertaining to around the kidney.

Word-formation

As the term of ‘word-formation’, it is a study that focuses on the formation of words (Plag, 2003, p.9). It can be considered that word-formation itself is dealing with the process of forming words. While according to Yule (2006) word-formation is a process of the constant evolution of new lexical items in shaping a language needed by the users. The structure of words, which are stem, root, base, and affix, can be analyzed through morphology (Azis and Rosa, 2018). The process of analyzing word structure is considered as a morphological process or word-formation process. In the other hand, Poštolkova (in Dzuganova 2011) stated that:

Word-formation of terminology divided into four ways, which is 1. Morphological by means of derivation, compounding, abbreviation; 2. Syntactic by forming collocations and multi-word phrases and 3. Semantic by narrowing (specifying) the meaning of common words; by metaphoric and metonymic transfer of the previous meaning; 4. Borrowing words from other languages.

It can be considered that lexical item has been taken to English from several languages with many processes and it keeps increasing until now. There are more lexeme and lexical items found every day, whether it will be formal or informal..

Yule (2006) and Bauer (2003) stated that there are ten types of word-formation. They are reduplication, compounding, derivation, inflection, borrowing, clipping, blending, backformation, acronym, coinage. Those word-formations might create a new lexeme which completes the lack of terminology. Lexeme or word will always evaluate time by time. It is proven by increasing the terminology in the dictionary and it can also be seen that the dictionary is always updated with new words and lexeme.

Compounding

According to Bauer (2003, p.40), compounding is a process of creating a new lexeme by adjoining two or more words. It is supported by Yule (2006) stated that compounding is a process of combining two words to create a new word. It means that compounding happens when two or more words are joining together to create a new word with a different meaning. While according to O'Grady and Guzman (1996, p.151) the combination of lexical categories such as nouns, adjectives, verbs, or prepositions can create a new word. The examples are “*fast-food, sunset, headphone, sunscreen, and wastebasket*”. The word *fast-food* comes from the combination of the word ‘fast’ and ‘food’.

Derivation

According to Yule (1996: p 57), derivation is the most common word-formation, and it is commonly changing the word classes. This process is about adding morpheme to the stem and root to create a new word that is changing the meaning of the previous word. The morpheme which added, is part of affixes. It can be prefix or suffix. Prefix is affixation that added to the beginning of the root while suffixes attached to the ends of the root. The examples of derivation are “*meaningful, untouchable, happiness, joyful and careless*”. From the example above, we can see that the word *untouchable* has root *touch* with prefix *un-* and suffix *-able*.

Inflection

Inflection happened when the affixes were added to the base, and it did not change the part of speech (Bauer, 2003, p.14). Affixes which are added to the root are commonly a suffix that did not change the word class so that it can be considered as inflection. At the same time, Hatch & Brown (1995, p.285) stated that inflection is a word-formation process by adding affixes to create a new form without changing the word class or meaning. It means affixes produced a new word-form but did not change the meaning. The example is *he writes a poem* the suffix *-s* did not change the word class and the meaning is still the same.

Blending

Blending is a process of word-formation where two words with meaning picked up into one word (Bauer, 2003, p.46). It can be considered that the two words can be joined together in order to create a new word. While according to Hatch and Brown (1995, p.211) blending is a way of forming a word by joining the non-morphemic parts of two words that have existed. It means that the word that is used to blend is lexeme which already has meaning, and it has been listed in the dictionary. The examples of blending are “*brunch, toytoons, and motel*”. *Brunch* is breakfast and lunch, *toytoons* is toys and cartoon, while *motel* is motor and hotel. Those are the examples of blending two words by taking particular parts of the two words.

Reduplication

Reduplication is a word-formation process that uses some parts of the base more than once in a word (Bauer, 2003, p.31). It means that reduplication happened when part of the word is used more than once. According to Giyatmi et al. (2004), it is from reduplicate which means repeating the whole or partial words, the examples are very-very and hanky-panky. Reduplication also might use the entire word. The part of the word which is doubled can be affixed too. The example is “*anak-anak*” which in Indonesian language describing that there are many kids.

Abbreviation and Acronym

Abbreviation commonly formed by taking an initial letter of multi-word in order to create a new word (Plag, 2003, p.126). According to Bauer (1983, p.237), acronym is a word-formation process that takes initial letters of words such as in title or phrases to create a new term. Moehkardi (2016) also stated that acronym might consist of initial letters, non-initial letters, and mixture of initial and non-initial letters. Acronyms are words formed by the word-formation process in which the initial letter is pronounced as a word (Mustafa, Kandasamy, and Yasin, 2015). It means that the acronym required the new words from the initial letters or non-initial letters to be pronounced as words, not as a series of words. The examples are “*PIN*” which is personal identification number.

Borrowing

Borrowing is the most common word-formation process in English which supported by Katamba (1993), who stated that English has borrowed loanwords from a great number of languages. According to Yule (1995, p.55), borrowing is a part of word-formation that takes over a word from other languages. Multazim & Nurdin (2019) stated that borrowing is a word-formation process that is adopting word foreign language. It means that the lexical items can be adopted from another language. Katamba (1993) also stated that “it is possible to add to the lexicon of the language indefinitely by pillaging the vocabulary of other languages”. The examples are “*port*” which comes from *portus* ‘harbor’ in Latin, *artery* which comes from *arteri* in Greek.

Coinage

According to Yule (2006:53), coinage is a new word that has not existed before. Usually, it comes from the name of a commercial product and becomes a general product. While according to O’Grady and Guzman (1996, p.160), coinage or called word manufacture is a new word created from names or brands. It is common in cases where the industry needs a name for a product. The examples of coinage are “Honda and Odol”. Indonesians commonly coinage the toothpaste as Odol and Honda as motorcycle while those words are the name of brands.

Back-formation

Backformation is one of the word-formations which commonly happened in every field. According to Bauer (2003, p.39) “where the element subtracted is (or looks like) a morph with an independent existence elsewhere in the language, and especially where the process is derivational one, we talk of backformation”. It means that backformation might be indicated when the morph is independent and usually becomes part

of a derivational stand alone with meaning. Examples of backformations are “donate and babysit”. Those are from words donation and babysitting.

Clipping

Clipping is a process of shortening a word without changing the meaning and the part of speech or the word class (Bauer, 2003, p.40). While Yule (2016:56) stated that the reduction of words that more obvious than blending in the processed is called clipping. It happens when a word that has more than one syllable is reduced into one syllable. While according to O’Grady & Guzman (1995, p.157), clipping is the process that shortens or takes away one or more syllables of a word. The examples of clipping are “phone, plane, and cab.”. They are clipped from “handphone, airplane, and cabinet”. Sometimes people also clip names such as *Al, El, Mike, Jo, and Dave*.

The Jakarta Post

The Jakarta Post is an Indonesian daily newspaper that uses English to deliver their news. This newspaper is owned by PT Niskala Media Tenggara and located in [Jakarta](#). *The Jakarta Post* also has online edition news on their website that can be freely accessed by everyone. It also has a weekend magazine supplement called J+. In 2006, the Reporters Union of Indonesia recognized *The Jakarta Post* as one of the Indonesian newspapers which became the best newspaper because it followed [journalism ethics and standards](#).

Method

This research belongs to qualitative research because the data is in the form of words instead of numeric or measurement. It is done to understand social phenomena, social being used in a broad sense (Wiersma, 1991, p. 13). Therefore, the data of this research belong to the qualitative research since they were interpreted using description, and they were gathered and analyzed by using document or content analysis technique.

Corbin and Strauss stated that “document analysis is a systematical procedure for reviewing or evaluating documents both printed and electronic (computer-based and Internet-transmitted) material” (in Bowen, 2009). Same to other analytical methods, the data in the document analysis should be examined and interpreted to gain understanding and define the elicited meaning of the data.

Downe-Wambolt (1992) states that “content analysis is a research method that provides a systematic and objectives means to make a valid inference from verbal, visual, or written data in order to describe and qualify specific phenomena”. By using content analysis the researcher then looked for the medical lexical items that appeared in *The Jakarta Post*’s articles. The researcher then used 11 articles from 20 February – 1 March 2020. The researcher decided to take the 11 articles from 20 February to 1 March because it was the period of the outbreak of a global pandemic coronavirus worldwide. The researcher then made systematic tables to make the data more organized and understandable.

There are seven dictionaries used in this research. There are two medical dictionaries used in this research; they are Dictionary of Medical Terms 4th edition and Dorland’s Illustrated Medical Dictionary 32nd edition. These dictionaries needed to determine the medical lexical items. The other dictionaries that used in this research are English Oxford dictionary (in <https://www.oed.com/>), Longman Dictionary of

Contemporary English (in <https://www.ldoceonline.com/>), Etymology Dictionary (in <https://www.etymonline.com/>). Cambridge Dictionary (in <https://dictionary.cambridge.org/>), and Merriam-webster Dictionary (in <https://www.merriam-webster.com/>). Those dictionary used in this research to determine and analyze the data. They are used to compare the lexical items or the words to make sure that the lexical items are valid and listed in the dictionaries. Besides that, the researcher also uses the National Library of Medicine to determine the drug and the chemical name of it. It can be accessed at <https://www.nlm.nih.gov/>.

Findings and Discussion

Types of word-formation that occurred in *The Jakarta Post*'s health articles

There are ten types of word-formation, according to Bauer (2003) and Yule (2006) that become the foundation of this study. However, from the data found in *The Jakarta Post*'s articles, there are nine types of word-formation that occurred in the articles as seen in the table below.

Table 1: The percentage of word-formation found in *The Jakarta Post*'s articles

No.	Types of Word-formation	Frequencies	The Percentage of Each Type
1.	Compounding	18	10.9%
2.	Derivation	78	47.3%
3.	Blending	5	3.0%
4.	Acronym	12	7.3%
5.	Borrowing	20	12.1%
6.	Inflection	28	17.0%
7.	Back-formation	1	0.6%
8.	Clipping	3	1.8%
	Total	165	100%

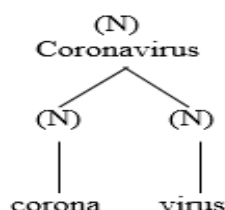
The table above shows the types of word-formation process of medical lexical items which is involved in *The Jakarta Post* articles. There are 148 lexical items with the classification of the word-formation process. Those words or lexical items were taken from 11 articles with the tag of health in *The Jakarta Post*. There are eight types of word-formation involved in the articles. They are compound, derivation, blending, acronym, borrowing, inflection, back-formation, and clipping. The highest frequency of word-formation that occurred is derivation with 78 medical lexical items and 53,2% for the percentage. Therefore, the most dominant type word-formation of medical lexical items found in *The Jakarta Post* articles is derivation.

Discussion

Based on the data above, the researcher will discuss several types of word-formation of the lexical items. The lexical items were chosen by the researcher based on the lexical items that uncommonly occurred in daily life. There are 20 lexical items to be discussed. It is based on three topics that occurred on 20 February to 1 March 2020. The process of analyzing the data is divided into four steps according to morphology structural processes which are: identifying morpheme, word-formation, morphophonology process, and dictionary.

Compounding

CASE 1: Coronavirus,



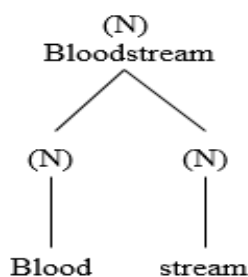
The compounding of the words coronavirus: corona + virus

A word can have more than one morpheme, the word *coronavirus* consists of two morphemes. They are *corona* and *virus*. These morphemes are free morphemes which can occur by themselves and have a meaning as words. The morphemes are classified as a noun. The word *corona* is borrowed from Latin language which means *crown* or *garland*. The word *corona* were borrowed from Latin which means ‘the body structure which shaped like a crown’. In the other hand *virus* is borrowed from Latin language which means *poison*.

This compounding process happens when there are two free morphemes. In this case, *corona* and *virus* are joined together and created a new lexeme *coronavirus*. The process is considered as a process of compounding. In this case, a noun is combined with a noun to create a new lexeme. When the noun *corona* and *virus* combined into *coronavirus*, it is still classified as a noun.

There is no process of morphophonology happened in this word development. The process does not affect the pronunciation of the new lexeme when it is joined together. It is still the same as the pronunciation of *corona* and *virus* when they are separated. Furthermore, the word *coronavirus* is already listed in the dictionary as a lexeme and has meaning in Dorland’s medical dictionary which is ‘a genus of viruses of the family Coronaviridae that cause respiratory disease and possibly gastroenteritis in humans, and hepatitis, gastroenteritis, encephalitis, and respiratory disease in other animals. In newborn calves and lambs, it causes neonatal diarrhea’.

CASE 2: Bloodstream,



The compounding of the words bloodstream: blood + stream

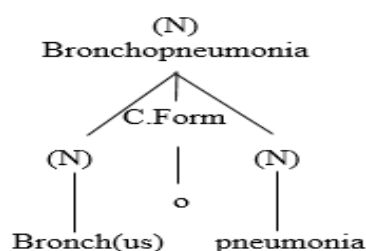
The word *bloodstream* can be considered having two morphemes. They are *blood* and *stream*. Those morphemes are categorized as a noun. Each morpheme is considered as free morpheme that can stand alone and have meaning by itself. It is supported by the fact that the word *blood* and *stream* have been listed in the dictionary as a lexeme.

The word-formation process happens when two free morphemes are joined together to create a new word. In this case, the word *blood* and *stream* are combined together and generate a new lexeme that has meaning. This process is considered as a compounding process. This case shows that the noun is combined with a noun. The compounding process of *blood* and *stream* which becomes *bloodstream* does not change the part of speech of it. The new lexeme is still classified as a noun.

There is no process of morphophonology that happens in this new lexeme. The two morphemes do not affect the development of the word. It is still pronounced the same as the separated word of *blood* and *stream*. Furthermore, the word *bloodstream* has been listed in the dictionary as “the flow of blood around the body.”. The specific meaning in the medical dictionary is “the blood flowing round the body.”.

Derivation

CASE 3: Bronchopneumonia



The derivation process of the word bronchopneumonia:

branch(us) + o + pneumonia

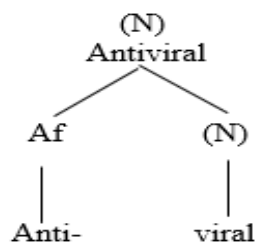
The word *bronchopneumonia* has two morphemes. It comes from Greek and Latin language, where the medical lexical item was created. The morphemes are *bronchus*, and *pneumonia* which are free morphemes that can stand alone without any additional affixes. It was supported by Sanders (2012) in his dictionary, who considers that *bronchopneumonia* has two morphemes. Based on its etymology in etymonline.com *branch* comes from the word *brankhos* (Greek) and *bronchus* (Latin) which means *throat* in English. While *pneumonia* in Latin was borrowed from Greek *pneumon* which means *lung* and attached to the suffix *-ia* which was then used in Greek as *pneumonia* or lung disease. Then it is borrowed until now as *pneumonia*. The morphemes is combined together into the word *bronchopneumonia*.

The process of word-formation that can be seen in this lexical item is compounding. The process occurs when the prefix *branch-* and *-pneumonia* are combined together. It generated a new different meaning when those roots are separated. In this case, the noun of *branch(us)* and *pneumonia* are combined to create a new lexeme. This process is categorized as derivation, and the lexeme is still classified as a noun.

There is a morphological process that happened in this lexical item. The words are pronounced differently when they are separated because when it is compound, there no is part of the word which is removed. Furthermore, the lexical item *bronchopneumonia* has been listed in the dictionary with the meaning “pneumonia involving many relatively small areas of lung tissues. Specifically, in Dorland’s Medical Dictionary, it means ‘an inflammation of the lungs that begins in the terminal

bronchioles, which become clogged with a mucopurulent exudate forming consolidated patches in adjacent lobules.’.

CASE 4: Antiviral



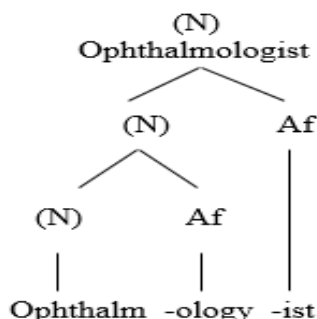
The derivation process of the words antiviral: anti+viral

It can be seen that the word *antiviral* has two morphemes. They are *anti-* and *viral*. The prefix *anti-* is considered as a bound morpheme that cannot stand alone with a meaning. While the morpheme *viral* is considered as a free morpheme that can stand alone even without prefix *anti-*. The morpheme of *anti-* and *viral* cannot be divided into smaller unit any further. It confirms that the word has two morphemes.

This word-formation occurs when the prefix is added to a root. In this case, the prefix *anti-* is added to the root of the word which is *viral*. The process of adding a prefix to the root generates a new word with a meaning. The meaning will be different when the prefix and the root are separated. However, the process of this word-formation is called derivation. In this case, the affix (prefix) is combined with the noun. It creates a new lexeme *antiviral* which classified as a noun.

There is no process of morphophonology seen in this word-formation. The two morphemes are not affected by the development of the word, so it is still pronounced the same as the word when they are separated. The word *antiviral* has been listed in the dictionary with the meaning “a treatment which used to cure an infection or disease caused by a virus.” and in the medical dictionary is almost similar which is “a drug or treatment which stops or reduce the damage caused by a virus”.

CASE 5: Ophthalmologist



The derivation process of the words ophthalmologist: ophthalmology + ist

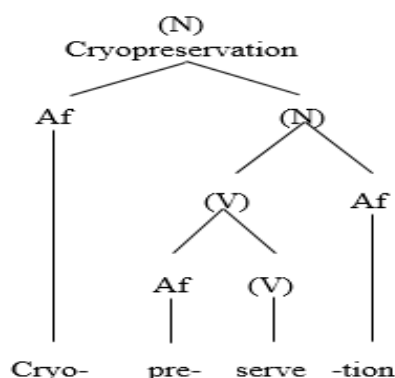
The word *ophthalmologist* consists of two morphemes. A word may consist of more than one morpheme. In this case, the morphemes are *ophthalmology*, and *-ist*. If we take a look closer into the etymology in etymonline.com, *ophthalm* from Greek language which means ‘eye’ is a word root in medical terminology. While *-ology* means ‘a study’ is a suffix. *Ophthalmology* has its own meaning which is ‘a study of

eye and its disease’. In the word *ophthalmology* it can be seen there is a word development from ‘noun (*ophthalm*) + (*ology*) suffix’ which then becomes noun *ophthalmology*. In the other hand suffix *-ist* is a bound morpheme. It cannot stand alone with meaning and it should be attached to a root.

The process happens when a suffix is attached to a root and created a new meaning. The suffix *-ist* added to a root *ophthalmology* generated a new meaning. The meaning will be different when the suffix and the root are separated. This process is called derivation.

There is no morphophonology process that happens in the word-formation. The way to pronounce the new lexeme is the same when the words are separated or joined. The pronunciation of the morpheme is not affected by the combination of the word. The word *ophthalmologist* has been listed in the dictionary with the meaning “a doctor who specializes in the study of the eye and its disease.”.

CASE 6: Cryopreservation



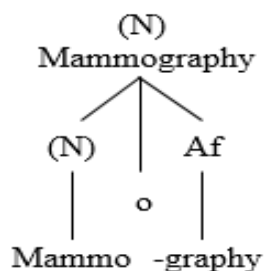
The derivational process of the word cryopreservation: cryo + pre + serve + tion

The word *cryopreservation* consists of four free and bound morphemes as the smallest meaningful unit. They are *cryo-*, *pre-*, *serve*, and *-tion*. There are double prefixes in the word which is *cryo-* and *pre-*. If we check it closer to the etymology in etymonline.com, the prefix *cryo-* comes from Greek language which means ‘cold’ and the other prefix is *pre-*. They are bound morphemes that cannot stand alone with meaning, and they need to be added to a root. While *serve* is a free morpheme that can stand alone with a meaning even there are no affixes added to it. The suffix of the word is *-tion* which is a bound morpheme that cannot stand alone with a meaning. When the prefix *-pre* is joined to the root *serve*, it creates a new word *preserve* which classified as a verb, and it means ‘to [save](#) something or someone from being [harmed](#) or [destroyed](#)’ in Longman Dictionary. Then it is added a suffix *-tion*. It becomes *preservation* which is mean ‘the act of keeping something the same or of preventing it from being damaged’. It is formed by a noun that added a prefix and suffix.

The word-formation process happened when the affixes were added to the root. In this case the prefix *cryo-* and *pre-* are added to the root *serve-* and the suffix *-tion* is attached to the root. The word-formation process generates a new meaning. There is no process of morphophonology which happens in this case. The pronunciation reminds the same as the separated words. Moreover, the lexical item has been listed in the

dictionary with the meaning “preservation (as of cell) by subjection to extremely low temperature”.

CASE 7: Mammography,



The derivation process of the words **mammography**: **mamm(a) + o + graphy**

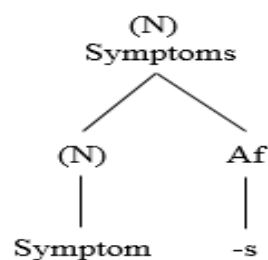
The word *mammography* can be considered as having two morphemes. They are free and bound morphemes. A word may consist of more than one morpheme. In this case, the morphemes are *mammo-*, *-graphy*. The word *mammo-* is from Latin *mamma* which means *breast* which is then added combination form ‘o’ to connect to the suffix. The morpheme *-graphy* is considered as a bound morpheme that cannot stand alone without any root or free morpheme. The morpheme *-graphy* was borrowed from Greek through Latin and France. It has a meaning ‘write’ in etymonline.com. There is a word development that can be seen in the term. It is a noun which is added a suffix.

The word-formation process that can be seen in the word *mammography* where the suffix is attached to a root and it changes the meaning is called derivation. In this case the suffix is *-graphy* based on its etymology and the word root is *mammo-* which comes from *mamma* in Greek and Latin. The process of the word-formation generates a new meaning or a lexeme.

The morphophonological process that happened in this word-formation can be found when the word was joined together. The way to pronounce the new lexeme is different when they are separated. Furthermore, the word *mammography* has been listed in the Dorland’s Medical Dictionary with the meaning ‘radiography of the mammary gland’.

Inflection

CASE 8: Symptoms,



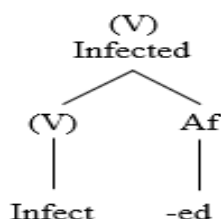
The inflectional process of the words **symptoms**: **symptom + -s**

It can be seen that the lexical item *symptoms* has two morphemes. They are free and bound morpheme. The morphemes are *symptoms* and *-s*. Free morpheme is a morpheme that can stand alone with meaning even without any affixes added to it, and

bound morpheme cannot stand alone without free morpheme. In this case, based on Longman Dictionary in www.idoceonline.com the lexeme *symptom* is borrowed from Latin *Symptoma* which also from Greek with a meaning ‘something that happened, symptom’. In the other hand suffix *-s* is added to the root *symptom*, and it becomes plural which means more than one. The process of word-formation does not change the word class, *symptoms* is still a noun even when it is added a suffix. The word-formation process where a suffix is added to a root and did not change the word class is called inflection.

There is a morphonological process that happened in the lexical item. The pronunciation is different when the morphemes are separated. Furthermore, the lexical item *symptom* has been listed in the Dictionary of Medical Terms with the meaning ‘a change in the way body works or a change in body’s appearance, which shows that a disease or disorder in present and which the person is aware of’.

CASE 8: Infected,

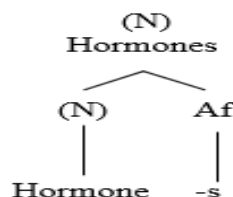


The inflectional process of the words infected: infect + ed

The lexical item *infected* can be considered as having two morphemes. They are free and bound morphemes. The morphemes are *infect* and *-ed*. *Infect* is a free morpheme that can stand alone without any additional affixes. According to Longman Dictionary in www.idoceonline.com *infect* is from Latin in past participle of *inficere* which means ‘to dip in, to stain’. Then it comes to English with the meaning ‘to contaminate someone or something with microorganism that cause disease or toxins’ in Dictionary of Medical Terms fourth edition. The suffix *-ed* in the lexical item is a past participle which indicates that the lexical item is a verb.

The process of adding a suffix to a root and does not change the meaning is called as inflection. In this case, the suffix *-ed* is added to the root *infect* which then it does not create a new lexeme *infected*. There is a morphophonological in this word-formation. It is because the word is pronounced differently when they are separated. Furthermore, the lexical item has been listed in the Merriam-Webster Dictionary in www.merriam-webster.com with a meaning ‘having an infection : contaminated with an infective agent (such as a bacterium or virus)’.

CASE 8: hormones



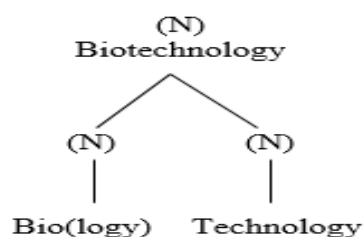
The inflectional process of the words hormones: hormone+ -s

In the lexical item *hormones* can be seen two morphemes that are free and bound morpheme. The morphemes are *hormone* and *–s*. *Hormone* is borrowed from Greek *hormone* which means ‘to cause, to move around’ in Longman Dictionary on www.idoceonline.com. Then it is added a suffix *–s* which indicated a plural noun.

In this case, where a suffix is added to a root and create a new root which does not change the word class is called inflection. The suffix *–s* is added to the root *hormone* which becomes *hormones*. There is a morphophonological process that happened in this word-formation. The pronunciation will be different when they are separated because there is addition (s) sound in the new word. Furthermore, the lexical item has been listed in the Dictionary of Medical Terms fourth edition with a meaning ‘a substance which is produced by one part of the body, especially the endocrine glands and is carried to another part of the body by the bloodstream where it has particular effects or functions’.

Blending

CASE 8: Biotechnology

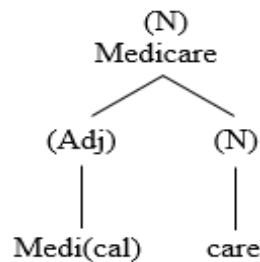


The blending process of the words biotechnology: Bio(logy) + technology

The term *biotechnology* can be considered as having two morphemes. They are *biology* and *technology*. They are free morphemes that can stand by themselves to have a meaning. The lexeme can be found in the dictionary. In this case, the word *bio* was taken from lexeme *biology* combined with the word *technology*. The process of joining two words by taking the beginning or the end of the words is called the blending process. In this case, the word *biology* is joined to the word *technology* by taking the beginning of the word *biology*. The word development can be seen when a noun blends to another noun to create a new word. The word *biotechnology* is classified as a noun.

There is no process of morphophonology in the development of the word. The pronunciation will be different on the word *bio*, and it will be the same as when the word as a free morpheme that can stand alone with the meaning. Furthermore, the word *biotechnology* has been listed in the dictionary which the meaning is “the use of living things, especially cells and bacteria, in industrial processes.”.

CASE 9: Medicare



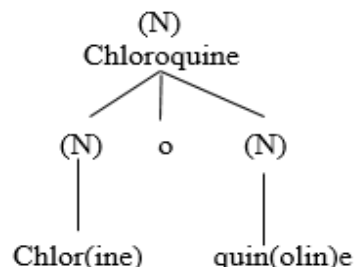
The blending process of the words *medicare*: *medi(cal)* + *care*

The word *medicare* consists of two morphemes joined together. They are free morphemes that can stand alone without affixes attached to them. The word *medi*- is from *medical* that was taken its part to blend with another word. While the word *care* is free morpheme that is completely taken to blend with another word. Moreover, the words have been listed in the dictionary as a lexeme. In Cambridge and Merriam-Webster dictionary, *medical* means ‘the [treatment](#) of [illness](#) and [injuries](#)’ and *care* means ‘a disquieted state of mixed uncertainty, apprehension, and responsibility. It means that those words stand alone with meaning.

The process of word-formation that can be seen here is blending because the word is made up from two words into one word by taking a particular part of the words. In this case the word *medical* is taken its beginning part of the word which is *medi*- and made up together with the word *care*. This process generates a new lexeme, and this word-formation process is called blending. The word development that can be seen in *medicare* is ‘adjective + noun’ then creates a new lexeme which classified as a noun.

The development of the word is affected to the morphophonology in words. There is a different way to pronounce the word because there are some parts that are removed. It will be different when those words are separated. Furthermore, the word *medicare* has been listed in the Dorland’s Medical Dictionary with the meaning ‘program administered by the Social Security Administration which provides medical care for the aged’.

CASE 10: Chloroquine,



The blending process of the words *chloroquine*: *chlor(ine)* + *o* + *quin(olin)e*

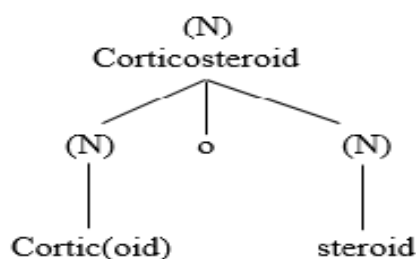
The word *cholroquine* can be considered as having two morphemes. They are *chlorine* and *quinoline* which are connected by combining form ‘o’ in order to create the words. The two morphemes are considered as free morpheme. It is combined from the chemical name of a drugs. Based on National Library of Medicine, the morpheme *chlor*- comes from the word *chlorine* which is a chemical element. While a morpheme

quin(e) is from the word *quinoline* which is also a chemical element. While based on its etymology in etymonline.com, *khloros* (Greek) means ‘pale green’ which is a color, and it was coined to chlorine by a British chemist, and it was known as a name of chemical element nowadays.

The word-formation process where two words are combined by taking part of the word and attached to another part of a word is called blending. In this case, the lexical item *chloroquine* took the beginning part of *chlorine* which is *chlor-* and took the beginning part of *quinoline* which is *-quin(e)*. Those parts were combined together with a combining form ‘o’. This process of word-formation is called blending.

The word development of the word *chloroquine*, where a noun is combined with a noun creates a new lexeme that classified as a noun. There is a morphophonological process that happened in the lexical item. The pronunciation is different when the words were separated because the words are combined together and there are several missing parts. Furthermore, the lexical item *chloroquine* has been listed in the Dorland’s medical dictionary which the meaning is ‘a 4-aminoquinoline compound with antiinflammatory and antiprotozoal properties, used for the suppression and treatment of malaria, for the treatment of giardiasis and extra intestinal amebiasis, for suppression of lupus erythematosus, and as an anti-inflammatory in the treatment of rheumatoid arthritis; administered orally’.

CASE 11: Corticosteroid,



The blending process of the words corticosteroid: cortic(oid) + o + steroid

The word *corticosteroid* can be considered as having two morphemes. They are *cortico=* which comes from Greek *cortico* and the word *steroid* which also comes from Greek. Those words are chemical elements which are commonly used as a drug. They are free morphemes that can stand alone, but when they are blended, they become a bound root which was mentioned by Plag (2003) before.

The word-formation process, when two words are combined together into one word and create new meaning is considered as blending. In this case the word-formation that occurred is when *cortico* and *steroid* are blended together and create a new word. The meaning of the new word form is different from when it was separated. The word development can be seen when a noun blend with a noun to create a new lexeme. The new lexeme is considered as a noun.

There is a morphophonological process that happened in the development of the word. It is pronounced differently from when the words are separated because there are other parts that being removed. Furthermore, the lexical item has been listed in the Dorland’s Medical Dictionary as ‘any of the 21-carbon steroids elaborated by the adrenal cortex (excluding the sex hormones of adrenal origin) in response to corticotropin (ACTH) released by the pituitary gland or to angiotensin II’.

Abbreviation and Acronym

CASE 12: WHO,

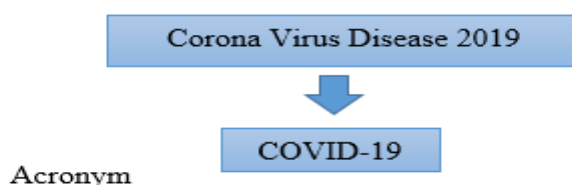


The acronym of word-formation process of the lexical item

The word *WHO* can be seen having a free morpheme. The morpheme is *WHO* itself. The word *WHO* can stand alone without any additional affixes. *WHO* stands for *World Health Organization* which was taken the initial letter of the word to create a new word. The word-formation process where the initial letter of the words were taken to create a new word is a word-formation process which called abbreviation and acronym. In this process the word-formation of *WHO* is considered as an abbreviation. It is because the word is pronounced as a series of letters. If it is pronounced as a word, then the word *WHO* will be considered as an acronym.

The word-formation process affected to the morphophonological process because the word was pronounced differently. Furthermore, the word has been listed in the dictionary.

CASE 13: COVID-19,

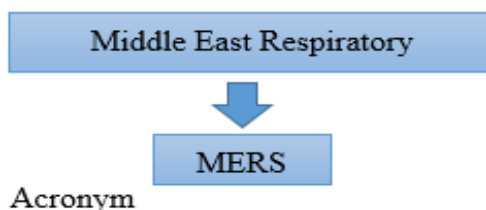


The acronym of word-formation process of the lexical item

The word-formation process that can be seen in the word can be considered having a single morpheme, which is *COVID-19*. A word-formation process where the initial letter and part of every words was taken to create a new lexeme is considered as abbreviation and acronym. As it has been mentioned before, the difference between abbreviation and acronym is the way to pronounce the word. In this case, where the lexeme is pronounced as a word instead of series of letters it will be considered as acronym. *COVID-19* stands for *Corona Virus Disease 2019*.

There is a morphophonological process that occurred in the word-formation process. The new word is pronounced as a set of words instead of a series of letters. This new word has been listed in several dictionaries such as in Cambridge dictionary (dictionary.cambridge.org) with a meaning ‘an [infectious disease caused](#) by a coronavirus (= a [type](#) of [virus](#)), that usually [causes fever](#), [tiredness](#), and a [cough](#), and can also [cause breathing problems](#)’.

CASE 14: MERS,

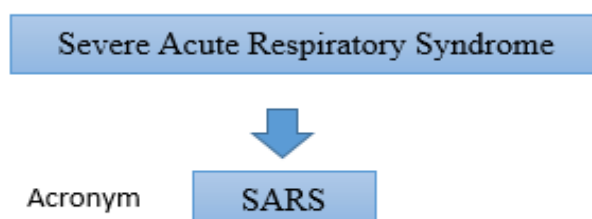


The acronym of word-formation process of the lexical item

The word-formation process in the lexical item *MERS* can be considered having a single free morpheme which is *MERS* itself. The word-formation process where the initial letter of every word was taken to create a new word is considered as abbreviation and acronym. As it has been mentioned above the difference of abbreviation and acronym is the way to pronounce the initial letter of the word. The initial letter of words are pronounced as a word instead of a series of letters is considered an acronym. In this case, the *Middle East Respiratory Syndrome* was taken its initial to create a new word, and it is pronounced as a word, not a series of letters. This word-formation process is called an acronym.

There is a morphophonological process that occurred in the word-formation process. The new word is pronounced as a set of words. Furthermore, the word *MERS* has been listed in the Merriam Webster dictionary with the meaning of ‘a serious viral respiratory illness that is marked by fever, cough, and shortness of breath and that may often progress to severe pneumonia with acute respiratory distress syndrome and organ failure’.

DATA 15: SARS,



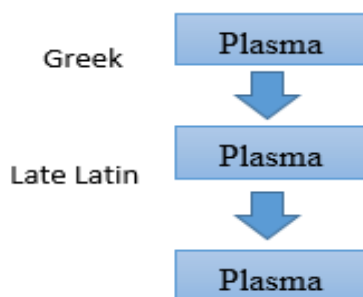
The acronym of word-formation process of the lexical item

The word *SARS* can be considered as having one free morpheme which is *SARS* itself. It can stand alone without any additional affixes. The word *SARS* is from *Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome*. The word-formation process, where the initial letter of the words was taken to create a new word, is defined as abbreviation and acronym. The difference between them is how to pronounce the word. Abbreviation requires reading the word as a series of letters while the acronym is read and pronounced as a word. In this case, the word *SARS* is pronounced as a word not a series of letters. It can be considered that the word *SARS* is an acronym from *Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome*.

There is a morphophonological process in the word development of the word-formation process. The initial letters of each word are taken to create a new word and it affected how it is pronounced. Furthermore, the word SARS has been listed in the Merriam Webster dictionary as ‘a severe respiratory illness that is caused by cornonavirus’.

Borrowing

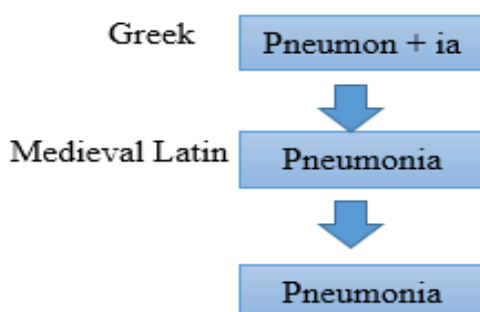
DATA 16: Plasma,



The borrowing process of the lexical item

The word *plasma* consists of a free morpheme that can stand itself. The morpheme is *plasma* itself. It does not need any affixes to have meaning. The word *plasma* comes from Greek lexical items and Late Latin *plasma* which means *mold* or *shaped* as it is listed in the etymonline.com. The process of this word-formation which was taken over a word from other languages, is called the borrowing process. There is no morphophonological process that happened in the word. It is pronounced the same as the Latin. The word has been listed in the dictionary which is “the pale yellow liquid that forms 55% of human blood and contains the blood cells”.

DATA 17: Pneumonia,

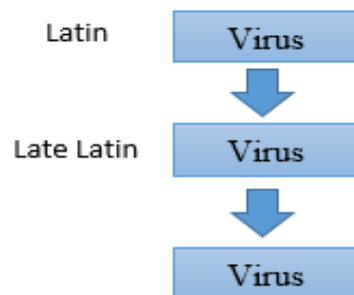


The borrowing process of the lexical item

The word *pneumonia* consists of a morpheme. It is a free morpheme that can stand alone with a meaning. The morpheme does not need any affixes to have meaning. Based on www.etymonline.com, *pneumonia* comes from Greek terms *pneumon* which means ‘lung’ attached to the suffix *-ia*. Then it is borrowed by Latin language into *pneumonia* which means ‘lung disease or inflammation of the lung’ and used in

English and Indonesia to describe the name of a disease. The word *pneumonia* is used in the medical lexical item until now. The process of taking over a word from other language is called the borrowing process. This process caused a process of morphophonology which happened in the word development. The pronunciation is different between the Latin languages of *pneumonia* with the pronunciation of *pneumonia* today. The lexical item has been listed in the dictionary which the meaning “a serious illness in which one or both lungs become red and swollen and filled with liquid” while in the medical dictionary it means “inflammation of a lung, where the tiny alveoli become filled with fluid”.

DATA 18: Virus,



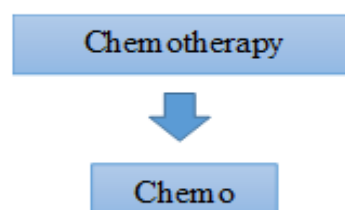
The borrowing process of the lexical item

The word clearly consists of a morpheme. It is a free morpheme that can stand alone without any affixes to have meaning. The morpheme itself is *virus*. It comes from Latin language *virus* which means ‘poison, slime, venom’. The word is borrowed from Latin language to English. This process is called borrowing. There is a process of morphophonology that happened in this word development. The word *virus* is pronounced differently when it is in Latin and English language. *Virus* itself has been listed in the dictionary which the meaning is “an extremely small pieces of organic material that causes disease in humans, animals, and plants” while in the medical dictionary it means “a parasite consisting of a nucleic acid surrounded by a protein coat that can only develop in other cells. Virus cause many disease including common cold, AIDS, herpes and polio”.

Back-formation

Clipping

CASE 19: Chemo



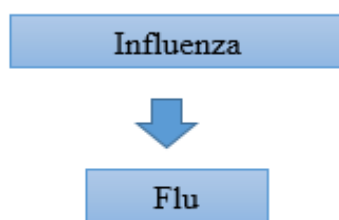
The clipping process of the lexical item

The word *chemo* can be considered as having one free morpheme. It can stand alone with meaning, even without affixes. It is from the word *chemotherapy* which means ‘the treatment of disease using chemical.’. The word *chemical* which joined together with other word which is *therapy* and generates a new meaning. The words were joined by the combining vowel ‘o’ to connect the words.

The word-formation process that can be seen in the lexical item is the morph which exists in the other languages and seems like part of word with its meaning. This word-formation process of shortening a word to create a new word is called clipping.

There is a process of morphophonology that happens in this word-formation. The beginning of the word part was taken to create a new word. The pronunciation of *chemo* is still the same but another part of the word was taken away. The process of the word-formation does not create a new meaning. The meaning is still the same as *chemotherapy*. In the Dorland’s Medical Dictionary *chemo-* means ‘a combining form denoting relationship to chemistry, or to a chemical’.

DATA 20: Flu,



The clipping process of the lexical item

The word *flu* consists of a morpheme. It is considered as a free morpheme since the word can stand by itself with meaning even without affixes. *Flu* comes from the word *influenza* that has four syllables, and it is shortened into one syllable. *Influenza* itself was borrowed from Italian language *influenza*. *Influenza* is “an acute, highly contagious respiratory disease caused by any of virus”.

The process of reducing syllable in a word that has more than one syllable into a single syllable is called clipping. In this case, the word *influenza* is shortened into a single syllable which is *flu*. This process generates a new lexeme with meaning. There is a morphophonological process happening in this word-formation. The word is pronounced differently after the word is clipped. Furthermore, the word has been listed in the dictionary which the meaning is “a common infectious illness that causes fever and headache”.

Conclusion

The research was conducted in order to answer the research question (1) What word-formation processes of medical lexical items are involved in *The Jakarta Post* articles?, (2). How are the medical lexical items formed in *The Jakarta Post* articles?.

To answer the research question the researcher analyzed the data by classifying the word-formation using the theory of word-formation from Bauer (2003) and Yule (2006). The data was analyzed and the result showed that there were eight types of word-formation of medical lexical items found in the eleven *The Jakarta Post*’s Articles. They are compounding, derivation, blending, borrowing, acronym, inflection,

back-formation and clipping. The percentage of each types are 10.9% for compounding, 47.3% for derivation, 3.0 % for blending, 7.3% for abbreviation and acronym, 12.1% for borrowing, 17.0% for inflection, 0,6% for back-formation, and 1.8% is clipping. The total medical lexical items found in *The Jakarta Post*'s articles are 165 which is occurred 526 times in the 11 articles. Therefore the most dominant type found in the articles was derivation word-formation.

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POLITENESS STRATEGIES OF THE MAIN CHARACTERS IN *THE FAULT IN OUR STARS* NOVEL

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Abstract

This paper explored politeness strategies and resolved two research questions, namely what politeness strategies were applied by the main characters in *The Fault in Our Stars* novel and what factors influenced the use of politeness strategies by the main characters in the novel. Data, consisting of 263 utterances containing politeness strategies, were collected from *The Fault in Our Stars* novel and were analyzed using a document analysis method. Results showed that the main two characters, namely Augustus and Hazel, applied four politeness strategies, which were distributed as follows: positive politeness, as the most frequently-used strategy with a frequency of 100 utterances (38%), followed by off record, 59 utterances (22.4%), bald on record, 54 utterances (20.6%), and negative politeness, 50 utterances (19%). The strategies that were used by the two main characters were affected by two main factors, namely the payoffs and the circumstances or sociological variables.

Keywords: main character, payoff, politeness strategy, *The Fault in Our Stars*

Introduction

Communication is an essential aspect in every human's life. Miller (1951, p. 1) states that "communication is so pervasively important in all walks of life that every branch of the social sciences is concerned with it, studies it, and adds to the general fund of knowledge about it". Communication cannot be separated from language because language is a means of communication. Sari (2017, p. 15) states that "pragmatics is the study on how the speakers of a language use sentences to produce successful communication". Accordingly, people should have a pragmatic competence. Furthermore, according to Adel, Davoudi and Ramezanzadeh (2016), without the knowledge of pragmatic competence, there are circumstances where the collocutors are unable to understand each other which results in a communication failure. Hence, pragmatic competence is one of the competences that people need to learn in order to deal with the process of socializing in society.

Moreover, according to Sari (2017), learning pragmatics would help English learners to increase their awareness of socio-cultures. Thus, it is more likely for a person to make the communication flow smoothly because he or she learns pragmatics. According to Adel et al. (2016, p. 48), “one important aspect of pragmatic competence is politeness”. Mahmud (2018) states that effective communication is not merely about being able to deliver the messages but also to make the communication comfortable so that it creates solidarity and intimacy and this can be accomplished using politeness strategies. That is why the researchers would like to investigate politeness and its strategies in this research.

Politeness is a sociocultural phenomenon in which a person shows a consideration to others (Wang 2014) and it is often used to avoid an offense or misunderstanding. According to Herk (2012), politeness is behaving appropriately based on the situation. In addition, according to Rosari (2016), people ought to know who they are speaking to so that they would not be rude. For example, there is a difference on how a professor speaks to his students and how the students speak to the professor in a classroom, for example when the students make a request. To sum up, these days it is important to have pragmatic competence and knowing how to behave politely based on the situation, and thus, to avoid misunderstanding or a failure in communication between the speaker and the interlocutor.

Jiang notes that “in the context of language teaching, politeness is believed to enhance learning by providing a lively and friendly atmosphere in classroom” (as cited in Sülü, 2015, p. 216). Widiadnya, Seken and Santosa (2018) state that a politeness strategy has implications on teaching and learning process efficiency, respectful communication, cooperation interaction, less imposition in the teaching and learning process, and togetherness between the teacher and students. Therefore, the researchers decided to investigate politeness strategies because of their importance for English learners as well as society members. Studying politeness can help English language learners who are studying sociolinguistics as well as learning the culture of the second/foreign language. The novel entitled *The Fault in Our Stars* (2012) was chosen as the object of this study because of its popularity among young people and because of its rich data of politeness phenomena. In the novel, there are also many characters who have different ages, positions, and backgrounds. The researchers explored politeness strategies and their factors in the novel by analysing the utterances of the two main characters using the theory of politeness strategies proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987).

Based on the background of the study, two research questions are formulated as follows: First, what politeness strategies are applied by the main characters in *The Fault in Our Stars* novel? Second, what factors influence the use of politeness strategies by the main characters in *The Fault in Our Stars* novel?

Literature Review

Pragmatics

Stalnaker (1970) defines pragmatics as the study of linguistic acts and the context where they are applied. Furthermore, there are two major problems that can be solved within pragmatics: “defining interesting types of speech acts and speech products” and “characterizing the features of the speech context that help to

determine which proposition is expressed” (Stalnaker, 1970). Speech act is included in the scope of pragmatics. Speech act is the production of utterances based on the condition that is faced (Searle, 1974). Speech acts deal with how people use the language. Maskuri, Tarjana, Djatmika and Purnanto (2019, p. 87) conclude “the ultimate idea of speech act is that language not only illustrates phenomena in the factual world but also does things”. Therefore, the study of politeness is also related to speech acts. According to Austin (1962), three basic senses in which saying something means doing something are as follows: locutionary act, illocutionary act, and perlocutionary act.

Face threatening acts

According to Goffman (1967, p. 5), face is “the positive social value a person effectively claims for himself by the line others assume he has taken during a particular contact”. While making an interaction, people usually collaborate with each other in preserving face (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Furthermore, Amadi and Ken-Maduako (2019, p. 32) assert that “everyone has a face to save in daily interactions; it is therefore generally expected that people would not only provide interactional support to one another, but would also provide the expected affirmation”. It means that the speaker avoids making the addressee feel unpleasant. While the phrase “face wants” is defined as the desire to protect someone’s face (Herk, 2012), which is also known as “face needs”.

Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 62) propose two types of face: the first type is negative face or “the want of every competent adult member that his actions be unimpeded by others” and the second type is “positive face or the want of every member that his wants be desirable to at least some others”. Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 65) also note that the meaning of face threatening acts (FTAs) is “those acts that by nature is the contrary to the face wants of the addressee or of the speaker”. In addition, FTAs can be distinguished into two types, namely face threatened and threats to hearer’s face and face threatened and threats to speaker’s face (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

Positive FTAs threaten the hearer when the speaker expresses negative appraisalment on positive face of hearer’s face and when the speaker expresses insufficient care to the positive face of the hearer (Kedves, 2013). Meanwhile, the negative FTA can be threatening to the hearer when it gives a pressure on the hearer to do or not to do an action, conveys an intense negative opinion to hearer’s possession, and points out speaker’s positive future actions which force the hearer to decline or approve it (Kedves, 2013). Kedves (2013) notes that politeness is related to face and face work ideas for many scholars. A means is needed to reduce the cost of FTA. FTA menaces the stability of communication’s intensity, and in this case politeness can be regarded as a way to restore or prevent the damage of the FTA (Elisdawati, Husein & Setia, 2018).

Politeness strategies

Politeness is one of the restriction means for human behavior in order to help us in accomplishing an effective social living (Watts, Ide & Ehlich, 1992). Humans are social beings because they interact with each other to make a social

living. A limitation or constraint is needed in communication to make an effective social life since humans also have a sense of feeling. Sometimes, people feel threatened by what others are saying.

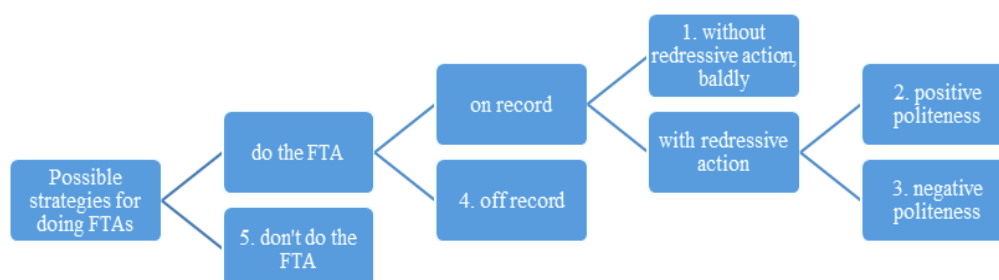


Figure 1. Possible strategies for doing FTAs (Brown & Levinson 1987)

Mills (2003) explains that politeness is an action to show respect toward the other person and to avoid offenses to the hearer. Therefore, politeness is one of the means in communication that can be used to avoid such an undesirable situation. Politeness helps us in controlling our manner and words. Thus, politeness is a means to keep people's interaction effective without hurting others by considering the situation.

In everyday communication, FTAs cannot be separated. There are several ways of doing the FTAs. Brown and Levinson (1987) propose four possible strategies for doing FTAs, namely: bald on record, positive politeness, negative politeness, and off record. Each of the four politeness strategies is presented below.

Bald on record

Bald-on-record strategies can be used to get a maximally efficient communication (Brown & Levinson, 1987). In addition, Sülü (2015, p. 217) points out that "bald on-record strategies focus on clarity and efficiency, and they do nothing to minimize threats to the hearer's face". Performing a bald action (without redress) means that it includes direct, clear, and brief words. Bald on record strategies are differentiated into two types depending on the motives, namely cases of "non-minimization of the face threat" and cases of "FTA-oriented bald-on-record usage" (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

The speaker (S) can decide to do a bald on record strategy without minimizing the FTAs in several cases, such as when maximum efficiency is very significant, where the speaker's desire to please hearer's face is small or because he wants to be rude, and where the FTA is mainly on hearer (H)'s stake like in advice or warnings (Brown & Levinson, 1987). According to Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 99), three areas where bald on record strategies are applied by focusing on the FTAs are: "1) welcoming, where the speaker insists that hearer may impose on his negative face; 2) farewells, where the speaker insists the hearer may overstep on his positive face; 3) offers, where speaker insists that the hearer may impose on speaker's negative face".

Positive politeness

Positive politeness strategies focus on the H's positive face and the potential face threatening act is minimized because commonly S wants some of the wants of H. The aim is to make the addressee feel good. Besides being used for redressing FTAs, this technique can also be a social accelerator means which shows the intention of the addresser to be closer to the addressee (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Positive politeness strategies are meant to hinder offence by emphasizing the friendliness (Kamlasi, 2017, p. 70). According to Brown and Levinson (1987), there are three mechanisms in positive politeness strategies and each mechanisms has its own sub- strategies. First, speakers claim "common ground and it can be done by noticing the hearer (his/her interests, wants, needs, goods), exaggerating (interest, approval, sympathy with the hearer), intensifying interest to hearer, using in-group identity markers, seeking agreement, avoid disagreement, presupposing/raising/asserting common ground, and joking" (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Second, speakers "convey that the speaker and hearer are co-operators which can be done by asserting or presupposing speaker's knowledge of and concern for hearer's wants, offering and promising, being optimistic, include both speaker and hearer in the activity, giving (or asking for) reasons, assuming or asserting reciprocity" (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Last, speakers "fulfill hearer's want for some X by giving gifts to a hearer" (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

Negative politeness

In contrast, negative politeness strategies primarily focus on satisfying partly the negative face of the hearer (Brown & Levinson, 1987). This strategy expects that the speaker will impress the hearer. Moreover, Febiyani and Fitriana (2019: 8) state that "negative politeness strategy deals with respect behavior". There is a social distance and awkwardness between S and H. Brown and Levinson (1987) note that negative politeness strategies are differentiated into five types, namely: 1) "be direct", 2) "don't presume/assume", 3) "don't coerce H", 4) "communicate S's want to not impinge on H", and 5) "redress other wants of H's derivative from negative face". Then, there are 10 sub-strategies of negative politeness. The 10 sub-strategies are as follows: be conventionally indirect, question & hedge, be pessimistic, minimize the size of imposition on hearer, give deference, apologize, impersonalize speaker and hearer, state the FTA as a general rule, nominalize, and go on record as incurring a debt or as not indebteding hearer.

Off record

In the off-record strategies, what the speaker says may have more than single clear attributable intention (Brown & Levinson, 1987). This strategy is also called an indirect strategy. Yasmeen, Jabeen and Akram (2014, p. 250) state that an off record strategy "takes some of the pressure off and tries to avoid the direct FTA". Therefore, by applying off record strategies, the speaker can avoid doing face threatening acts by letting the hearer interpret the message by himself. There are two mechanisms in this type. The first is "inviting conversational implicatures" and the second is "being vague or ambiguous". Inviting conversational implicatures means that a speaker must give clues and hope that the hearer will realize and

therefore can understand what the speaker intended to say (Brown & Levinson, 1987). In addition, according to Brown and Levinson (1987), S also can do the off record strategy by being vague/ambiguous.

Furthermore, based on Brown and Levinson (1987), there are four ways of doing off record politeness strategies. First is by violating maxim of relevance (making hints/clues, making association clues, and presupposing). Second is by violating quantity maxim (understating, overstating, and using tautologies). Third is by violating quality maxim (using contradiction, being ironic, using metaphors, and using rhetorical questions), and last is by violating manner maxim, by being ambiguous and vague, for example.

Factors influencing the use of politeness strategies

Using politeness strategies is not without any reasons. Some factors may influence the politeness strategies' choice. Basically, Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 68) claim that there are two main factors influencing the choice of politeness strategies and people or "any rational agent will tend to choose the same strategy if they face the same condition or situation". The first factor is intrinsic payoffs and the second one is circumstances or sociological variables.

The payoffs: A priori considerations

By performing on record strategies, S can enlist public pressure, get credit for honesty, get credit for being straightforward, avoid the probability of misunderstanding, and pay back in face (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Meanwhile, by performing the politeness strategies off record, the speaker can get honor for being thoughtful, smaller risk of entering the gossip biography act, avoid the possibility of face-damaging interpretation, and testing the hearer's feeling toward him (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Brown and Levinson (1987) state that by performing on record positive politeness strategies, the speaker can reduce the FTA by ensuring the hearer that they are the same kind, and have the same wants. Meanwhile, by performing on record negative politeness strategies, the speaker can show respect, avoid future debt, preserving social distance, and prevent the threat (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Finally, the fifth strategy choice is "don't do the FTA" which means that S avoids making an offence at all. However, the speaker cannot get the communication that he hoped for (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

The circumstances: Sociological variables

According to Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 244), "the seriousness of an FTA is assessed as a complex function of three variables, 'distance', 'power', and 'rating of imposition'". In short, there are two major factors that affect the use of politeness strategies, namely payoffs and circumstances. The speaker in the conversation may want to achieve some kind of result or effect by doing a certain strategy as what has been stated before. A speaker can also choose which politeness strategy to use if the hearer is someone who is closely related, or has a higher position. For example, someone can use a bald on record strategy to his little sister because they are closely related. There is more likely no hurt feeling between them.

Method

This study was qualitative research. Creswell (2014) notes that “qualitative research is an approach for exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to social or human problem”. Furthermore, Mohajan (2018, p. 7) points out that “the qualitative research data are descriptive, in the form of interview notes, observation records, and data are analysed inductively”. The primary data of the research, consisting of utterances, were collected from a novel. The researchers focused on the utterances said by the two main characters of *The Fault in Our Stars* novel, namely Augustus and Hazel. The utterances that were analysed were those related to Brown and Levinson’s (1987) theory of politeness strategies.

The novel *The Fault in Our Stars* was the primary data source for this document analysis or content analysis, which concentrates on analysing and construing a material that has been recorded in order to learn about human behaviour (Ary, Jacobs, Sorensen & Razavieh, 2010). The technical processes were reading and analysing the utterances in the novel, categorizing the utterances, and then writing the report based on the gathered data.

The subject of this research was the novel *The Fault in Our Stars* by John Green. There were 14 characters, but the researchers only focused on the two main characters of the novel because of big roles in the story. Moreover, the two main characters often used the politeness strategies in the conversations whether to a friend, parents, or other people. The first character was Hazel Grace Lancaster and she was the protagonist of this novel as well as the one who told the story. The second main character was Augustus Waters. He met Hazel from the Support Group. Just like Hazel, Augustus was a survivor of cancer but his case was an osteosarcoma.

There were two instruments in this research, namely human instruments and a document. According to Ary et al. (2010), in qualitative research, the people who investigate are the main instrument for collecting and analysing the data. Therefore, in this research, the researchers were the human instruments. Meanwhile, the document of this study was the novel *The Fault in Our Stars* by John Green. The novel consisted of 313 pages and was published in 2012. The researchers analysed the collected utterances and then categorized the utterances based on the types of politeness strategies and identified the factors influencing the application of the politeness strategies to answer the two research questions.

All of the utterances were collected from *The Fault in Our Stars* novel. The utterances were spoken by the two main characters, namely Hazel Lancaster and Augustus Waters. The researchers analysed the utterances that they said in the novel in order to find out the politeness strategies and what factors influence them in choosing the politeness strategies. The utterances were classified into four politeness strategies types according to Brown and Levinson’s (1987) theory, namely bald on record, positive politeness, negative politeness, and off record.

Then the factors were analysed based on Brown and Levinson’s (1987) theory as well. According to Brown and Levinson (1987), there are two main factors of using the politeness strategies: payoffs and sociological variables. Furthermore, the sociological variables consist of ‘social distance’, ‘relative power’, and ‘rating of imposition’ (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

Results and Discussion

Politeness strategies applied in The Fault in Our Stars novel

It was found that the two main characters in this novel, namely Hazel Grace Lancaster and Augustus Waters applied all four types of politeness strategies proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987). The politeness strategies types were bald on record, positive politeness, negative politeness, and off record. There were a total of 263 utterances of politeness strategies. The researchers found that the most commonly-used politeness strategies by the two main characters of *The Fault in Our Stars* were positive politeness strategies. Then, the positive politeness strategies were followed by off record strategies, bald on record strategies, and last negative politeness ones. The summary of the findings could be seen in Table 1.

Table 1. Politeness strategies of the main characters of *The Fault in Our Stars*

No.	Types of Politeness Strategies	Frequency	Percentage
1	Bald on record	54	20.6%
2	Positive Politeness	100	38%
3	Negative Politeness	50	19%
4	Off record	59	22.4%
Total		263	100%

Bald on record politeness strategies found in The Fault in Our Stars novel

In this strategy, the speaker's wants to do the FTA in a maximum efficiency was greater than pleasing the hearer and there were two cases in this context, namely "non-minimization of face threat" and "face threatening act oriented bald on record usage" (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Referring to Table 1, there were a total of 54 utterances (20.6%) of bald on record politeness strategies used by the main characters. Both main characters in *The Fault in Our Stars* novel applied bald on record politeness strategies based on two cases. The following excerpts were the examples:

Excerpt 1

Isaac : "If the bastards can't take the hostages, they just kill them and claim we did it".
 Augustus : "**Cover me!** *jumped out from behind the wall and raced toward the school*"

The **excerpt 1** above exemplified a bald on record politeness strategy where the face threat was not minimized. Brown and Levinson (1987: 95) state "if a maximum efficiency is very important and both of the speaker and hearer knew about this, the speaker can speak with no face redress to the hearer". In this dialogue, Augustus applied a bald on record politeness strategy towards his best friend (Isaac). This strategy was applied because at that time, there was a great urgency. Augustus felt the desperation of saving the kids in the game. In this case, the face threat was irrelevant. Furthermore, Isaac as Augustus's co-operator in the

game also had the same intention. Hence, he could demand Isaac to act quickly without minimizing the face threat toward him.

Excerpt 2

Augustus : “**Don’t you worry about me, Hazel Grace**”.
Hazel : “I’m sorry. You’ll be okay. It’ll be okay. I promise”.

On the other hand, **excerpt 2** was a bald on record politeness strategy which oriented on FTA. Excerpt 2 was a case where the imperative addressed to H’s hesitancy to exceed on the positive face of S. In the example above, Augustus told Hazel about the truth of his condition. It was actually bad but he kept it as secret until they were already in Amsterdam. Augustus uttered “don’t you worry about me, Hazel Grace” which allowed Hazel to transgress on his positive face.

Positive politeness strategies found in The Fault in Our Stars novel

According to Brown and Levinson (1987), a positive politeness strategy happens when the redress is directed to H’s positive face. Therefore, it could make the hearer feel good. In the novel, positive politeness strategies were the most frequently used by the main characters with a total of 100 utterances or 38% of the total (263 utterances). The positive politeness strategies were applied through various ways. The following were some examples of the sub-strategies of positive politeness applied by the main characters:

Excerpt 3

Augustus : “Hold on, **to Hazel**”
Augustus : “**Dude, pillows don’t break. Try something that breaks**”.

Excerpt 3 was an example in which the speaker claimed in group membership by using an identity marker. It was indicated by the use of word “**dude**” by Augustus to call Isaac. At that time, Isaac was seeking something to release his anger. Augustus allowed him to release his anger in the room. Augustus suggested that Isaac “try something that breaks” instead of just pillows. He made an imperative utterance which was “softened by in-group address form”. Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 108) claim “using in-group kinds of address forms with imperatives indicates that S considers the relative power and status to be small and indicating that it isn’t power-backed command”. Thus, it softened the imperative that Augustus made.

Excerpt 4

Augustus : “**Let’s go back**”.
Hazel : “I’m okay”.

Excerpt 4 was another example of positive politeness strategy. However, it was a different case and different sub-strategy. In **excerpt 4**, Augustus conveyed that he and the hearer were co-operators by including himself and Hazel in the activity. According to Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 127), “by using an inclusive

‘we’ form, when S really means you or me, he can call upon the cooperative assumptions and thereby redress FTAs”. Hazel was having a difficulty to keep going upstairs because of her breathing problems. However, she kept convincing herself that she could do it. Augustus noticed this and felt bad about it. Thus, he stressed his cooperativeness by implying that he was willing to go back for their benefit.

Negative politeness strategies found in The Fault in Our Stars novel

Negative politeness is about S’s desire to be free in action and get an unimpeded intention (Brown & Levinson 1987). Out of all the politeness strategies utterances by Augustus and Hazel, there were a total of 50 utterances or 19% of negative politeness strategies. Both main characters applied these politeness strategies when they might transgress on someone’s negative face. The following were some examples of negative politeness strategies performed in different mechanisms:

Excerpt 5

Hazel : MOM! MOM!
Hazel’s mom : “What’s wrong?”
Hazel : “Nothing. Sorry, I didn’t know you were in the shower”,
Hazel’s mom : “Bathh, I was just . . . Just trying to take a bath for five seconds. Sorry. What’s going on?”
Hazel : **“Can you call the Genies and tell them the trip is off? I just got an email from Peter Van Houten’s assistant. She thinks we’re coming”.**

Excerpt 5 showed an example of one of the negative politeness strategy mechanisms in which Hazel as the speaker did not coerce the hearer to do the act. Hazel just received an email from Peter van Houten’s assistant and she thought that they would not be going to Amsterdam because of her health condition. So, she wanted her mom to call The Genies (an organization who grants wishes for cancer survivors). The utterance “*Can you call the Genies and tell them the trip is off?*” was not really a question but a request. Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 173) state that “by being pessimistic, it gives redress to hearer’s negative face by explicitly expressing doubt that the conditions for the appropriateness of speaker’s speech act obtain”.

Excerpt 6

Hazel : “Where were you?”
Augustus : **“Line got super long, sorry”.**

While in **excerpt 6**, Augustus performed another mechanism of negative politeness strategies by imparting that he did not want to impinge the hearer. According to Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 187), “by apologizing for doing an FTA, the speaker can indicate his reluctance to impinge on H’s negative face and thereby partially redress that impingement”. Tavuchis noted that “when someone

apologizes, he or she is in the position of seeking unconditional pardon in the context of being unworthy of an act that can be neither forgotten nor forsaken” (as cited in Regehr & Gutheil, 2002, p. 425). At that time, they were about to board on an airplane. Hazel was waiting for Augustus because he had not come back for over 20 minutes. He said that he wanted to get a hamburger before they flew. When he came back, Hazel asked him where he was. Augustus immediately apologized by saying sorry for what he did and provided his reason. He said that the line was super long, so it took a long time to come back.

Off record politeness strategies found in The Fault in Our Stars novel

The speaker could use nondirect language and the hearer can interpret by themselves by applying off record strategies (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Furthermore, Brown and Levinson (1987) note that there are two mechanisms in off record, namely “inviting the conversational implicatures via hints triggered by violation of Gricean Maxim” and “being vague or ambiguous”. These two mechanisms were applied by the main characters of the novel *The Fault in Our Stars*. In total, 59 (22.6%) off record politeness strategies were used by the two main characters in the novel.

There were some ways of inviting conversational implications. The researchers found out that those ways were by understating, overstating, using contradiction, being ironic, and using metaphors. The following dialogue was one of the examples of this mechanism:

Excerpt 7

Hazel : “You **nearly charmed the pants off** my mom”.
Augustus : “Yeah, and your dad is a Smits fan, which helps. You think they liked me?”
Hazel : “Sure, they did. Who cares, though? They’re just parents”.
Augustus : “They’re *your* parents”.

Excerpt 7 was an example of understate. According to Brown and Levinson (1987), to understate is to say less than what the speaker actually intends to convey. In excerpt 7, Hazel noticed that her mom liked Augustus. Augustus’s sweet actions to her mom made her (mom) smile. He was not only sweet to her mom but also to Hazel. Hazel conveyed a compliment by saying that Augustus nearly charmed her mom’s pants off. The meaning of that sentence was Augustus succeeded in making an impressive first impression. Although Hazel was sure that her mom liked him, she said the word “nearly” to understate her compliment to Augustus.

Excerpt 8

Augustus : “Sandwich?”
Hazel : “Let me guess”,
Augustus : “Dutch cheese. And tomato. The tomatoes are from Mexico. Sorry”.
Hazel : “**You’re always such a *disappointment*, Augustus**”.

Meanwhile, **excerpt 8** exemplified an off record politeness strategy by mechanism of “being vague or ambiguous”. Being vague or ambiguous could make the speaker’s communicated purpose stay unclear (Brown & Levinson, 1987). In excerpt 8, Augustus and Hazel went to a park together. Augustus wanted to give clues to Hazel that it was possible for them to go to Amsterdam. The Genies granted Augustus’s wish. He mentioned several Dutch names. He also brought orange juices. Hazel caught what was on Augustus’s mind. When he said that he packed sandwiches but the tomatoes were from Mexico, he said sorry. As a response, Hazel said that he was such a *disappointment*. However, the writing itself was in italics, which means that what she said could mean the other way around.

Factors influencing the main characters of The Fault in Our Stars to use politeness strategies

Brown and Levinson (1987) say that the factors that might influence the use of politeness strategies are the payoffs and the sociological variables. Both factors were found in the politeness utterances by the main characters of the novel. The payoffs consist of four types, namely “bald on record payoffs”, “on record positive politeness payoffs”, “on record negative politeness payoffs”, and “off record payoffs” (Brown & Levinson, 1987). All of the payoffs were received by the main characters. Payoffs could also be interpreted as the effect or advantage.

By performing bald on record strategies, the speaker could secure public pressure, get respect for being honest, get credit for being straightforward, and avoid the probability of misunderstanding (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Below are examples.

Excerpt 9

Augustus : “It’s above my knee and it just tapers a little and then it’s just skin. There’s a nasty car, but it just looks like” –
Hazel : What?
Augustus : “My leg, just so you’re prepared in case, I mean, in case you see it or what”--
Hazel : “**Oh, get over yourself**”.

In **excerpt 9**, Hazel performed a bald on record politeness strategy without minimizing the FTA but primarily on Augustus’s interest. According to Brown and Levinson (1987), performing this strategy can indicate that the speaker trusts the hearer and also avoids misunderstanding. Augustus and Hazel were about to hook up. However, Augustus worried that Hazel might hate him if she found out about his leg's condition. He tried to explain that he had a nasty car that she might dislike later. Hazel did not want Augustus to think about that. She did not want Augustus to lose his confidence over that problem. Hazel indicated that she trusted him. She did not want to be misunderstood. So, she encouraged him to be confident and assured him not to worry about that.

Excerpt 10

Hazel : “Hello?”

Augustus : “Hazel Grace”
Hazel : “Oh, thank God it’s you. Hi. Hi, I love you”.
Augustus : “Hazel Grace, I’m at the gas station. Something’s wrong”.
“**You gotta help me**”.

In **excerpt 10**, what Augustus said was bald on record without minimization and it was task oriented. Augustus was alone at the gas station when he suddenly felt a great pain on his leg. He could not endure it and decided to call Hazel for help. Augustus asked Hazel to come to the gas station. Based on Brown and Levinson (1987), a “bald on record politeness strategy” can be used to avoid misunderstanding. Although what Augustus said was an imperative sentence, at that time performing a bald on record politeness strategy would be easier to be understood.

Meanwhile by doing an on record positive politeness strategy, the speaker could please the positive face of the hearer in some respect (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Furthermore, a positive politeness strategy could minimize FTA by making sure the addressee that the speaker considers her/himself to be the same kinds and avoids or minimizes debt implication of FTA (Brown & Levinson, 1987). The following were some examples of the payoffs factor that affected the main characters of *The Fault in Our Stars* in performing positive politeness strategies:

Excerpt 11

Augustus : “You should see it, *V for Vendetta*, I mean”.
Hazel : “**Okay, I’ll look it up**”.

Excerpt 11 above showed a positive politeness strategy that was performed by Hazel. Hazel performed one of the sub-strategies of positive politeness by making a promise. She tried to say that she and Augustus were co-operators. When they were about to part ways, Augustus suggested that Hazel watch *V for Vendetta* because he thought that there was a character that looked like Hazel in that movie. In response, Hazel made a promise although it might be a fake promise. The main payoff of performing on record positive politeness strategy was to please the positive face of the hearer in some respect (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Hazel achieved the payoff. It was because she already demonstrated that she had good intention in satisfying Augustus’s positive face by making her promise.

Excerpt 12

Augustus : Hi,
Hazel : “Oh, God, Augustus, **we have to get you to a hospital**”.

Excerpt 12 showed another payoff of performing on record positive politeness strategy. Positive politeness strategies can avoid or minimize debt implication of FTA by referring roundabout to the reciprocal relationship “between the speaker and the hearer” (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Knowing that she could not handle Augustus’s condition by herself, Hazel suggested that he go to the hospital. Hazel used the word “we” to include both of herself and Augustus in the request.

Therefore, she could minimize the debt implication for asking Augustus to be co-operator of her want.

Performing on record negative politeness strategies could benefit the speaker in the following ways: 1) pay respect to pay back the FTA, 2) maintaining social distance, 3) giving real “out” for the hearer, and 4) giving conventional “outs” (Brown & Levinson, 1987). The excerpts below were some examples of the negative politeness payoff factors that influenced Augustus and Hazel:

Excerpt 13

Augustus : “I lit up like a Christmas tree, Hazel Grace. The lining of my chest, my hip, my liver, everywhere”.
Hazel : “I’m so sorry”,
Augustus : “**I’m sorry I didn’t tell you**”.

Augustus performed one of negative politeness’s sub-strategies by apologizing in **excerpt 13**. By apologizing for the FTA, S may show her or his hesitancy to afflict the negative face of the hearer so the impingement becomes partially redressed (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Before they went to Amsterdam, actually Augustus got a PET scan because his ached hip. However, he kept that as a secret from Hazel. When he was about to speak the truth, he apologized and admitted that he did the impingement. By apologizing, he satisfied Hazel’s negative face to some degree.

Excerpt 14

Hazel : Hi
Augustus : “Good evening, Hazel Grace. **Do you suppose you could find your way to the Literal Heart of Jesus around eight p.m.?**”

Augustus performed negative politeness strategies by being conventionally indirect in **excerpt 14**. Furthermore, he used higher degrees of politeness and tried to be maximally negatively polite in the expression of his indirect speech acts. Brown and Levinson (1987) state that if the speaker tried to show bigger effort in face-preserving, he would be seen more hard working in trying to please hearer’s face wants. Augustus did not want to seem forcing Hazel to say yes to his request. Instead, he paid respect to her.

Based on Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 71), the off record politeness strategy can give payoffs, such as “credit for being tactful, non-coercive; run less risk of his act entering the ‘gossip biography’ that others keep of him, and he can avoid for the responsibility for the potentially face-damaging interpretation”. Besides, S can test the feeling of the hearer (Brown & Levinson, 1987). The followings were examples of off record strategies’ payoffs utterances which influence the main characters in using these strategies. One was by inviting conversational implicatures via hints and the other was by being vague or ambiguous.

Excerpt 15

Hazel : “**This is what it feels like to drive in a car with you**”.
*“*Augustus smiled but kept his jaw clenched tight*”*
Hazel : Okay?
*“*Gus’s hand grabbed the armrest, his eyes widen*”*

Excerpt 15 took place in an airplane. It was the first time for Augustus to fly on airplane. In the example above, Hazel performed her off record politeness strategy by giving hints. Hazel invited Augustus to think what the meaning of her sentence was. She said that what Augustus was feeling at that moment was like how she felt when she was driving in a car with him. Off record politeness strategies could be used to test hearer’s feeling (Brown & Levinson, 1987). That was what Hazel tried to do when she gave hints to Augustus

Excerpt 16

Hazel’s dad : “Emily, this risotto . . .”
Hazel’s mom : “It’s just delicious”.
Gus’s mom : “Oh, thanks. I’d be happy to give you the recipe”.
Augustus : “You know, the primary taste I’m getting is not-Oranje”.
Hazel : “Good observation, Gus. This food, while delicious, does not taste like Oranje”.
Hazel’s mom : Hazel.
Augustus : “**It tastes like . . .**”

Augustus performed an off record politeness strategy in **excerpt 16** by using ellipsis (being incomplete). Chen (2016, p. 2134) defines ellipsis as “the omission of information in the discourse of language communication”. Augustus, Hazel, and both of their parents were having dinner that was cooked by Augustus’s mom. While they were eating, they began to comment on the dish. Augustus left his sentence hanging when he wanted to describe the tastes. According to Brown and Levinson (1987), by applying off record politeness strategies, the speaker could hinder from the responsibility for acts which on record strategies entails. By leaving his sentence hanging, Augustus could “get credit for being tactful” and “avoid potentially face-damaging interpretation” as well.

Excerpts 17 and 18 below were examples of politeness strategies utterances affected by the factor sociological variables. There were three variables, namely “social distance”, “relative power”, and “rating of imposition” (Brown & Levinson, 1987). In performing politeness strategies, actually the payoffs and sociological variables factor were connected to each other. The main characters of *The Fault in Our Stars* also considered the sociological variables in performing the politeness strategies utterances.

Excerpt 17

Hazel : “**heard sobbing sound** Are you okay?”

- Augustus : “I’m grand. I am, however, with Isaac, who seems to be decompensating”.
- Augustus : “*turned his attention to Isaac* **Dude. Dude.** Does Support Group Hazel make this better or worse?”

In **excerpt 17**, Augustus performed his politeness strategy utterance by paying attention to the sociological variables. Brown and Levinson (1987) argue that social distance influences the choice of politeness strategy. The word “dude” that Augustus used to Isaac was an indication that they were close in social distance. Augustus considered Isaac as the same kind as him which was included a positive politeness strategy. The word “dude” was an in group identity marker to claim common ground.

Excerpt 18

Flight attendant: “Drinks? Drinks? Drinks? Drinks?”

Augustus : “**Could we have some champagne, please?**”

In **excerpt 18**, Augustus and the flight attendant were strangers, which meant they had relatively great social distance. The source of power can be over material and physical or control over action of others (Brown & Levinson, 1987). When he asked for champagne, it was the flight attendant who had the power to give or not to and asking for something means imposing someone, too. So, Augustus used a negative politeness strategy to show his consideration over the social distance, power, and the imposition. Negative politeness strategy was considered more polite in that situation. It was supported by research conducted by Alsulami (2015), who revealed that when the social distance is high, a speaker tends to use a more polite strategy.

Conclusion

To sum up, Augustus and Hazel as the two main characters in the novel used all four types of politeness strategies. The most frequently-used type was positive politeness strategies followed by off record strategies, bald on record, and negative politeness strategies. By applying positive politeness strategies, the speaker could show that she or he likes the addressee and wants the addressee’s wants. Therefore, it could assert the sense of mutual friendship between the speaker and the hearer. Furthermore, by doing so, the risk of clash in communication could be minimized. The main characters were mainly affected by two factors. The first factor was the payoffs of politeness strategies and the second was circumstances which consisted of social distance, power, and rating of imposition. Then, in a similar circumstance or condition, the main characters tended to choose the same type of politeness strategy.

The findings of this research contribute to the process of teaching and learning language, especially the English language. Being able to communicate effectively is important. However, it is also important to save each other’s face. Moreover, in a certain situation like in the teaching and learning process, teachers should be able to show good examples on how to speak well and appropriately. Also, the language

learners ought to learn how to speak appropriately based on the conditions and whom they talk to as well. It is clear that learning language structure also means that we need to learn about face redress and politeness.

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**THE MANIFESTATION OF RELIGIOUS AND POLITICAL RELATIONS
IN THE KISWAHILI RELIGIOUS NEWSPAPERS
DURING 2015 ELECTIONS**

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Abstract

There has been a constant power struggle and unstable religious relations between Christians and Muslims in Tanzania, especially during elections. Many scholars have approached the issue of interreligious relations from the political and social dimensions, and no critical analysis on the role of religious newspapers in exacerbating such struggle and relations. This article analyzes the stories related to religious and political relations in Tanzania as religious newspapers framed them in 2015. The study used data from four selected religious newspapers published from January to December 2015 and used data from interviews and Focus Group Discussions (FGD). The selected headlines were analysed using three dimensions of Textually Oriented Discourse Analysis (TODA) propounded by Norman Fairclough. The study found that the framing of election stories was affected by the religious biases of the newspapers. The analysis further shows that the religious newspapers in 2015 presented the mistrust between Christians and Muslims. It was found that Muslims mobilised fellow Muslims to change the Christian-dominated Government because Muslims' interests have been ignored for many years. The article concludes that when the inequality grows and is left unaddressed, it leads to social unrest.

Keywords: framing, journalism, religion, politics

Introduction

There are various studies on the state of inter-religious relations in Tanzania (Tambila, 2006; Wijssen, 2007; Rukyaa, 2007; Said, 2010; Glickman, 2011; LeSage, 2014; Mesaki, 2011; Tetti, 2014; Lawi, 2015; Lucia, 2015; Lupa, 2015; Ndaluka, 2015, and others). Except for a few studies like that of Said (2010), Mukandala *et al.* (2006), Mbogoni (2004), most studies have looked at Islam as the source of religious tensions in the country. Most studies have been presenting that there is a rivalry between the Islamic religion and the State. For example, Rukyaa (2010: 4 - 11) attributes religious tensions and conflicts to the prejudiced religious teachings and the dirty campaigns of some Muslim elites.

Other similar studies (LeSage, 2014; Lawi, 2015; Lucia, 2015; and Ndaluka, 2015) have explained bitter Christian-Muslim relations in Tanzania based on

economic, historical, and social claims, not religious interests per se. However, they all commonly argue that Muslims have been more dissatisfied with the way social and public resources are used in the country. For example, Ndaluka (2015: 36 – 37) argues that these claims (by Muslims) are for demanding access to public resources such as education and government jobs. Moreover, these claims are not confined to socio-economic resources but also cultural and political relations.

The argument that the source of tension between Christians and Muslims being attributed to cultural and political relations might hold water as it has been indicated by Said (2010: 6), who is directly quoted here:

...we need to come into terms with the reality that the Church particularly the Catholic Church is in control of the Government by proxy. Through unseen hands it manipulates the political system in such a way its influence permeates everything from the Mass Media to selection of students to join secondary schools and other institutions of higher learning, securing scholarship, employment, promotion, for political office etc. In short the Church is in control of the Executive, Judiciary and the Legislature.

The religious sentiments in Tanzania have become evident even in religious media, especially newspapers. Lupa (2015: 55 – 58) says that religion becomes a justification for people to fight against real and perceived evils, like unjust social-political systems. Even some religious denominations and institutions have established media institutions or media houses to mobilize people, educating them about the importance of having religious unity and brotherhood to have a collective voice against the political dominance of one group. This is exemplified in the document of Project Proposal of The Islamic Foundation (2014: 3 – 4) for the establishment of Imaan Newspaper; the part reads as follows, “Mass media, on the other hand, are the most successful instruments of cultural invasion of our time. Coupled with political, economic and military power, media power is used to control the land and minds of human beings across nations”.

Most of the studies on interreligious relations in Tanzania have been conducted from the historical, political, and sociological perspectives. Several scholars such as Tambila, (2006); Rukyaa, (2007); Glickman, (2011); LeSage, (2014); Tetti, (2014); Lawi, (2015); Lucia, (2015); Lupa, (2015); Ndaluka, (2015) have viewed the issues of interreligious tensions in the country as the result of abandoning Ujamaa socialism, the rise of radical and fundamentalist religious teachings, the prejudiced and stereotyped religious orientations, and the growing of mistrusts among various religious groups. Unfortunately, to the best of my literature consultations, I have found that there is no critical study done on how religious newspapers have been framing the religious and political relations in Tanzania to reflect these issues that have been presented in the referred literature. Therefore, my article presents the brief history of media in Tanzania, the role of media in scaling up conflicts in Africa, religious and political relations in Africa, methodology, Fairclough's Textually Oriented Discourse Analysis (TODA), Manifestation of Religious and Political relations in Tanzanian Kiswahili Newspapers during 2015 Elections, and it ends with a conclusion. Generally, the analysis has focused on how those selected religious newspapers framed stories about religious and political relations in Tanzanian society.

Media History in Tanzania

The modern media industry in Tanzania started with the establishment of newspapers. Martin Sturmer traces the history of media in Tanzania from the German administration up to 1996 in his book *The Media History of Tanzania*, published in 1998. The author has described the history of media in Tanzania in four phases. The first phase focused on the German colonial administration (1890 – 1916), when the press served the communication interests of the Germans. Then, missionaries published their newspapers. For example, the Anglican Universities' Mission to Central Africa (UMCA) established the first religious newspaper in Zanzibar in 1888. The paper was called *Msimulizi* (Sturmer, 1998). However, the paper lasted for only two years. After the failed *Msimulizi*, the UMCA started other newspapers and in 1890 established *Mtenga Watu* (the old Kiswahili for converter), which was circulated to the Usambara people. They also started another newspaper *Maongezi na Maarifa*, at Magila.

After being installed as an archdeacon, the editor of *Maongezi na Maarifa*, Mr Woodward, decided to have a professionally-run Kiswahili religious newspaper. In 1894, he started editing another newspaper *Habari za Mwezi* (ibid.). The newspaper was published monthly and is the first official newspaper in the mainland because *Msimulizi* was published in Zanzibar. *Habari za Mwezi* survived turbulent moments. Its publication ceased temporarily in 1907 before resuming publications in 1908. The outbreak of the First World War ended the newspaper in 1916.

The second phase of the British administration saw newspapers established to support British propaganda. The religious newspapers had suffered a lot after the outbreak of the First World War. It was not until 1925 that *Akayo Katoliki* and *Sauti Yetu* were published in Tabora and Karema, respectively (Sturmer, 1998 citing Scotton, 1972). In the same year, the Dar es Salaam Catholic Diocese launched another paper *Rafiki Yetu*. *Rafiki Yetu*, which ceased published in 1950. It was the most famous religious paper in Tanganyika and some parts of East Africa during the period.

Sturmer also reported that from 1930 to 1950, fewer religious newspapers were published in Tanganyika. He mentions that in March 1927, another newspaper called *Ufalme wa Mungu* was founded and owned by the Evangelical "Bethel-Mission." The Roman Catholic Church of Mwanza launched *Lumuli* in 1934, and two years later, the Kiswahili monthly *Katoliki* was published in Peramiho in 1936. However, *Katoliki* was unsuccessful initially, so they decided to change its name to *Mwenge* in 1964.

The Catholic Diocese of Bukoba established another religious newspaper in 1942 called *Rumuli*, printed in Kiswahili, English, and Haya. In 1948, the Benedictines missionaries of Peramiho launched a journal called *Tatejo*, which was meant for religious teachers, the catechists. *Tatejo* was later renamed *Mlezi*. The most popular and long-surviving Catholic weekly paper is *Kiongozi*. This paper was founded in Tabora on 1st January 1950. In the beginning, it was published monthly by the White Fathers and strictly carried religious contents. It is now an official newspaper for the Catholic Church in Tanzania, in which many Episcopal announcements and statements are published. Its premises moved from Tabora to Dar es Salaam at the Tanzania Episcopal Conference (TEC), and the Bishops approved its chief editor. It was a must that the editor was supposed to come from among Tanzania's Catholic priests.

Apart from the dominance of Catholic newspapers as a religious media outlet in the country, a few publications owned by other denominations existed; for example, the Anglican Church had the Kiswahili monthly called *Upanga wa Roho*. This paper was published in Kongwa from 1949 to 1964. Also, the Evangelical missionaries published *Bendera ya Kikristo* in Soni from 1955 to 1959. *Bendera ya Kristo* was later replaced by the Lutheran counterpart of *Kiongozi*, which was called *Uhuru na Amani*. Finally, in 1961, the Protestants established a Haya paper *Ija Webonere*, which appeared twice monthly in Bukoba (Sturmer, 1998).

The post-colonial or post-independence of Tanganyika constitutes the third phase. The Tanzania government-controlled media suppressed the opposition during this period while nurturing the newly-found nation by reducing ethnic and religious divisions among Tanganyikans. Moreover, media control later promoted socialistic principles after the 1967 Arusha Declaration. Many religious newspapers ceased publication, but few survived, such as *Kiongozi*, *Mwenge*, and *Mlezi*. The central focus during this period was on the Government's decree on nationalization, socialism, and self-reliance.

The fourth phase of media history in Tanzania refers to the democratisation and liberalisation of the economy in the early 1990s. As a result, many independent private press and religious media entered the market. From 1st July 1992, when the then President Ali Hassan Mwinyi signed a decree of a multi-party system in Tanzania, the registration of private media companies became permissible. As a result, many media houses flourished, including religious media outlets. In 1986, Tanzania had only 119 print media, many of which belonged to government ministries, parastatal organisations, agencies, and institutes, and in 1991 before the reintroduction of the multi-party system, there were 180 publications.

The trend had changed drastically from 1994 when the official press directory listed 251 periodicals, and by July 1996, there were about 323 registered newspapers and magazines. In 2015 the Government documented more than 760 registered newspapers, magazines, periodicals, and journals. Out of these, more than 55 were religious newspapers (there is no official number for religious newspapers since the estimated 55 newspapers based on my counting from the list given by the office of the registrar of the newspapers)—the decision to treat certain newspapers as religious was based on ownership patterns.

Role of Media in Scaling up Conflict in Africa

According to Djankov et al. (2003), media are powerful; however, journalists are not influential because they are not autonomous moral agents. They further explain that journalists have a role in scrutinising things while politicians have the legitimacy of persuasion. For journalists to investigate something, they need skills, evidence, and values to not get into trouble with authorities. Yet, politicians do not require skills, proof, and values to execute their duties because journalists become trapped by politicians or used for their interests.

Also, freedom of the press ought to have limits. In this regard, many journalists have got into problems on three key issues: Going against the interests of the constitution; inciting disaffection against the Government (seditious content according to Tanzanian media service act); and having hate propaganda, ethnicity, deliberate distortion of the truth for personal purposes (irresponsible journalism). Such scenarios have unfolded in many countries, particularly in civil conflicts that

erupted because politicians used irresponsible journalists to incite hatred among people along ethnic lines.

The Rwanda Genocide Case and the Media Role

The International Media Support (IMS, 2003) assessment report on Rwanda's media experience with genocide, the media blatantly divided Rwandese people along ethnic lines, whose routes can be traced to the colonial times and resurfaced before the 1994 genocide. The discussion in this sub-section is based on the IMS report by Monique Alexis and Ines Mpambara titled, "The Rwanda media experience from genocide" (2003).

1. Political Background of Rwanda

When the German colonialists arrived in Rwanda in the 19th century, they found three ethnic groups: The Twa (1%), the Tutsi (16%), and the Hutu (over 80%). The Germans favoured the Tutsi, a minority as a ruling class in their Government. After WWI, the Belgians made a similar mistake of favouring the Tutsi in their administration when they left Rwanda. On the other hand, the Catholic Church became the leading social institution in Rwanda after WWI. The Church also sided with Belgians in giving educational priority to the Tutsis. The Hutus had to study theology only to become priests or servants in the church. With the theology qualification, the Hutu were not qualified to be employed in the Government, making them angry and frustrated.

After WWII, the atmosphere changed drastically in Rwanda between 1945 and 1962. During this period, the Catholic Church began to favour the growth of Hutu elites. Seeing that the Church was no longer in favour of them, the Tutsi elites moved towards colonial social order and fully supported colonialists. The Church used its monthly newspaper called '*Kinyamateka*' to bring changes. Slowly the Hutu became organised after getting support from one of the leading social institutions—the Catholic Church. Eventually, the first Hutu political parties were formed: The Mouvement Social Muhutu (MSM) and another Association pour la Promotion Sociale de Masses (APROSOMA). The Tutsi also had their parties: The Union National Rwandaise (UNAR) and the Rassemblement Democratique Rwandais (RADER).

2. Role of Media in Fuelling Genocide

In 1974, the Government of Rwanda established the l'Office Rwandais d'Information (ORINFOR), which is synonymous with Tanzania's Information Services Department, whose director was the Government's spokesperson. The President appointed Ferdinand Nahimana in 1990 as a Director of ORINFOR, replacing the former director who retired from the office after serving since its establishment in 1974. Nahimana was a university professor known for his extremist political ideas and prejudices against the Tutsi. The nomination of Nahimana reinforced MRND, the ruling party's control over ORINFOR. However, Nahimana did not stay long in office because he was dismissed in 1992 due to his inflammatory messages and censoring of opposition leaders' speeches.

On the other hand, the Catholic Church owned a monthly newspaper called '*Kinyamateka*'. The newspaper was established in 1933, and its substantial presence in Rwanda was due to its owner, the Catholic Church, being the oldest institution

in the country. The newspaper increased from 1955 when Gregoire Kayibanda was its chief editor. This Kinyamateka played a crucial role in 1959's social revolution. In addition, the newspaper mobilised the Hutu to fight for political representation in the colonial Government primarily because the chief editor was also a political activist and later president of the republic.

From 1990, the presses backed by the president's closest circles run undisguised hate speeches against the Tutsi. One of those newspapers was *Kangura*, whose main goal was to mobilise people to support President Habyarimana on an ethnic ideology that excluded the Tutsis and criticise the content of another newspaper called *Kanguka*. *Kangura* published the infamous 10 Hutu commandments that incited hatred and discrimination against the Tutsi. The newspaper claimed that the Tutsi were dangerous people and should be stopped. Among those Hutu 10 Commandments, the tenth commandment reads:

Any Hutu must know that a Tutsi woman, wherever she is, works for her Tutsi ethnic group. Therefore, any Hutu who marries a Tutsi woman, or who has a Tutsi concubine or who hires a Tutsi secretary, or protects a Tutsi woman, that Hutu is a traitor. Every Hutu must widely disseminate this ideology. Any Muhutu who persecutes his Muhutu brother for having read, spread, and taught this ideology is a traitor (IMS, 2003: 17).

Notably, the radicalisation of newspapers and radios in Rwanda did not happen overnight. The rise of hate media and the preparation for the genocide had been building up over time. Finally, it reached a point the media called the Tutsis 'cockroaches.' The Hutu media owners used their media to encourage and mobilise fellow Hutus to kill Tutsis and even moderate Hutus. This Rwanda mayhem hints at what could happen if media were left to spread hate messages and mobilize people along sectarian, religious, or ethnic lines.

Role of Media in Conflicts in Kenya and Nigeria

According to Ahere (2019:6), most media companies are owned by influential politicians and businesspersons in Kenya. These politicians include the family of the former President Daniel Moi, who owns Standard Media and publishes The Standard, Saturday Standard, Sunday Standard, The Nairobiian. Also, the family of President Uhuru Kenyatta owns Mediamax Network Limited, which publishes *People Daily* and several radio and TV stations. Apart from the presidents' families, former members of the Parliament and prominent politician Samuel Kamau Macharia owns Royal Media Services Limited; and Patrick Quarcoo, William Pike, and Tiso Blackstar Group own Radio Africa Group.

The infamous Post-Election Violence (PEV) erupted in Kenya in 2007. During the PEV, some journalists were linked to violence because they allegedly used their media to incite violence and killings. One of those journalists was Joshua Arap Sang, who was sued at the International Criminal Court (ICC) and later acquitted after the court dismissed their case. The violence implicated Uhuru Kenyatta and his Vice President, William Ruto. The family of Uhuru Kenyatta owns the media company Mediamax Network Limited which operates K24 and Kameme Television networks and several radio stations. Based on this line of ownership, one can argue

that politicians can easily influence their media to frame stories in their favour and the disfavour of their opponents.

Akpan, Ering, and Olofu-Adeoye (2013:2281 – 86) explain the most reported crises: The Niger Delta, Boko Haram, and Jos. Many analysts have been asking themselves how the media reported these crises in Nigeria. Is there a significant relationship between the environment and media reportage? In what ways have media reportage enhanced or reduced these conflicts?" (Akpan, Ering & Olofu-Adeoye, 2013). The authors contend that "The kind of information the media disseminates, how it does it, why it does it, and who its target audience is, to a large extent, is significantly influenced by its environment." Implicitly, journalists and media are primarily influenced by their respective environments. In these conflicts, journalists face challenges of failing to decide what to omit and what to report as the Government has been harping on the fact that media exacerbate conflict.

The authors further explain that poor reporting of the crises is caused by 'political, socio-economic, sectarian, ethnic and other crises' (Akpan, Ering and Olofu-Adeoye, 2013). They attribute these crises and conflicts to poor governance. The media also operate in the same environment of poor governance. This situation mainly applies to government-owned media, often touted as 'anti-people' media, because they do not report the side of the victims, particularly in the developing country contexts. One of the examples of unbalanced reporting of the government media agencies is ignoring the hardships that people faced in the oil-producing Niger Delta region. When the youth in the area felt that they did not receive much media attention, they decided to "respond to [the] government repressive policy with violence, vandalization of oil installations and kidnapping of foreign oil workers" (Akpan, Ering and Olofu-Adeoye, 2013:2283). Following the emergence of violence in the region, the media started to pay attention to the crisis. Usually, the media industry tends to pay much attention to problems like what transpired in Nigeria.

Moreover, Ndolo (2013) contends that media in Nigeria have contributed to the normalisation of conflicts and failing to expose the crimes and the rot in Government by prominent politicians and military officers. Apart from mentioning poor remunerations and lack of education, there was a reported elevated level of corruption in the media (Ndolo, 2013). Sometimes, extort gifts from various people, including politicians, and because of that, they do not provide room for stories of poor people humiliated, oppressed, and ostracised by the Government.

Religious and political relations in Africa

Abbink (2014: 4) defines religion as "deeply felt commitment and a collective instrument of community formation, thus often leading to a 'politics of identity.'" He further explains that religion is not restricted to the discourse of morality, but politicians use it to keep their powers and influence. Fox (1998: 122) explained that religion produces fundamentalists who have a remarkable ability to mobilise the masses because what they speak, act, or write an appeal to people's feelings of discontent. They only rely on belief to mobilise their adherents for a particular action.

It is very typical to observe the existence of antipathy or hostility between two separated groups of people who share a common origin. This is seen between different denominations of Christianity, Christianity and Jewish, Christianity and

Islam, and Islamic sects. This also happens between political parties whose founders share a similar origin, and they were forced to part ways in their lives because of specific unresolved differences. This antipathy can divide the nations politically, religiously, ethnically, or socially to have some factionists or terrorist groups.

Rapoport, cited by Fox (1999:433), further explains that although religions have a higher propensity for violence than others, all major religions have enormous potential for creating and directing followers to engage in violent acts. We can refer to Buddhists in Sri Lanka, Anti-Balaka and Seleka in the Central African Republic, Shiites in Iraq, etc. Religions were also involved in cruel acts such as the inquisition by the Catholic Church in Europe and liberation theology in Latin America by Catholic theologians such as Father Gustavo Gutierrez (who is hailed as the father of Liberation Theology). Others who promoted it include Leonardo Boff, Clodovis Boff, Jon Sobrino, Oscar Romero and Juan Luis Segundo (de Rooij & Burity, 2015).

Religious institutions can affect politics because they provide intra-societal gatherings and informal communication networks. They sometimes organise their members for political actions. For example, in 2010, the Tanzania Episcopal Conference wrote an encyclical to all Catholics about elections. The Bishops of Evangelical Lutheran Church of Tanzania (ELCT) also produced a circular for all churches. Also, Muslims in 2015 wrote messages to call upon all Muslims in the country to support Prof Lipumba as a Presidential candidate for the opposition.

Another reason for political mobilisation is to seek the status quo. As I explained above, one of the categories of religions is to oppose the existing status quo, so when religious-related grievances increase, religious institutions use religious newspapers to mobilise adherents to take action. We have seen some radicalised and militant groups mobilising themselves along religious lines to oppose the status quo in the world. These groups include Hamas in Israel/Palestine, Seleka and Anti-Balaka in the Central African Republic, Blacks in the USA, and Catholic Bishops in the Democratic Republic of Congo opposing the extension of the tenure of Joseph Kabila.

When there are repressive and autocratic governments, there is a possibility of emerging dissident and rebellious religious movements that can be violent when the authorities do not heed their grievances. They resolve into rebellion to pursue particular political agenda. This happens when “anything that religious believer perceives as a predicament to the religious framework constitutes an existential threat” (Fox 1998: 46). Here, religious frameworks refer to specific rules that followers or believers must follow and shape their behaviours.

Method

I collected primary data from the religious newspapers published weekly from January 2015 to December 2015, and secondary data came from the interviews and focus group discussions. During this period, media, including religious newspapers, behaved differently compared to other times. The framing of religious relations, politics, and power struggles were conspicuous between January and December 2015. And that intrigued more speculations to find why they happened during that time and the trend for the whole year.

The list of selected newspapers was obtained from the Office of the Newspapers' Registrar under the Director of Information Services. About 55 registered religious newspapers, periodicals, journals, and magazines from that list. Upon registration, the applicants were supposed to fill in Form No 2 (statement of particulars to support application). Furthermore, they had to indicate in the form the anticipated number of copies for each publication. In addition, they had to state the policy of the newspaper. Almost all the registered religious newspapers indicated that they would carry religious content in their publications. Therefore, for this study, we chose four newspapers; two Christian and two Islamic; and these were Msemakweli and Nyakati (Christian); Al-Huda and Annur (Islamic). After collecting the newspapers, I identified stories framed about religious and political relations.

Three main reasons for choosing these four newspapers published in 2015 were; first, the newspaper must be owned by religious institutions or organisations and not an individual who has a media company. I picked the religious newspapers that belonged to religious institutions, even if individuals established those institutions. With this criterion, all the religious newspapers qualified except Kisiwa, Mizani, and Msamaria, private media outlets.

Secondly, I chose the newspapers that were published from January to December. In this case, the *Imaan* newspaper was eliminated because its production started in April 2015. And the third reason was that they should primarily have published content related to elections, politics, and interreligious relations in Tanzania. Based on the third criterion, the newspapers owned by the Catholic and Lutheran churches seemed to have refrained very much from publishing issues related to politics and general elections. Still, they engaged in the contentious 'Kadhi' Court debate from the beginning of 2015 up to May 2015. Thus, they were excluded from the study, although in some instances, *Upendo* newspaper attempted writing positively on Edward Lowassa. The newspapers consistent in their publications on politicians, politics, and elections in 2015 were *Al-Huda*, *An-Nuur*, *Msema Kweli*, and *Nyakati*, hence their selection for this study.

The texts were divided into two parts. The first part involved the pre-election period – between January and July when the names of the presidential candidates were not yet known; and the second period covered a period from July to December – that included the nomination process, campaigns, elections, and post-election period. During the pre-election period, the religious newspapers wrote much about the relations between the two religions, Christianity and Islam, mostly hinged on the Kadhi court debate.

Fairclough's Textually Oriented Discourse Analysis (TODA)

Fairclough considers *social structure* as social relations in society alone and specific institutions (1992: 64), including discursive practices such as journalism and public relations (1992: 66). One of the issues addressed in the CDA by using Textually Oriented Discourse Analysis is an intertextual analysis. According to Fairclough, this offers a textual basis for answering questions about social resources and experiences drawn upon in the reception and interpretation of media messages and what other domains of life media messages are linked or assimilated to in interpretation (Fairclough, 1992: 204). TODA is considered necessary in studying the reception of media messages and how they are used and transformed in various

spheres of life, such as family, work, political activities, leisure activities, religion, etc.

So, the decision to apply TODA is based on its appropriateness in analysing framing in Kiswahili religious newspapers to understand how they manifest religious and political relations. This is exemplified by Fairclough (2003:3), who says: “no real understanding of the social effects of discourse is possible without looking closely at what happens when people talk or write.” Therefore, TODA focuses on texts, discursive practices, and social practices. This approach extends the previous CDA that Fairclough developed in analysing discourse (cf. Fairclough, 2001, 2000, 1995, 1992; and Chouliaraki and Fairclough, 1999). Therefore, TODA is “based upon the assumption that language is an irreducible part of social life, dialectically interconnected with other elements of social life, so that social analysis and research always have to take account of language” (Fairclough, 2003:2).

TODA is one of the effective forms of discourse analysis for researching language use which is socially placed. Fairclough further explains that we reduce social life to language by using Textually Oriented Discourse Analysis. That is, we do not mean that everything is discourse. Instead, it is necessary to understand that texts as social events have causal effects, bringing about changes. We suggest that texts immediately change our knowledge by bringing modifications, as it happens when we read newspapers, articles, books, or any written document. Fairclough has argued while citing other writers (Eagleton 1991, Larrain 1994, Thompson 1995, Van Dijk 1998) that one of the causal effects of texts are ideological effects whereby texts are considered to inculcate and sustain or change ideologies. Ideologies in this context are understood as “representations of aspects of the world which can be shown to contribute to establishing, maintaining and changing social relations of power, domination, and exploitation” (Fairclough, 2003:9).

When we analyse specific texts, we look at them in terms of the three aspects of meaning, namely, action, representation, and identification, and how these are realized in various features of texts (vocabulary, grammar, etc.). Second, we connect the concrete social events and more abstract social practices by asking which genres, discourses, and styles are drawn upon here. Third, we look at how different genres, discourses, and styles are articulated in the text? (Fairclough, 2003:37). TODA studies how social power abuse, dominance, and inequality are enacted, reproduced, and resisted by text and talk in the social and political context (Ibid: 352). So, TODA focuses on the ways discourse structures enact, confirm, legitimize, reproduce, or challenge relations of power and dominance in society.

Since the relations of participants in the society where discourse is produced are not equal, we need TODA to analyze religious and political relations. Through TODA, we can get the meanings in the interactions between readers of religious newspapers through the description, interpretation, and explanation of the linguistic and non-linguistic features used in those newspapers to identify religious and political relations. Religious newspapers fall within socio-political dimensions since their production is governed or controlled by social and religious powers.

Manifestation of Religious and Political relations in Tanzanian Kiswahili Newspapers during 2015 Elections

Richardson (2007: 221) says, ‘journalism is connected to the social, political and cultural context in written and consumed.’ This is true with Tanzanian

Kiswahili religious newspapers because they are not different from mainstream newspapers. They are produced under a similar political and cultural context. Therefore, these newspapers do not only shape society but also manifest what is happening in society. This happens in different ways because newspapers are material forms of ideology; they are the sites of class struggle. This has been happening between Christians and Muslims through their respective newspapers that establish or sustain relations of domination. But above all these, newspapers create specific claims to make them look like common sense by naturalising certain discursive practices. For instance, this happens when newspapers want people to believe class differences are part of human nature, and there is no way we can address them. Eventually, people will take that as a regular thing, and there will be no efforts to address them.

There is a relationship between religious newspapers and society because discourse constantly reproduces and represents social relations. It can reproduce unequal or equal social relations. This is always the case because there is a dialectical relationship between discourse and social structure. Discourse helps to construct social identities and subject positions – this is what we call the identity function of language. Discourse can also represent relationships between people – it is what we call the relational function of language. Furthermore, discourse contributes to the construction of knowledge and belief systems – this is called the ideational function of language.

Each media house has specific goals or purposes during the focus group discussion with editors and senior journalists. For example, one of the respondents said: *kila chombo cha habari kinaanzishwa kwa malengo maalumu, na malengo yale ndiyo yanayosimamia house style ya chombo husika* (each media house is established with specific goals, and it is from those goals the house style is maintained – R1). Therefore, the media owner justifies controlling the newsroom's content, editorial policies, and politics from those goals.

However, other respondents cautioned about the media owners, especially the religious leaders, as they misuse that freedom to force their editors not to respect professionalism. They said that if each religious institution decides to support a particular candidate, it will be chaos and confusion. As one participant said: *Katika hili la vyombo vya habari vya dini, wakati mwingine tunashuhudia kwamba labda kanisa fulani wanaona wagombea wa aina gani wamesimamishwa...let say labda Waanglikani wenyewe maono yao wanaona labda Magufuli akichaguliwa litakuwa pendekezo lao na wengine wanaona akisimama Lowassa wao ndo pendekezo lao... wanatoka nje ya usajili wao* (in this issue of religious media houses, sometimes we witness particular churches decide to support specific candidates ... let say Anglicans decide to support Magufuli and others choose to support Lowassa... they are violating the terms of the registration).

Journalists and editors are sometimes coerced to obey the orders; consequently, their editorial freedom is lost. The participants in the focused group discussion expressed their views that media owners were unfair to the journalists and the public by forcing their candidates to occupy the space in the newspapers. They said that this tarnishes the credibility of the newspapers and affects the newspaper's sales because the readers who will be unhappy with the editorial changes of the newspaper will decide not to buy it.

Even politicians know that during elections, media are divided; each politician will struggle to get support from religious leaders who own media or religious institutions that own media houses. With that understanding, the secretary-general of Tanzania Editors' Forum (TEF) and the former manager of ethics and mediation committee of Media Council of Tanzania said that politicians do not bother much to file arbitration and mediation cases against newspapers that write badly about them. As the secretary of TEF said: *...hata wakati mwingine kwa mfano mtu akilalamikia story, unamwambia okay umelalamikia story unataka tufanyeje? Anakuambia acha ibaki hivyo hivyo, sitaki kulumbana kwenye magazeti...mimi inanipa picha kuwa...wanazo sides nyingi za maisha kwahiyo anaona wataumbuana...atacomplain kawaida lakini ni wepesi wa kusahau, basi uchaguzi ukiisha na mambo hayo yanakuwa ya kawaida* (sometimes someone complains to you about the story so and so and you ask them what do you want us to do? They will tell you to let it go; I don't want to argue with newspapers...this gives me a picture that they have various hidden sides of life. They are afraid of exposing them... the person will usually complain, but they easily forego them, and after elections, things normalise).

However, some senior journalists had different opinions on that. They said it was not the question of aspirations of getting titles after elections; instead, it was an issue of money. Some editors approach the political candidates and entice some bribes to write good things about them in exchange for money and nothing else. Journalist R2 said, *mimi naangalia tumbo langu, akishinda atakuwa ameenda, bora nimtumie sasa hivi...kuna viongozi wanaotumika wanataka hela... siyo kwa vyombo vya dini tu hata hivi vya binafsi* (I look at my stomach, once he wins the election, he will have gone, I better make use of him now... some leaders want money... and this is not only for religious media but also for private media).

The tendency of siding with possible winning candidates was so evident in 2015 when several religious leaders sided with Edward Lowassa with hopes that he could be the next president. Still, after the election, they abandoned him and started supporting President Magufuli, who won the election. This was testified by R3 who said: *Kuna kiongozi mmoja wa dini jina simtaji ila alipata pesa nyingi sana kupitia uchaguzi wa 2015 na alienda na huyo mgombea ana alipoona mgombea amekwama na yeye akajiondoa akahamia upande mwingine. Na viongozi wa namna hii tunao ndani ya taifa* (One religious leader, whose name I don't want to disclose, received a lot of money during the 2015 elections and supported the candidate until he was defeated and left him and crossed to the other side. We have so many leaders of this kind in our nation). R1 adds that such types of religious leaders do always emerge during elections. They were there whenever there was an election to get new presidents. It happened in 1995, in 2005, and 2015.

Another aspect that emerged in 2015 before the election was a debate on Kadhi Court. This issue manifested the nature of religious relations in Tanzania. And in fact, the case of the Kadhi court surfaced after the Constitution review process was halted. In the New Constitution, an Article proposed the establishment of Kadhi court, and Muslims hoped that the constitution could be passed during the Special Constitution Assembly. However, the atmosphere changed when President Jakaya Kikwete spoke in favour of two government structures instead of the proposed three government structures presented by the Constitution Review Commission.

Some Christian newspapers presented the whole issue of Kadhi Court as dangerous to Christians. The newspapers campaigned against it and made sure that Christians got informed about how dangerous Kadhi Court was to them and how their freedom of worship would be ruined or jeopardised by the presence of the Kadhi Courts. Furthermore, they made Christians believe that Muslims charged in the Kadhi Court and Christians will be included. They went further by claiming that since there is hatred between Muslims and Christians, Muslims will use the Kadhi Court system to punish Christians and even force them into Islam. Christians quickly accepted these threats, including the Members of Parliament; thus, it was easy for them to rally against its introduction in Tanzania.

The Christian newspapers also considered Kadhi courts' imposition of Islamic laws in Tanzania. This claim has its background as the Government of Tanzania in 2015 allowed the establishment of the Kadhi court. Initially, the Muslims wanted the courts to be mainstreamed in the existing judicial system, and the Government had to cover the running costs. That proposal outraged Christians who complained that all Tanzanians were paying taxes, but they did not find why part of the taxes should be used to run the Kadhi courts whose purpose was to serve one religion's interest. In the story under the headline in Nyakati, *Mahakama ya Kadhi ni mtego – Maaskofu* (Kadhi court is a trap – Bishops), we are told that Christians were not happy with it because it could divide the nation. As a result, the Christians will be forced to obey the court. But, at the same time, they are not part of it.

On the other hand, Muslims have also developed a different negative perception about Christians. Since the 1990s, the relations between Christians and Muslims have been icy, especially at the upper levels of elites, but at the grassroots, the interfaith relations have been stable. The Islamic elites have been claiming four things as their primary concerns. These four concerns include Christian hegemony (famously known as 'Mfumo Kristo'); inequalities between Christians and Muslims in terms of wealth, education, politics, and employment, mistreatments of Muslims, and obstructing the emancipation of Muslims in the country (cf. Mbogoni, 2004; Said, 2014).

Most of the headlines in Islamic newspapers mobilised Muslims to unite against the Government and the Christians. A headline in Al-Huda went as, *Wabunge wenye udini wanahatarisha usalama wa taifa* (Members of the Parliament with religious biases threaten the national security). The newspaper avoided the fallacy of hasty generalisation as it specified those Members of Parliament who had a religious intolerance. It did not consider all Christian MPs as religiously biased because some MPs from the opposition defended the establishment of the Kadhi Courts. However, there were few from the opposition who opposed the bill. The Parliament was split into religious camps, but many Christian MPs voted against the bill during voting. That is why the Muslims considered it a war between Christians and Muslims.

Other headlines in Al-Huda called for action on the side of the Government. For example, the headline such as *Waislamu wataka Kadhi kabla ya Aprili* (Muslims want to have Kadhi before April), can signify two things; first, a report of what Muslims wish to get; and secondly, it is an order to the Government or relevant authorities that they should make sure Muslims get Kadhi before April. This headline was supported by another headline, *Mahakama ya Kadhi iendeshwe na serikali* (the Government should run the Kadhi Court).

After the bill of establishing the Kadhi Court was ‘quashed’ by the Parliament, the Muslims lost hope of reviving it. They first made efforts to incorporate it in the New Constitution, but the process did not end, so they had to take that as a separate plan and present it to the Government. They hoped that the Government could implement it under the Muslim President. Later, after the Christian-dominated Parliament quashed the Kadhi court issue, the newspaper came with the headline, *Waislamu kutorudia makosa* (Muslims will never repeat the mistakes). This story was a call to Muslims as the country headed towards general elections in October. The newspaper urged Muslims to vie for various political posts and sign contracts with Muslims so that once they win, they should not ignore the interests of their fellow Muslims. And non-Muslim leaders should also agree to put forward the interests of Muslims.

The feeling that Bishops pressure the Government to suppress Muslims is exemplified in An-Nuur in the following headline, *Kwaheri Mahakama ya Kadhi, ni matokeo ya kambi ya Maaskofu Dodoma* (farewell Kadhi Court, it is the aftermath of Bishops’ camp in Dodoma). The story referred to the Government’s decision of presenting the bill on establishing the Kadhi court to the Parliament did not please the Muslims. Muslims wanted the president to use his extraordinary powers to decree that the Kadhi court would be established within the existing judicial system. However, that could be an unlawful decision and unconstitutional as well.

The matter was sent to the Parliament to pass it as a law, and the Government could enforce it. But Christians were against it, and they rallied in Dodoma and Dar es Salaam to raise their voices against establishing the Kadhi court. Since most MPs were Christians, the religious leaders met with their MPs, discussed the matter, and resolved to stand as one voice against it. And that is why the newspaper expresses the sad mood of Muslims about the failed attempt to pass the law on Kadhi Court. Ironically, it is made and written to arouse Muslims’ feelings that their enemy that blocked the Kadhi Court were bishops. It told Muslims that their issues with the Government and other state pillars would not succeed as long as bishops would put their hand on or not be satisfied.

To demonstrate further, An-Nuur has been bitter at the relationship between the Government and Christians. Another heading reads *MoU ni ubaguzi, udini mtupu* (MoU is full of discrimination, religious bias). The other headline is *Serikali yadaiwa kutosimama katika uadilifu* (the Government is accused of not being fair). These two headlines show that the trust between Muslims and Christians is not there. We can deduce from the headlines that the Government is discriminatory, and it puts more emphasis on issues that touch the welfare of Christians and not of Muslims. This belief existed before the 1990s, but after the emergence of some radical Muslim teachers and the emergence of IPC in 1991, the reintroduction of the multi-party system gave Muslims more courage to speak out their grievances. It was difficult to raise such issues during the totalitarian regime of a single party.

Moreover, the Islamic newspapers claim that the ruling party, CCM, does not show any determination in its manifesto to fulfil its pledges about Muslims. The newspapers have been reminding of the promise in the manifesto of 2010 that it would establish Kadhi Courts. However, it is considered a promise meant to attract votes from Muslims. One of its headlines shows this, *CCM yawabamiza tena Masheikh* (CCM thrashes the Sheikhs again). Another headline related to it is,

Mheshimiwa alikosea, Askofu hawezi kuwa gaidi (Honourable MP erred; a bishop cannot be a terrorist).

The two headlines refer to the cases of Revival (Uamsho) sheikhs in Zanzibar. They were arrested because they instigated the killings of Christian clerics in Zanzibar and incited hatred between Christians and Muslims. On top of that, the Revival Sheikhs were said to teach radical Islam, causing fear in Zanzibar. So, Uamsho leaders were arrested and detained without being sent to court for a long time pending investigation. Now the newspaper has been accusing the Government under CCM in Zanzibar to torture Muslims to maintain power grips.

An-Nuur has also been bitter at Muslims, claiming Muslims present themselves as weak or inferior, or sometimes they treat themselves as inactive. The newspaper says that some Muslims condone the situation as they fail to take action against the mistreatments they get from the Government and Christians. This is expressed in the headline that reads, *Bar mbele ya Kibla ziondolewe kwa mikono sio kwa kupiga kunuti* (Pubs in front of Kiblah will only be demolished by taking action and not by prayers). *Kunuti* means prayers in Islam. Thus, the story implies that prayers cannot solve Muslims' problems. Instead, they should move out of their Mosques and take action against oppression and discrimination.

Conclusion

We have seen the perceptions of Islamic and Christian newspapers on religious and political relations. Inequalities exacerbate religious tensions and conflicts in a country where religious diversity is enormous, like Tanzania. Certain politicians and religious elites can use religious newspapers to mobilise people, thus contributing to political and religious split in the country.

Devereux (2007: 150 – 154) gives us reflection as we conclude our article. He has discussed how ideology works in media. He says that power exercises itself through ideology. This statement means that power is exercised through unequal political relations based upon class, ethnicity, religious background, gender, etc. Ideology is a tool to maintain power through legitimation, dissimulation, unification, fragmentation, and reification.

Legitimation means unequal political relationships created and maintained by being presented in media as legitimate and for 'everybody's interest. Media will show that the existence of social classes is not something to fight against because the existing power is doing better for everybody in society. However, some media will be reminding people that what they are told is not true; instead, they are reminding them that there are classes. This is what has been happening between Islamic and Christian media. Islamic newspapers have been writing about inequalities, while Christian newspapers have been silent about them.

Another function of ideology is dissimulation. This occurs when relations of domination, such as gender inequality, religious biases, racism, are denied, hidden, or obscured. Media, including newspapers, will not explicitly show the realities about these vices to maintain the powers of men, a religious group, race, and so on. The excuse is that society will have instability once we reveal those class differences. Unification is also one of the functions of ideology. It means that hegemonic or dominant ideology unifies members of a society into a collective entity – this is usually done in opposition to a real or imagined enemy. It tends to use a term such as 'we are as a family against them.' For example, when Tanzania

faces an enemy outside, the Government will tell Tanzanians that we are one thing and should unite against that enemy. This has been happening with religious newspapers; Islamic newspapers have been mobilising fellow Muslims to be as one family against 'Christian hegemony'; likewise, Christian newspapers have been urging to be as one thing against Muslims on Kadhi court.

Sometimes ideology functions through fragmentation. Fragmentation is a tool of ideology whereby hegemony is achieved and maintained through dividing or fragmenting the potential opposition and thus reducing or removing the perceived 'threat' they might otherwise pose. This happens, for instance, when the ruling party uses clandestine means to create misunderstandings within opposition parties so that they keep on fighting internally and the ruling party stays comfortably in Power (Devereux, 2007: 153).

The last function of ideology is reification. Devereux (2007: 154) states that it is similar to legitimization, but there is a slight difference. Society is told that unequal social structures are natural and inevitable with reification. They will insist that God destined that there should be enslaved people and masters and that it is challenging to get rid of classes and inequalities. In addition to that, some members of a society accept that as divine truth. However, some will still question the validity of that justification and keep on fighting against the authorities. Still, they will not succeed because many will be made to believe that inequality is divine providence.

Therefore, it is not the question of how the framing of newspapers manifested the religious and political relations in Tanzania; instead, we should always understand that even religious newspapers can be used as tools for ideology. Groups that resist dominance and want freedom will emerge as we see the tension between Christians and Muslims in Tanzania. No group is ready to allow another group to dominate politics, education, employment, and social services. They are always in the struggle for power and domination.

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