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AN ANALYSIS OF REGISTER IN BUSINESS PAGE OF E-JAKARTA GLOBE

A THESIS

Submitted to English Language Teaching Department, Tarbiyah and Teacher Training Faculty Syekh Nurjati State Islamic Institute Cirebon in Partial Fulfillment of The Requirement of Undergraduate Degree



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ABSTRACT

ADE AGUS GUNAWAN 14111310001: AN ANALYSIS OF REGISTER IN **BUSINESS PAGE OF E-JAKARTA GLOBE**

English language teaching has become very important because of the global status of English. English for Specific Purposes (ESP) as a subdivision of English Language Teaching (ELT) is study that addresses the immediate and very specific needs of learners for a target language which is required for academic or professional purposes. The purpose of the study was, first is to investigate varieties of registers in Business news page in e-Jakarta Globe page. Second, to analyze morphological and syntactical process registers that founded on e-Jakarta Globe.

This research takes a qualitative research and used document analysis. The data of this research taken from business news page on e-Jakarta Globe. The researcher chooses ten news articles on the e-Jakarta Globe page published at December 2016 edition.

Based on the analyzing data the researcher discovers single word registers and phrase registers. In single word register Common Noun is the highest percentage and the fewest is Past Participle Adjective. In phrase consist of Noun Phrase and Adjective Phrase. The seventh text news is the highest frequency of register and the fewest is fourth text.

From the Morphological analysis in register business English that the researcher founded, Root Word has the greatest number, following with Derivational Affix, Inflectional Affix, Compound Word and the fewest number is Acronym. Suffix is the most affixation that formed word to be derivational and inflectional than Prefix. Word that added by prefix and suffix only two, there are Non-subsidized and Underwriters. While syntactical analysis Noun Phrase is most commonly founded following with Adjective Phrase.

The result is studying ESP become important for student to faces globalization such as English for Science and Technology, English in the Work Place, English for Business etc. It is needed to understand the language, because register described for the situational context, the linguistic features, and the functional relationships between the first two components.

Key Words: English for specific purposes, Register Analysis, Morphology and Syntax



RATIFICATION

The thesis which is entitled AN ANALYSIS OF REGISTER IN BUSINESS PAGE OF E-JAKARTA GLOBE written by ADE AGUS GUNAWAN, with registration number 14111310001, has been examined on February 6th, 2017. It has been recognized as one of the requirements for Undergraduate Degree in English Education Department of The Faculty of Tarbiyah and Teaching Science Syekh Nurjati State Institute for Islamic Studies (IAIN) Cirebon.

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CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION

This chapter contains the basic point of the research covers Research Background, Focus of the Study, Question of the Research, Aims of the Research, Significance of the Research, The Methodology of the Research, Research System, and Previous Studies.

Research Background 1.1.

The development of business forced people to understand in business field. McClanahan (2014: 4) stated that ASEAN countries are working toward the goal of establishing a full-fledged, single-market ASEAN Economic Community by 2015. Beside that the development of technology also drive business activity by internet. For example, news about business is not only printed on paper, but also using online media. Because of this the last updated information can deliver faster.

The origin of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and its development is closely linked with learners' interest in various specific disciplines especially English for Business. Student learn ESP represented by studying subject matter, to gain and develop appropriate knowledge and skill through English. That is why English is not seen as the main goal in the process of learning, but rather a vehicle for its acquirement.

The needs of ESP are very necessary for English Language Teaching students. According to Kim (2008: 3), ESP is a subarea of teacher of English to speakers other language (TESOL), which is the current and alternative term for teaching English as a second language (TESL). As a prospective teacher, they should comprehend about ESP for teaching in vocational high school. If teacher want to teach business English, they should understand about the register because it is important for example in writing or speaking subject such as make an advertising, e-mail, selling product, etc.

The differences between GE and ESP is because ESP using different varieties of language. Varieties of language in English for Specific Purposes refers to register that used in specific term. Register is the way the speaker talk or giving information to listener or reader in specific circumstance. In linguistics, register is a variety of a language used for particular purpose or in a particular social setting. Wardhaugh (1997) emphasizes the term register as a set of vocabulary items associated with occupational groups. Biber and Conrad (2009:31) also explained that a register is defined as a language variety associated with both a particular situation of use and with pervasive linguistic features that serve important functions within that situation of use.

The term register was first used by the linguist Thomas Bertram Reid in 1956, and brought into general currency in the 1960 by a group of linguist who wanted to distinguish among variations in language according to the user (defined by variables such as social background, geography, sex and age), and variations according to use, "in the sense that each speaker has a range of varieties and choices between at different times" (Halliday et al., 1964:31). Register in the view of M.A.K Halliday and R. Hasan (1976:31), is one of the two defining concepts of a text. A text passage of discourse which is coherent in these two regards: it's coherent with respect to itself, and therefore cohesive. The register perspective combines an analysis of linguistic characteristics that are common in a text variety with analysis of the situation of use of the variety. The basic notion of the register perspective is that core linguistic features like pronouns and verbs are functional, and as a result, particular features are commonly used in association with the communicative purposes and situational context of texts.

Register can formed by one word or more. The range of a word is important in ESP. A word would have a narrow range of use within a particular subject area. This means that specialized words are expected to belong to a particular subject area at university or to a professional discipline or particular skill. People outside that academic or professional sphere might have some knowledge of this vocabulary but the people inside these areas of

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language use would be expected to be able to understand and use this language fluently. According to Coxhead (2013:116) Vocabulary in ESP is important for several reasons. First, teachers and learners need to know that precious classroom time is directly related to their language needs. Secondly, understanding and using this special purposes vocabulary shows that these learners belong to a particular group. Student must aware that understanding about register must completely understood, as guidelines for the discipline or particular skill.

These registers can be difficult to understand if the reader or listener is a common person in business field. According to Maxom (2009:281) the main differences between general and business English is register and the organization of a functional-notional syllabus which means that instead of learning one piece of grammar or vocabulary. Hutcinson and Waters (1987:53) have pointed out the differences English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and English for General Purposes (EGP), ESP differs from EGP in the sense that vocabulary, structures, and the subject matter related to a particular field or discipline in the former. For example, a businessman writing a business proposal or a diplomat preparing a policy paper, they are needs register to write it down. ESP make use of vocabulary and tasks related to the specific field that one belongs to.

Comprehend about register must totally understood, because not only in academic text, but also in newspapers the readers find the column using registers. In class, at a meeting, or at home you may read or hear a business term that is unfamiliar to you. Sometimes you may feel uneasy or ignorant if there is just one term you don't recognize. The readers find any difficulties to understand the information given on the newspaper if the readers did not clearly know what the register that is written on it. For example on the business column the readers do not understand if find the word cost of delivery. The meaning of this register is not about buyer pay the cost of distribution something that buyer buy, but this register explained that buyer

do transaction face to face between buyer and seller in other word no money no goods.

Beside that, understanding about morphology and syntax can improve student's ability of language especially in reading ability, because in morphological and syntax learning the students learn the component of linguistic area, such as semantics, pragmatics, and phonology. As stated by Kirby and Bowers (2012: 3), "morphological instruction was more effective when it was combined with other aspects of language arts instruction this makes sense, because morphology helps to integrate other aspects of reading (semantics, orthography and phonology)". So learning morphology is important to everyone who wants to master a language.

The research study of English for Specific Purposes have been investigated by many researchers. According to Paltridge and Starfield (2013:2) ESP has many areas of research, there are language varieties or register, ESP language skill, needs analysis, curriculum development, genre, assessment, teaching and learning. This research analyzed register in business page of e-Jakarta Globe, as Basturkmen (2006:35) argue that one early approach to ESP, Register Analysis, was concerned with identifying and teaching the grammatical structures and vocabulary seen as of central importance in scientific and technical writing. The researcher took business English because as ESP is one of TESOL that important to study.

1.2. Focus of the Study

The development of technology can fulfill the needs of business news. E-Jakarta Globe is one of online newspaper that have business rubric. In this research the researcher tries to find out the register and analyzing the morphological and syntactical process of registers on the business news page of e-Jakarta Globe. The study focused on Register Analysis as Hutchinson and Waters (1987:10) stated that register analysis revealed that there was very little that was distinctive in the sentence grammar of Scientific English beyond



a tendency to favor particular forms such as the present simple tense, the passive voice and nominal compounds.

1.3. Questions of the Research

- 1) What are business register founded on e-Jakarta Globe?
- 2) How is the morphological process and syntactic processing of registers on e-Jakarta Globe?

1.4. Aims of the Research

- 1) To find out what are business register founded on e-Jakarta Globe.
- 2) To know how is the morphological process and syntactic processing of registers on e-Jakarta Globe.

1.5. Significance of the Research

The researcher hopefully this research has some benefit to the teacher, students and other researcher.

- 1.5.1. For the teacher, hopefully this research becomes recommendation in teaching English for Specific Purposes especially business English.
- 1.5.2. For the student, hopefully this research applicable in learning English and can be reference in learning and teaching English for Specific Purposes.
- 1.5.3. For the other researcher, hopefully this research becomes reference in scientific research, especially in English for Specific Purposes.

1.6. Theoretical Foundation

1.6.1. The Definition of English for Specific Purposes

ESP is a subarea of TESOL, which is the current and alternative term for teaching English as a second language (TESL) (Kim 2008: 3). ESP is a linguistic field of study that addresses the immediate and very specific needs of learners for a target language which is required for academic or professional purposes (Hossain, 2013: 17). ESP is the

role of English in a language course or program of instruction in which the content and aims of the course are fixed by the specific needs of a particular group of learners (Richards and Schmidt, 2010: 198). From that statements above can conclude that ESP is a study of linguistic field that addresses the immediate and very specific needs of learners for a target language which is required for academic or professional purposes.

Kim (2008: 2) categorizing ESP into two type, there are English for Academic Purposes (EAP) students whose eventual goal is to improve their English for their education including studying abroad, Richards and Schmidt (2010: 197) state that English for Academic Purposes (EAP) is a branch of English for special or specific purposes and based on the study of how language is used for academic purposes. English language courses designed to help learners study, conduct research, or teach in English, usually in universities or other postsecondary settings. Such courses may prepare students to take tests such as TOEFL or IELTS, they may prepare students to be able to deal with listening, speaking, reading and writing demands in academic courses, and may also address study skills. While English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) learners whose primary purpose for learning English is to improve job-related language skills. EOP particularly concerns with adult language acquisition as well as with aspects of general training for adult learners; the purpose of EOP training is to enhance workplace performance, with special attention to how adults learn a language to communicate better in job-related contexts.

Meanwhile Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998: 4-5) divided characteristic features of ESP in two groups according its absolute and variable attributes. Concerning the absolute characteristics are:

a) ESP is defined to meet specific needs of the learner.

- b) ESP makes use of the underlying methodology and activities of the discipline it serves.
- c) ESP is centered of the language (grammar, lexis, and register), skills, discourse and genres appropriate to these activities.

The variable characteristics are:

- a) ESP may be related to or designed for specific disciplines.
- b) ESP may use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of general English.
- c) ESP likely to be designed for adult learners, either at tertiary level institution or in personal work situation.
- d) ESP generally designed for intermediate or advanced students.
- e) Most ESP courses assume some basic knowledge of the language system, but it can be used with beginners.

English for Specific Purposes (ESP) emphasizes learners' needs of English in which the purposes are expressed in functional terms. Thus, ESP is not specialized in general English, but typical English. ESP requires English learners to specify certain reasons concerning with the learners' studies or jobs. In addition, it should enable the learners to learn something from their teacher and the learner must investigate the use, on which the language putted. The student develop their knowledge and skills in their specific purpose through English. Its means that student do the task and materials in English to gain their specific purposes.

1.6.2. The Definition of Register

In general terms, a register is a variety of language associated with a particular situation of use (including particular communicative purposes). The description of a register covers three major components: the situational context, the linguistic features, and the functional relationships between the first two components (Biber and Conrad 2009:9). Biber and Conrad (2009:10) also argue that registers are

described for their typical lexical and grammatical characteristics their linguistic features. Register also described for their situational contexts, for example whether they are produced in speech or writing, whether they are interactive, and what their primary communicative purposes are. One of the central arguments of the book is that linguistic features are always functional when considered from a register perspective. That is, linguistic features tend to occur in a register because they are particularly well suited to the purposes and situational context of the register. Thus, the third component of any register description is the functional analysis.

The kind of varieties of register are another complicating factor in any study of language varieties. Register are set of language items associated with discrete occupational or social groups. Surgeons, airline pilots, bank manager, sales clerk, jazz fans, and pimps employ different register (Wardhaugh 2010:48). As Ferguson (1994:20) said that people participating in recurrent communication situations tend to develop similar vocabularies, similar features of intonation, and characteristic bits of syntax and phonology that they use in these situations.

Register is used as a cover term for any variety associated with particular situational context or purposes. Although register distinctions are defined in non-linguistics terms, there are usually important linguistic differences among registers as well. In many cases, registers are named varieties within culture, such as novel, letters, editorials, sermons, and debates (Bieber 1995:1). This variety is distinguishing who the people are and where the people come from.

Another influence on speech style that is tied to social identity derives from register. A register is a conventional way of using language that is appropriate in a specific context, which may be identified as situational e.g. in church, occupational e.g. among lawyers or topical e.g. talking about language. Specific features that

occur in the religious register can recognized (Ye shall be blessed by Him in times of tribulation), the legal register (The plaintiff is ready to take the witness stand) and even the linguistics register (In the morphology of this dialect there are fewer inflectional suffixes). One of the defining features of a register is the use of jargon, which is special technical vocabulary (e.g. plaintiff, suffix) associated with a specific area of work or interest. In social terms, jargon helps to create and maintain connections among those who see themselves as "insiders" in some way and to exclude "outsiders." This exclusive effect of specialized jargon, as in the medical register (e.g. Zanoxyn is a nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drug for arthritis, bursitis and tendonitis), often leads to complaints about what may seem like "jargonitis." (Yule 2010:259)

Speakers learn different registers through socialization in different cultural groups within their society. Refer to as 'legalese' or 'personal ads' are identifiable registers for most people. Use of such registers thus either conforms to the norms for a particular, socially situated way of using language, or is a way of invoking the context usually associated with that register. Of course, one person may control a variety of registers, you can be a stockbroker and an archeologist, or a mountain climber and an economist. A register helps you to construct an identity at a specific time or place.

1.6.3. Language of News and Business English

News had been at the center of human existence. Therefore, the dissemination of news is recognized as the most important of the media functions. News consist of the latest, most recent events, report, or information on any subjects. These report, which are systematically gathered and distributed by the media, are aimed at enabling the populace to be informed about matters or happenings around them for any necessary caution or action or just to satisfy their natural human

curiosity and desire to know. The news could be in the form of events that are still unfolding, new discoveries or new methods of doing something. News is essentially targeted at educating the consumer on any subject fey giving him information on that subject. Armed with the necessary information, the consumer can take any decision he deems fit for the development of his own business and consequently the nation (Agbese, 1997: 65)

To talk about language and news media, and to examine the relation of media to our understanding of language itself, is to consider language both in and of media. Linguistically, this comprises attention to sound, form, and meaning, and the micro and macro aspects of language function and structure, from the small grammatical segment to the longer stretch of discourse, from phonetics to philosophy, variation to policy. Students can study how language operates within the boundaries of the news profession, how language is made unique through the constraints, exigencies, practice-rules, and ideologies of the news process. Students can look at language resulting from specific processes and "production ways" in the media, the operations of journalists, the participants comprising the media, and that which is associated with, connected to, or produced by the media (Cotter, 2010:232).

It also bears repeating that the language of news operates at the intersection of important linguistic and social separations and the resources of language and communication that are used to manage these tensions. These traditional dichotomies, which media language data serve to challenge, include formal and informal, public and private, written and spoken, prestige and accommodation, authority and solidarity.

As explained before, an enormous expansion had influence in scientific, technical and economic on international scale. This expansion created a world unified and dominated by two forces

technology and commerce which in their relentless progress soon generated a demand for an international language (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987:5). English is now recognized as one of the most important tools of the workplace and a marker of professional expertise, particularly in English as it becomes the accepted medium for cross-linguistic transactions. The value of effective writing to these professionals is obviously crucial, and courses, textbooks and reference materials have addressed both writing skills and the components of texts such as manuals, technical reports, memos, proposals and a variety of report genres (Hyland, 2009:213).

Many people don't read business news, and for good reason. There's nothing more boring than a story that uses a bunch of numbers in the lead without explaining what's actually going on. But business news writing doesn't have to be boring, or laden with numbers. Like any other news article, the best business journalism tells a good story and entices the reader with a compelling lead. The best business journalists may use numbers in their leads, but they primarily use words to explain what's going on. They write a story, not a balance sheet. The numbers are only there to support the thesis of the writing. This is business news pattern:

- 1) Avoid an overabundance of numbers in one sentence or paragraph.

 The limit is usually two, but sometimes will use three if they are simple concepts to understand. And avoid numbers in the lead. Instead, explain what's happening with the company, or unemployment, in the lead, and then use the numbers in the second paragraph to back up what you wrote.
- 2) Using short sentences.
 No more than 35 words should be used in the lead of a business story.
 When writer wrote about the embarrassing typo printed on two million 12-packs of Coca-Cola right before the 1996 Summer

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Olympics, the lead was, "What a difference one letter makes." That's only six words, but it got the point across.

- 3) Always lead with the "what," be it a company, executive or product. That strategy forces us to write our lead using an active verb, and results in a direct sentence for the reader to understand. It also lets the reader know up front who or what the story is about.
- 4) Never put the time element before the verb in the lead.

 The verb tells the reader what the action is, and that's what the reader wants. If writer tell them when the action happened before the action has taken place in the sentence, then writer just confuse them.
- 5) Avoid using names in the lead unless the person is well known. For example, this works best for the Atlanta media: "Doug Ivester, the chief executive officer of Coca-Cola Co., resigned Sunday amid disagreements with the board about the future direction of the company." For everyone else, go with something shorter: "Coca-Cola Co.'s CEO resigned Sunday amid disagreements about the future direction of the company."
- 6) Not used "funky" punctuation.

The writer is already asking a reader or listener to pay attention to something that may be foreign. A semi-colon, parentheses or a colon might just confuse them enough to make them stop reading and find something else to read. For example, don't write this: "The CFO of a Fayetteville mining company resigned his job Tuesday; the company did not name a replacement." Instead, go with this: "The CFO of a Fayetteville mining company resigned Tuesday amid allegations of inflated earnings."

1.6.4. The Definition of Morphology

The term morphology is generally recognized to the German poet, novelist, playwright, and philosopher, who invented it early in the nineteenth century in a biological context. Its etymology is Greek:

morph- means 'shape, form', and morphology is the study of form or forms. In biology, the term morphology is referring to the study of the form and structure of organisms, and in geology it refers to the study of the configuration and evolution of land forms.

In linguistics Fromkin, Rodman and Hyams (2003: 76) expalined that, "morphology consists of two morphemes, morph and ology the suffix –ology means science of or branch of knowledge concerning thus the meaning of morphology is the science of word forms". Beside that a branch of linguistics which studies about word formation is called morphology. Andrew Carstairs-McCarthy (2002:2) also argue that morphology refers to the mental system involved in word formation or to the branch of linguistics that deals with words, their internal structure, and how they are formed. In other word morphology is the study of word formation how words are built up from smaller pieces.

In the past morphology has sometimes been studied separately from syntax, but in recent years it has become more usual to include it within syntax. This is principally because it is vital to the inflectional system of English (Finch 2003:176). Finch also said that morphology is concern with the structure of word, if think about the process whereby can create new words in the language, it is very rare that make up something entirely new. Native also borrow a word from another language or adapt an existing word. The frequent ways to do this is by adding a suffix or prefix to the word, or morphological terms is a morpheme.



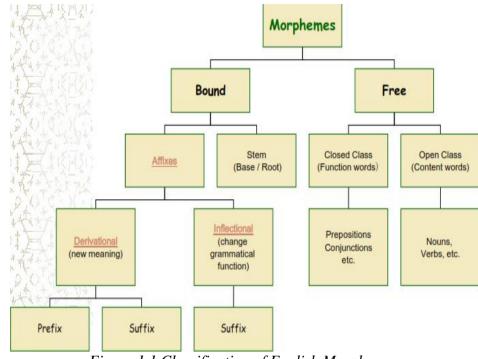


Figure 1.1 Classification of English Morpheme

Morphemes are the smallest unit of meaning and the smallest unit of grammatical analysis in the language (Finch 2003:176). It is important not to confuse them with syllables which are units of sound and essentially meaningless. A morpheme often defined as the smallest linguistic pieces with a grammatical function. This definition is not meant to include all morphemes, but it is the usual one and a good starting point. A morpheme may consist of a word, such as hand, or a meaningful piece of a word, such as the –ed of looked, that cannot be divided into smaller meaningful parts. Another way in which morphemes have been defined is as a pairing between sound and meaning. Readers have purposely chosen not to use this definition. Some morphemes have no concrete form or no continuous form, and some do not have meanings in the conventional sense of the term. Adding a morpheme on to an existing stem can change the meaning in some way even if it is grammatical meaning.

2. 1. 1.

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1.6.4.1. Free

A free morpheme is one that can stand on its own – that is, it's an entire word. Examples *the*, *cat*, *run*, *pretty*, *trapezoid*. Free morphemes may appear with other bound morphemes attached to them; crucially, though, they don't need to have other morphemes on them.

1.6.4.2. Bound

A bound morpheme cannot stand on its own, but rather must be attached to a free morpheme whenever you say it. Examples re-, un-, -est, -er, -fer.

1.6.4.3. Root

The primary piece of meaning in a word, to which affixes can be added. In English, a root is often a word itself. Examples *cat*, *pretty*.

1.6.4.4. Affix

A morpheme which attaches to roots (or stems), changing their meaning in regular ways. Affixes are generally either prefixes or suffixes.

- a. Prefix: An affix that goes before a root. Examples *re-*, *un-* (*re-read*, *un-loved*).
- b. Suffix: An affix that goes after a root Examples -est, -er, -s (quick-est, quick-er, read-s, book-s).

1.6.4.5. Inflection

The process by which affixes combine with roots to indicate basic grammatical categories such as tense or plurality (e.g. in 'cat-s', 'talk-ed', '-s' an d'-ed' are inflectional suffixes). Inflection is viewed as the process of adding very general meanings to existing words, not as the creation of new words.

1.6.4.6. Derivation

The process by which affixes combine with roots to create new words (e.g. in 'modern-ize', 'read-er', '-ize' and '-er' are

derivational suffixes). Derivation is viewed as using existing words to make new words.

Aronoff and Fudeman (2011:2) also run across the term morph. The term 'morph' is sometimes used to refer specifically to the phonological realization of a morpheme. For example, the English past tense morpheme that spell –ed has various morphs. It is realized as [t] after the voiceless [p] of jump (cf. jumped), as [d] after the voiced [l] of repel (cf. repelled), and as [əd] after the voiceless [t] of root or the voiced [d] of wed (cf. rooted and wedded). It can also call these morphs allomorphs or variants. The appearance of one morph over another in this case is determined by voicing and the place of articulation of the final consonant of the verb stem.

Now consider the word reconsideration. It can break it into three morphemes: re-, consider, and -ation. Consider is called the stem. A stem is a base unit to which another morphological piece is attached. The stem can be simple, made up of only one part, or complex, itself made up of more than one piece. Here it is best to consider consider a simple stem. Although it consists historically of more than one part, most present-day speakers would treat it as an unanalyzable form. Student could also call consider the root. A root is like a stem in constituting the core of the word to which other pieces attach, but the term refers only to morphologically simple units. For example, disagree is the stem of disagreement, because it is the base to which -ment attaches, but agree is the root. Taking disagree now, agree is both the stem to which dis- attaches and the root of the entire word.

1.6.5. The Definition of Syntax

Syntax is the study of the way in which phrases and sentences are structured out of words. Syntax is the part of grammar that

represents a speaker's knowledge of sentences and their structures (Fromkin et all, 2011: 78). All languages have mechanisms that make the number of sentences limitless. Given this fact, the sentences of a language cannot be stored in a dictionary format in our heads. Rather, sentences are composed of discrete units that are combined by rules. This system of rules explains how speakers can store infinite knowledge in a finite space our brains.

Syntax refers to the way words are grammatically formed and ordered to form phrases, clauses, and sentences. Some syntactic structures are thought to affect reader performance, particularly verb voice and clause structures. Syntactic rules reveal the grammatical relations among the words of a sentence as well as their order and hierarchical organization. They also explain how the grouping of words relates to its meaning, such as when a sentence or phrase is ambiguous. In addition, the rules of the syntax permit speakers to produce and understand a limitless number of sentences never produced or heard before the creative aspect of linguistic knowledge. A major goal of linguistics is to show clearly and explicitly how syntactic rules account for this knowledge. A theory of grammar must provide a complete characterization of what speakers implicitly know about their language.

A family of expressions that can substitute for one another without loss of grammaticality is called a syntactic category. *The child, a police officer, John*, and so on belong to the syntactic category noun phrase (NP), one of several syntactic categories in English and every other language in the world. NP may function as the subject or as an object in a sentence. NP often contain a determiner such as *a* or *the* and a noun, but they may also consist of a proper name, a pronoun, a noun without a determiner, or even a clause or a sentence. Even though a proper noun like John and pronouns such as he and him are

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single words, they are technically NP, because they pattern like NP in being able to fill a subject or object or other NP slots.

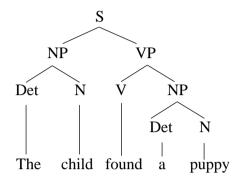
There are other syntactic categories. The expression found a puppy is a verb phrase (VP). A verb phrase always contains a verb (V), and it may contain other categories, such as a noun phrase or prepositional phrase (PP), which is a preposition followed by a NP, such as in the park, on the roof, with a balloon. Syntactic categories include both phrasal categories such as NP, VP, AdjP (adjective phrase), PP (prepositional phrase), and AdvP (adverbial phrase), as well as lexical categories such as noun (N), verb (V), preposition (P), adjective (Adj), and adverb (Adv). Each lexical category has a corresponding phrasal category.

Many of these categories may already be familiar, they are traditionally referred to as parts of speech. Other categories may be less familiar, for example, the category determiner (Det), which includes the articles a and the, as well as demonstratives such as this, that, these, and those, and "counting words" such as each and every. Another less familiar category is auxiliary (Aux), which includes the verbs have, had, be, was, and were, and the modals may, might, can, could, must, shall, should, will, and would. Aux and Det are functional categories, so called because their members have a grammatical function rather than a descriptive meaning. For example, determiners specify whether a noun is indefinite or definite (a boy versus the boy), or the proximity of the person or object to the context (this boy versus that boy). Auxiliaries provide the verb with a time frame, whether ongoing (John is dancing), completed in the past (John has danced), or occurring in the future (John will dance). Auxiliaries may also express notions such as possibility (John may dance), necessity (John must dance), ability (John can dance), and so on.

A tree diagram with syntactic category information is called a phrase structure tree or a constituent structure tree. Hierarchical

1. D. 2. D. b.

structure of the syntactic categories composed of a NP followed by a VP, a VP is composed of a V that may be followed by an NP, and so on.



The following tree diagram provides labels for each of the constituents of the sentence, the child and a puppy belong to the category NP, and found a puppy belongs to the category VP, consisting of a verb and an NP. It also reveals the syntactic category of each of the words in the sentence.

1.6.6. Types of Word

Words are usually allocated to one of the following range of word classes such as noun, pronoun, article, verb, adjective, adverb, preposition, conjunction and interjection (Dykes, 2007:21).

1.6.6.1. Noun

The word 'noun' comes from Latin *nomen* meaning 'name'. A noun is the name of a thing. Everything that exists has a name, whether you can see it or not. A blind person cannot see something, but that does not mean that it isn't there! It may only exist in our minds, like hope, beauty or calories. Dykes said that noun consist of four kinds, there are Common noun, Proper noun, Collective noun and Abstract noun

Common noun, these are names of everyday things that can see, hear or touch. For example: table, banana, volcano, song. It can put the word 'the' in front of them and

make sense, as in: the rope, the poison If it does not make sense, the word cannot be a noun.

Proper noun, the word 'proper' comes from the French word propre meaning one's own, i.e. belonging to a particular person or thing. Proper nouns are the special names that usually given to people, places and particular things like the days of the week, months of the year, or even the titles of books or TV shows. For example: Jason, Town Hall, China, French, The Wishing Chair. Because they are special and individual names, they start with a capital letter and, apart from people, most of these things have only one proper name.

Collective noun, these are names for groups of things, animals or people, which go together, or have something in common. For example: student, people, choir.

Abstract noun, Abstract nouns form what can be the most difficult group to understand, as they represent ideas, and have no physical substance that you can see or touch. The idea may be of quality, for example: beauty, greed, intelligence or the idea may be a state that is felt or suffered, for example: joy, misery, neglect. It may be the act of something, for example: duty, aggression. It may even be an event or happening, for example: conversation, pause.

1.6.6.2. Pronoun

The word 'pronoun' comes from the Latin pronomen meaning 'for a noun'. As the word implies, pronouns are the words that usually use in place of nouns. Pronoun is a replace word. Some of grammar book classify a pronoun including: Subjective pronoun (i, you, we, they, he, she it), objectives pronoun (me you, us, them, him, her and it), possessive adjective (my, yours, our their, his, her, ts), possessive pronoun (yours, our, their, his, hers, its).



1.6.6.3. Verb

The word 'verb' comes from the Latin verbum meaning 'word'. Verbs are doing, being or having words. A verb is often defined as a word which shows action or state of being. Examples: give, watch, washing, reading, write and etc. A verb needs a noun (or a pronoun) in front of it for it to make sense. Verbs are of two kinds, non-finite or finite. Non-finite means not complete. Non-finite verbs are not complete, because they do not have a subject, that is, the person or thing that does the action, or that the sentence is about. Non-finite verbs also do not show a sense of time such as tense. Finite verbs have both a subject and a tense. For example: I hope (present) John hoped (past). The most common and recognizable form of non-finite verb is the to-infinitive. For example: to drink, to be, to laugh.

1.6.6.4. Adjective

The word 'adjective' is from Latin ad jacere meaning 'throw to' or 'add'. In the grammatical sense, this means to add the characteristics of something, i.e. to qualify it. An adjective is often defined as a word which describe or gives more information about a noun or pronoun. Adjectives can be formed from nouns to express the quality of the noun, for example: point [noun], pointed [adjective] hope [noun], hopeful [adjective]. Adjectives can also be formed from verbs for example: to run [verb], running [adjective], to believe [verb], believable [adjective].

There are alternative terms applied to the act of comparing the extent or amount of the quality expressed by the adjective. If two things are compared (comparative form), use the suffix er for example: louder. If more than two things

are compared (superlative form), use the suffix est for example: loudest.

1.6.6.5. Adverb

Remembering that the word 'verb' is derived from Latin verbum meaning 'word' we see that adverb must mean something added to a word. An adverb can modify a verb, adjective and another verb. Examples: load, too, well, slowly, quickly.

1.6.6.6. Preposition

The word 'preposition' is from the Latin word praepositio meaning 'placed before' or 'in front of'. A preposition is word which show relationship among other words in the sentence. Examples: on, in, beside, behind, during.

1.6.6.7. Conjunction

This word is from the Latin con meaning 'together' and jungere meaning 'to join'. A conjunction joins two or more parts of speech of a similar kind or two or more parts of a sentence. A conjunction is a word that connects to others word or group of word. Example: and, not, but, or, so and so on.

1.6.6.8. Interjection

This is another word from the Latin, inter, meaning 'between' or 'among' and jacere 'to throw'. In other words, an interjection is something 'thrown' in. An interjection is an exclamation of one or two words that stands alone and is usually a response to surprise, shock or disgust, such as 'Goodness!' or 'Yuk!' Interjection is a word that added to a sentence to convey emotion. It's not a grammatically related to any other part of sentence.

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1.6.7. Types of Phrase

The word 'phrase' comes, via Latin, from the Greek phrazein meaning 'to tell'. A phrase provides additional information to a statement. It is a group of words without a finite verb which forms a grammatical unit that can do the work of an adjective, an adverb or a noun (or pronoun, less commonly).

1.6.7.1. Noun phrases

These have the function of nouns so they can also be objects, subjects or complements. For this reason, unlike adjectival and adverbial phrases, they form a necessary part of the sentence. For example:

- Fishing in the causeway is my favorite hobby.
 noun phrase as subject
- I love fishing in the causeway.
 noun phrase as object
- My Dad's work is fishing in the sea.
 noun phrase as complement

1.6.7.2. Adjectival phrases

This is a group of words forming a unit and doing the work of an adjective. Therefore, it tells more about a noun or pronoun. For example:

- Today I saw a man with a glass eye.
 adjectival phrase qualifying the noun 'man'
- Somebody wearing army boots robbed the bank.
 adjectival phrase qualifying the pronoun 'somebody'

1.6.7.3. Adjectival phrases

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Today I saw a man with a glass eye.

- adjectival phrase qualifying the noun 'man'
- Somebody wearing army boots robbed the bank.
- adjectival phrase qualifying the pronoun 'somebody'

1.6.7.4. Adverbial phrases

As the name suggests these phrases give more information about the action of the verb. They modify verbs in just the same way that single adverbs do. And, just like adverbs, they give answers to the questions: When? – time; Where? – place; How? – manner; Why? – reason etc. For example, adverbial phrases modifying the verb 'caught':

- Jack caught a huge fish just before sunset. [time]
- Jack caught a huge fish in the causeway. [place]
- Jack caught a huge fish with his new rod. [manner]
- Jack caught a huge fish to have for supper. [reason]

1.7. The Methodology of the Research

1.7.1. The method of the Research

The method of this research is document analysis. Content or document analysis is a research method applied to written or visual materials for the purpose of identifying specified characteristics of the material (Ary et.al, 2010: 457). This research takes place in the library because conducting content analysis taken from website that is Jakarta Globe online news.

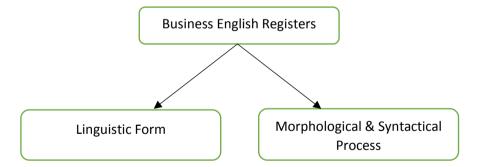
1.7.2. Source of Data

The source of data in this research is collected from business news page on e-Jakarta Globe. The materials analyzed can be textbooks, newspapers, web pages, speeches, television programs, advertisements, musical compositions, or any of a host of other types of documents (Ary et al., 2010:457).

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> The researcher chooses ten news articles on the e-Jakarta Globe page published at December edition. Ten news articles consist of Palm Oil Prices Tick up Ahead of US: Malaysia Data written by Naveen Thukral, BKPM Milks Investment in Malang written by Dion PLN's **Tariff** Bisara. Consumer Group: Adjustment Unconstitutional written by Tabita Diela, Centeral Bank Closed on Wednesday Due to Elections written by Tabita Diela, IDX Engages Underwriters in Its Aim to Boost Listings written by Vanesha Manuturi, Dua Putra Fishing to Increase Exports Next Year written by Vanesha Manuturi, Indonesia's E-Commerce Industry to Capitalize on 'Harbolnas' Sales written by Vanesha Manuturi, World Bank: Rising Inequality Poses Risks for Indonesia's Growth written by Tabita Diela, MatahariMall.com, Pos Indonesia in Tandem to Boost E-Commerce written by Indah Handayani, Ahok Gives Uber the Go-Ahead in Jakarta written by Dion Bisara.

1.7.3. Research Design



1.8. Research System

1.9.1. Step of the Research

The researcher used some steps to getting the data:

- 1. Specifying the phenomenon to be investigated.
- 2. Selecting the media from which the observations are to be made.
- 3. Formulating exhaustive and mutually exclusive coding categories so that the verbal or symbolic content can be counted.

- 4. Deciding on the sampling plan to be used in order to obtain a representative sample of the documents5. Training the coders so that they can consistently apply the coding
- 5. Training the coders so that they can consistently apply the coding scheme that has been developed and thus contribute to the reliability of the content analysis.
- 6. Analyzing the data.

1.9.2. Instrument of the Research

The instrument of the research is the researcher himself. In qualitative research, the human investigator is the primary instrument for the gathering and analyzing the data. Lincoln and Guba (1985) introduced the concept of human as instrument to emphasize the unique role that qualitative researchers paly in the inquiry. Because qualitative research studies human experiences and situations, researchers need an instrument flexible enough to capture the complexity of the human, and instrument capable of adapting and responding to the environment. Lincoln and Guba believed that only a human instrument was capable of this task. A he or she talk with people in the setting, observe their activities, reads their document and written records, and records this information in the filed note and journals.

1.9.3. Technique of Collecting Data

According to Ary, et al (2010:431) stated that document analysis can be written or text-based artifact (textbook, novels, journals, meeting minute, logs, announcements, policy statements, newspaper, transcripts, birth certificates, marriage records, budgets, letters, e-mail messages, etc.) or of non-written records (photographs, audiotapes, videotapes, computer images, websites, musical performances, televised political speeches, YouTube videos, virtual world settings, etc.) The researcher collected page of business news

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on Jakarta Globe online news and find out the register related with Business English (BE) on the news text.

1.9.4. Analysis Data

There are some stages of qualitative data analysis adopted from Wolcott (1994) as cited in Ary (2012: 482):

- 1. Reading,
- 2. Coding,
- 3. Memoing,
- 4. Categorizing,
- 5. Connecting,
- 6. Reporting,

1.9.5. Coding

Coding is about developing concepts from the raw data. Labeling or coding of items is done in order to begin to recognize differences and similarities in the data (Ary et.al, 2010: 483).

Table 1.1 Coding of Register Analysis

Code	Meaning
P	Paragraph
L	Line
CN	Common Noun
PN	Proper Noun
AN	Abstarct Noun
FV	Finete Verb
NFV	Non Finete Verb
OA	Original Adjective
PPA	Past Participle Adjective
CA	Compound adjective

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AC	Acronym
СР	Compound
NP	Noun Phrase
AdjP	Adjective Phrase
MR	Morphological Rules
S	Phrase Structure Rules
TD	Tree Diagram

1.9. Previous Studies

There are so much kinds of the previous research which about Register Analysis. But the researcher explained approximately four previous researches.

First research is about analysis of English politics register in political column of "Jakarta Post" newspaper investigated by Ratna (2014). The research was investigated communication happens in the political field. The social factors are status, education, gender, economic background, it means they have different ways of speaking so called language varieties in the use of register. The result shows that the first is linguistic form and function contained in some newspaper. The linguistic form such as noun, verb, and adjective, and linguistic function such as subject, predicate, object, object complement, complement and adverbial subject. Second the meaning of politic register between English politic and general English.

Second research about Morphological productivity across speech and writing investigated by Ingo Plag, Christiane Dalton-Puffer and Harald Baayen. This research investigates a quantitative investigation of the productivity of a few English derivational suffixes across three types of discourse. It is a study of the role of morphology in language use and only secondarily concerned with the structural aspects of morphological productivity. Three main points emerge from the analysis. First, within a single register, different suffixes may differ enormously in their productivity, even if structurally they are constrained to a similar extent. Second, across

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the three registers under investigation a given suffix may display vast differences in productivity. Third, the register variation of suffixes is not uniform, i.e. there are suffixes that show differences in productivity across registers while other suffixes do not. The result is, first, the research has shown that the productivity of a given suffix may differ across different registers. In fact, the vast majority of the suffixes under investigation behave in this way. Secondly and conversely, it can be stated that registers differ in the amount of derivational morphology being used. Thirdly, the register-related patterning of the suffixes is not uniform.

Third research about analysis of register language on English for specific purposes textbook entitle "English at Work" investigated by Viki Islahi (2014). The research investigates analyzing the register in business and economic English and describe the meaning of register with comparing the meaning of register from some dictionaries. The result shows that first is the material of English at work book is about business and economics such as how to make business proposal, how to make a simple flyer, how to get effective meeting, tip for interview etc. Second is the number of register and the linguistic form and linguistic function. The last is about the meaning of the registers.

Fourth research about ESP vocabulary and social networking: The case of Twitter investigated by Carmen Pérez-Sabater and Begoña Montero-Fleta. The research reports on the results of an innovative study that applied a social networking tool to a task explicitly designed to practice specialized vocabulary. The exploratory study, framed within a blended learning approach, examined whether the use of Twitter, a microblogging tool, can help increase students' confidence in using ESP vocabulary. The research questions addressed the role of Twitter in enhancing vocabulary acquisition, in providing peer and teacher feedback, and promoting communication skills. The research comes to the conclusion that ESP students do not frequently experience problems using vocabulary specific to their specialized field of study. In terms of peer feedback, often students simply approved their peers'



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Tweets, were unable to detect errors, and preferred feedback from their teacher. A significantly positive outcome is the role of Twitter in enhancing student participation. Additionally, regarding communication skills, a particularly important finding was the effectiveness of this blended approach in involving the learners in the classroom and beyond, creating the sense of a learning community.

Based on the previous study above, the researcher found that a lot of research about register. In this research, the researcher interested to analyzing register on newspaper online on a website that is Jakarta Globe.

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