

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter discusses about some theories and approaches used in the research. Here, the writer explains the theory of pragmatics, speech act theory, illocutionary act, directive speech act, sentences, sociolinguistics, and ethnography of speaking approach.

2.1 Theory of Pragmatics

Pragmatics are part of field of linguistics and this study becomes the basis of language understanding about the ways to produce and understand the meaning through language. Levinson (1983:21) mentions that pragmatics is the study about the relations that are owned by language and context. Yule (1996:3) expresses that pragmatics is the study of meaning submitted by the speakers (writer) and defined by the listeners (reader). The focus of pragmatics attention is the interests behind the speech conceived at the speaker's expression. And speech act theory is a part of pragmatics that is relevant with the ways in which words can be used not only to explain information but also to do some actions.

2.2 Speech Act Theory

In exchanging information and maintaining relationship with each other, people always use language to communicate their purposes such as requesting, persuading, promising, giving information, congratulating, and complaining.

Speech act is a concrete manifestation of language functions. Kriedler (1998:181) states, speech acts can be defined on three types of act. First act is Locutionary, the act of making a meaningful utterance. The Second is Perlocutionary, the act that has an impact or effect on the listener of uttering a sentence. The last act is Illocutionary, the act which states the actions or meanings to listener for doing something. From the three aspects of speech acts the writer is interested in directive speech act which is part of illocutionary act.

2.3 Illocutionary Act

Illocutionary act can be defined as a way of the speaker to express the utterances to the listener by using such of proposing the expression. It is lawful, has a force, and comprehensive without being lowered to the consequences of it. Illocutionary act would include stating, promising, threatening, predicting, ordering, and requesting. For example, "*It is snowy outside!*" That utterance could mean the speaker wishes the hearer uses jacket, if the hearer wants to go outside, or the speaker wants the hearer not to go outside and stay at home. According to Kriedler (1998:181), illocutionary act are divided into seven sections, i.e., assertive, performative, verdictive, directives, commissives, expressives and phatic. These acts can be briefly described as follows:

1. *Assertive*: Speech acts committed by the speakers and writers to tell what they know or believe; assertive language is concerned with fact and truth, e.g. stating, reporting, complaining, claiming and describing.

2. *Performative*: Performative utterances are valid if spoken by someone whose right to make them is accepted and in circumstances which are accepted as appropriate, e.g. bet, declare, baptize, name, nominate, pronounce.
3. *Verdictive*: Verdictives are speech acts in which the speaker makes an assessment or judgement about the acts of another, usually the addressee, e.g. ranking, assessing, appraising, condoning.
4. *Expressive*: Expressive utterance springs from the previous actions—or failure to act—of the speaker, or perhaps the present result of those actions or failures, e.g. acknowledge, admit, confess, deny, apologize.
5. *Directive*: Speech acts committed by the speaker and the writer to cause the hearer to take a particular action, e.g. request, command, and suggestion.
6. *Commissive*: Speech acts committed by the speaker and the writer to do some future action, e.g. promises, vows, threats, pledges, and oaths.
7. *Phatic*: Phatic utterance is to establish rapport between members of the same society. Phatic utterances include greetings, farewells, polite formulas such as “Thank you,” “You’re welcome,” “Excuse me” when these are not really verdictive or expressive.

Since the present study investigates only the directive speech, the following discussion is focused on relevant concepts on directive act.

2.4 Directive Act

Directive is often called the prospective. Directive is utterance said by the speaker to get the attention of the listener to do something or act. Thus the directive utterance has the pronoun *you* as actor.

For example:

1. (You) stay here.
2. (You) drive safe.
3. Don't (any of you) run away from responsibility.
4. Don't (all of you) miss my party tonight.

However, the directive utterance is not able to make other people doing something in the past. Directive utterances also have to adjust with the conditions of the listener. The utterance "*Lift this 500-pound weight*" is not right if it used when talking to a person who is unable to lift an item with a weight of 500 pounds, and "*Close the door*" is also not right if the only door in a room is already closed. When the utterance can be done, the utterance is accurate, and if not, it is inaccurate. Kriedler (1998) divided the directive utterances into three types, they were commands, requests, and suggestions.

2.4.1 Commands

Commands are acts to ask or to get something done by other people. Commands can occur only if the speaker has a control over the action of listener (Kriedler, 1998:181). There are two expressions of commands, they are positive expression and negative expression. Positive expressions include obligation (*have*

to, must, ought to, etc) or begin the sentence with a verb or phrasal verb and end with an object, a person or a thing. For example in a requirement: “*You must appear in court next Monday at 10 a.m.*” the speaker demands the listener to attend in an event at the designated time. Negative expressions included prohibition. For example: “*Don’t let me see you again.*” The speaker forbids the listener to meet each other.

2.4.2 Requests

Requests are expression that the speaker wants to the listener to do some actions to be given or done, especially as a favor or courtesy (Kriedler, 1998:181). Requests have no power to control over the action of listener. For example:

A. Asking someone to do something:

5) *Could you pass me the salt?*

6) *Can you repair my watch?*

B. Asking someone for something:

7) *Can I borrow your coat?*

8) *May I use your computer?*

C. Telling someone to do something:

9) *I want you to come back here.*

10) *We beg you to stay here.*

2.4.3 Suggestions

Suggestions are the utterances such as "ideas or proposals" that speakers make by giving their opinions to listeners as to what listeners should or should not do (Kriedler, 1998:181). Suggestions have no force to make the listeners to do something. Instead, suggestions give them a freedom to choose. There are two expressions of suggestions, they are positive expression and negative expression.

Positive expressions include base form (*why don't*), modal verb only (*will, would, shall, and should*), or advise, recommend, and counsel. For example in a recommend: "*I recommend that you sell your car.*" The speaker suggests to the listener that selling the car is good choice. Negative expressions included caution and warning. For example in a warning: "*You would better not to come late again.*" The speaker warns the listener not to come late next time.

2.5 Sentences

A sentence is a textual unit consisting of one or more words that are grammatically linked. In functional linguistics, a sentence begins with a capital letter and terminated by a mark, such as full stops, periods, question marks, and exclamation marks. A sentence can include words grouped meaningfully to express a statement, question, exclamation, request, command or suggestion (<http://www.dictionary.com/browse/sentence>).

According to Quirk & Greenbaum (1990:231), sentences can be divided into four major syntactic forms. Their usage mostly matches with four different

discourse functions (Quirk & Greenbaum 1990), they are: declarative, interrogative, imperative, and exclamative.

2.5.1 Declaratives Sentence

Declaratives are sentences in which a subject is present and precedes the verb. They are primarily associated with statements, defined later. From the linguistic point of view, it is the statement that serves to convey information. A statement represents a major sentence function and is mostly declarative in form. It is used to assert or report information (Crystal 1992:367). For example:

11) Wallets, £ 199 a month won't leave you spent.

12) Bargain hunters, at just £ 99 per month, this one is a gem.

2.5.2 Interrogatives Sentence

Interrogatives are typically associated with a discourse function of questions that are used to seek information. Questions can be divided into further subcategories. The basic distinction, according to Quirk & Greenbaum (1990), is the following: “ Yes–no questions are those questions that expect affirmation or negation. Wh-questions are those questions that expect a reply from an open range of replies. Alternative questions are those questions that expect as the reply one of two or more options presented in the question. Example :

13) Yes–no question: *Ready for the attention?*

14) Wh-questions: *What would you go through?*

2.5.3 Imperatives Sentence

Imperatives are sentences that normally have no grammatical subject and whose verb has the base form. Their discourse function is primarily a directive which means that they are mostly used to instruct somebody to do something. Headlines in the form of imperatives, according to the Bovée (1992: 296), order us to do something and therefore might seem negative.. All the following examples found in the headlines analyzed are directives without a subject:

15) Drive your way to the top.

16) Enjoy the rush hour.

Then, imperatives also can be found in advertisements, it is following verbs in the imperative forms: call, visit, contact, etc. For example :

17) Call 0845 601 9955 or visit our website www.wikipedia.com.

18) Stay alive and avoid drugs.

2.5.4 Exclamatives Sentence

Exclamatory or Exclamatives are sentences which have an initial phrase introduced by what, how. They primarily express exclamations that show the extent to which the speaker is impressed by something. According to Quirk & Greenbaum (1990:244), “exclamatives as a formal category of sentence are restricted to the form of exclamatory utterance introduced by what or how.” A lot of positively evaluative adjective could be stressed by exclamations. For example:
What a fantastic!, It is wonderful!, amazing,...car!

2.6 Theory of Sociolinguistics

According to Trudgill (2000), Sociolinguistics is a part of the linguistics field, this study is related with explaining the relationships between language and society which aims to become preferable understanding of the language structures and how languages function in communication. Holmes (2008) states, sociolinguistics also examines the role of language in a variety of social contexts, considering both how language works and how it can be used to signal and define various aspects of social identity.

2.7 Ethnography of Speaking

Hymes (1989) expresses that the ethnography of speaking is an approach that focuses on finding the different forms and functions available to communicate, deciding how these forms and functions become part of a different way of life, and analyzing the patterns of language use within speech society as part of cultural and behavioral knowledge. In this approach there is a model classification called “S.P.E.A.K.I.N.G” which is developed by Hymes to analyze speech society, the model consists of eight components, they are:

(S) = *Setting*. It refers to the time and place where the speech event going.

For example: A political party campaign may occur in Kridosono stadium on Sunday at 10 to 12 o'clock which is conveyed in democratic scene/atmosphere.

(P) = *Participants*. It refers to the character who takes part in speech event such as the speaker and the listener.

For example: the teacher is the speaker while the students are the listeners in a discussion/lecture in a class.

(E) = *Ends*. It refers to the goal is being reached by the speaker and the listener in speech event.

For example: Each of the various participants have his/her own unique goals in a marriage ceremony.

(A) = *Act Sequence*. It refers to the actual form and content of what is said: the precise words used, how they are used, and the relationship of what is said to the actual topic at hand.

For example: In a seminar, each participant (participant, moderator, speaker) has chance to speak based on the rule.

(K) = *Key*. It refers to the tone or manner of speech in which a particular message is conveyed: neutral, excited, depressed, serious, pedantic, jocular, sarcastic, etc or behavior, gestures, or posture.

For example: In a seminar each person must convey his ideas seriously in deep tone to convince other people.

(I) = *Instrumentalities*. It refers to the choice of channel such as oral, written, or telegraphic, and to the actual form of speech employed, such as the language, dialect, code, or register that is chosen.

For example: In a serious and formal discussion, the language style used is usually the formal one, whether in oral or written form.

(N) = *Norms*. It refers to the specific behaviors and rules must be shared by the participants in a speech event.

For example: In order that a seminar runs well, each participants must understand and obey the rule, e.g. he must listen to other people's speaking or must be patient to wait for his chance to speak.

(G) = *Genre*. It refers to the types of utterance which are different between one speech and the others: conversation, poems, proverbs, riddles, sermons, prayers, lecture, and editorials.

For example: the style/type of language used in poems is different from that of prayers.