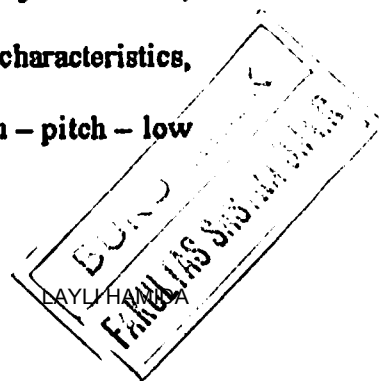# CHAPTER II

GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF THE OBJECT OF

THE STUDY

2.1. Paralinguistic Features of Speech

According to Rakhmat what is meant by paralinguistic is the way people utter verbal signals. So, if verbal cues indicate what is being uttered, paralinguistic cues reflect how it is uttered (Rakhmat, 1985 : 87). In other words, we can say that paralinguistic is the medium through which words are spoken. While words or language represent the verbal channel of communication, paralanguage or paralinguistic is the agent of non-verbal channel of communication.

There are many views of what constitutes paralinguistic. Rakhmat (1985 : 292) says that paralinguistic cues consists of pitch, voice quality, volume, tempo and rhythm. While, Scherer (in Scherer and Ekman, 1982:136) proposes that paralinguistic includes such aspects as intonation, voice quality, rhythm, and pausing. Additionally, Trager (in Kess, 1976 : 135) divides paralinguistic features into vocalizations and voice quality. There are three types of vocalizations according to Trager, that is vocal noises such as laughing, crying, yelling, clearing the throat, and so on, vocal segregates the *uh - uh, uh - huh, uh,* and *tsk - tsk* in English for negation, affirmation, pause, and sympathy or sarcasm, and the third type, vocal qualifiers, which provide modificational characteristics, such as the intensity (loud – soft continuum), the pitch height (high – pitch – low

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– pitch continuum), and the extent (the drawled – speech – clipped – speech continuum), of the articulation. In this case, we consider paralinguistic as refer to such features as pitch, intensity of speech sound or loudness, tempo, rhythm, voice quality (breathy, creaky voices) and vocal reflexes such as laughing, crying, yawning and vocalizations for negation, affirmation, and so forth.

In concern with paralinguistic as non verbal channel of communication, Rakhmat states that paralinguistic is the most accurate way to deliver our emotional feeling to other people (Rakhmat, 1985 : 293). In addition, Kess (1976 : 134) also, suggests that the manner of transmission through paralinguistic features which accompany the actual verbalization of words phrases, and sentences can modify, amplify, or even negate the basic verbal message. Thus, it can be assumed that paralinguistic features of speech might become important cues for inferring identity such as personal traits or states of a speaker.

However, Scherer argued that in many cases the same parameters used to infer specific linguistic aspects of speech must be used to assess non linguistic aspects of meaning (Scherer in Scherer and Ekman, 1982 : 139). Such speech vocalizations or paralinguistic features as pitch, loudness, tempo and rhythm can be used to differentiate words and the meaning of sentences in different ways in different languages. In other words, they can communicate linguistic information. On the other hand, such features may also indicate a speaker's social or psychological characteristics. For such kind of problem Kess (1976 : 139) suggests that in talking of paralanguage, we are aiming at vocalizations that modify speech over and above the elements which are already pressed in language

structure. Linguistic rules have constrained the use of pitch, loudness, tempo and rhythm in certain way that their variation may only indicate linguistic information such as whether a sentence is a question or a statement, and so on. But, above these element, in the production of speech speakers will vary in their use of such features based on their biological, social or psychological bases, and the situation in which they speak.

Therefore, when we talk about loudness, which is one of the aspects of paralinguistic features of speech and is the main concern of this study for example, we do not talk about loudness which refers to stress differentiation to differentiate words in language structure. In this case, the loudness of a sound is a subjective effect which is a function of the ear and brain (Smith, 1971 : 18). It is one aspect of our auditory sensations. Perceptually, it can be described in a continuous dimension from " soft " to "loud". Objectively, the measurement of loudness refers to the measurement of intensity of speech sound which results in units known as decibel (dB).

According to Knowles (1987 : 209) the general loudness or "volume" of speaking is determined in part both by personality, and by ambient noise. Some people may speak louder than others because of their psychological bases, in this case, their personality motivates them to do so. But, in some cases they have to speak loudly enough to be heard by other people because of the surrounding noise It means that despite the noises or other factors that may occur in the time the speech is uttered the way the speakers construe their speech, that is whether they speak with louder or softer voices can be related to their personality.

2.2. Personality Traits

Many psychologists have tried to define the meaning of personality. And all the definitions that exist in the field of personality psychology hardly show an agreement. However, from most definitions we can draw a common theme as suggested by Mischel that "Personality" usually refers to the distinctive patterns of behavior (including thoughts and emotions) that characterize each individual's adaptation to the situations of his or her life (Mischel, 1971 : 5). The definition suggests that personality is distinct between individuals. It exists in relation with individual response to the stimulus that he or she receives.

Concerning the meaning of personality, Allport (in Hejlle and Ziegler, 1994) notes that the concept of personality must be distinguished from the terms *character* and *temperament* that have often been used as synonyms of personality. According to Allport (in Hejlle and Ziegler, 1994 : 241) the word "character" traditionally connotes a moral standard or value system against which the person's actions are evaluated, such as a "good" or "bad" character. While "temperament" is the hereditary aspects of a person's emotional nature such as fluctuation or intensity of moods.

There are many different approaches to the study of personality. We recognize five primary approaches which consists of Psychodynamic approaches, Trait approaches, Phenomenological approaches, Behavioral approaches and Cognitive Social approaches.

Generally, all approaches to personality focus on individual differences in basic tendencies, qualities, or dispositions (Mischel, 1971).

The trait approaches to personality are established on the assumption that behavior is primarily determined by stable generalized traits – basic qualities of the person that express themselves in many contexts (Mischel,1971:142). And the main goal of investigators in this field is to search for these basic traits.

According to Hejlle & Ziegler (1994 : 238) there are two major themes that underlie the dispositional perspective on personality which has become basic assumptions for trait psychologists such as Allport, Cattel and Eysenck to give exploration for the understanding of what a trait of personality is. The first is the idea that people possess broad predispositions (i.e. traits) to respond in certain ways in diverse situations. In this case, these predispositions are the ones that motivate a person to behave in respond to stimuli. Or, in other words we can say that the traits of a person are causes of the person's behavior. In addition, these traits are also the reasons for a person to behave in the same way for different stimuli in different time and situations. For example, if a person is basically sociable, he or she will tend to be talkative and outgoing in many different situations – whether he or she is meeting a stranger, shopping with friends or sitting in class. Therefore, trait approach permits us to predict a person's reaction or behavior in a given situation. Or, on the other way round, a person's reaction or behavior that continually occur across situations might be a sign for the person's personality traits.

A second major theme of the dispositional perspective bears on the fact that no two people are exactly a like (Hejlle and Ziegler, 1994 : 238). Each individual will behave differently in response to the same stimulus or situation. In relation to the first theme of the dispositional perspective, this differences in behavior will also show consistency. Even for the same trait each person will not present equality. This can be explained by the fact that traits are continuous dimensions like "extravertness – introvertness " or " dominance – submissive " . Each individual has different degree of quality. Only few people are at extreme point of the dimensions. Furthermore, each person has particular trait structure which constructs his or her personality. The traits whithin a person are relatively interdependent, and since every person has different degree of quality concerning the traits, we cannot expect them to have the same patterns of behavior.

Concerning the personality structure of a person, Eysenck (in Hejlle and Ziegler, 1994 : 279) state that the elements of personality can be arranged hierarchically. A person's specific response which is repeatedly observed is an initial of his habitual response. This habitual response may correlate with other habitual responses to form the trait of personality. Several component of traits, then will comprise supertraits or types of person's personality. Following this, Eysenck, after several investigations based on factor analysis sees three major supertraits or types which underlie personality structure : introversion – extraversion, stability – neuroticism and psychoticism – superego strength (Eysenck in Hejlle and Ziegler, 1994 : 280 – 2).

On his further efforts Eysenck also tried to find significant differences in behavior related to the individual differences along the supertraits or types dimension. One of his findings concern with different descriptions of extravertness – introvertness. For example, the typical extravert is sociable, likes parties, has many friends, needs to have people to talk to, and does not like reading or studying by himself While the introvert is a quiet, retiring sort of person, introspective, fond of books rather than people, and reserved and distant except to intimate friends (Eysenck and Rachman in Mischel, 1971 : 153 – 4).

However, those description above is of perfect extravert or introvert. While, it is already explained that traits are continuous dimensions. People mostly fall in between the extravert – introvert dimensions. We may even find a mixture of the traits whithin a personality.

According to Mischel trait terms such as aggressive, dependent, fearful, introverted, anxious, or submissive are usually used when people describe each other in daily life (Mischel, 1971 : 148). Beside trait terms, there are also state terms that refer to perceived attributes of people. The difference between them is that prototypic traits are seen as enduring, stable qualities of the person over long time periods and as internally caused. In contrast, prototypic states refer to qualities that are only brief in duration and attributable to external causes, such as the momentary situation (Chaplin, John, & Goldberg in Mischel, 1971:161). Examples of state terms are infatuated, uninterested, displeased, and so on.

2.3. The Social Psychology of Language

According to Allport (in Smith, Giles & Hewstone in St. Clair & Giles, 1980:287) social psychology has been defined by one authority as "an attempt to understand how the thoughts, feelings and behaviors of individuals are influenced by the actual, imagined and implied presence of others." It means that social psychology mostly concern with the study of interaction between people, how the people form perception upon others as to predict their behaviors, and how they construct their behavior based on the behavior of others.

Concerning the place of language in social psychology, Smith, Giles and Hewstone (in St. Clair & Giles, 1980) points out that social psychological approach views language as socially situated behavior in which situation is being epitomized in the concept of social interaction. They also proceed to note that the minimal condition that might suffice what is meant by interaction here is that there are two people who are capable of forming action and reaction or there be an opportunity for the receiver to react to the sender. In this case, speech as part of language component is seen, though not necessarily an important one, as a central feature of interaction. Furthermore, Smith, Giles and Hewstone state that individual's speech pattern are not simply and only reflections of their large-scale demographic memberships but also of their cognitive organization of the situation (Smith, Giles & Hewstone in St. Clair & Giles,1980:287). It means that speech or language in general, is a mediation for any plans or anything that happens in individual's mental process to be poured out as his or her reaction upon a given

situation. Thus, in the scope of social psychology Smith, Giles and Hewstone have perspective upon language as part of social reality and not separated from it.

Paralinguistic features such as pitch, loudness, tempo and so on, as one of non-verbal channels of communication mostly accompany the use of language in social interaction. But, it is hardly considered to be an integral part of language. Its linguistic status is being questioned. To overcome such kind of problem Trager cuts up the object of study of linguistic into a central area and peripheral fields (Trager in Crystal, 1969 : 183). In the whole he terms 'macrolinguistics' and he divides it into 'prelinguistics' which studies language sounds considered simply as noise – the why and how of their production (physiolinguistics, or articulatory phonetics, and physicolinguistics, or acoustic phonetics), 'microlinguistics' which is glossed as 'linguistics proper' (phonology and morphology) , and the last 'metalinguistics' which is glossed as the overall relation of the linguistic system (phonology and morphology) to the other systems of the cultural totality which in turn includes psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, semantics and which as well covers paralanguage (in Trager's sense). In short, we can say that paralinguistic features have also fixed value in linguistic system.

Secord and Backman (1964,1974 : 49-50) propose that such paralinguistic features (which they term vocal cues or voice quality) can be used to form impressions and even to make effective judgments of other persons. In this case, paralinguistic features show a comparable position to language since they can be medium through which the cognitive organization of stimulus whithin an individual's mental structure is construed. Even, they are more powerful as they

can negate, amplify, or modify what constitutes in verbal message. In turn, they become part of individual 's behavior patterns (which include language and speech variables) and an indication of a person's identity from which his or her fellow counterpart (in terms of social interaction) make judgment and give reaction to him or her.

CHAPTER III

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE DATA