·CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

I.1. Background of The Study

A very unusual phenomenon called schizophrenia has drawn people's attention, especially those who are related to the study of human mind, such as doctors and psychiatrists, for years.

Schizophrenia is a severe form of psychopathology in which personality seems to disintegrate, thoughts and perceptions are distorted, and emotions are blunted. Experts cannot surely state a theory about what certain factors change someone who previously has a normal life to be a schizophrenic (Maramis, 1995: 218). Years of systematic research could only lead to a conclusion that the appearance of this mental disorder is caused by a combination of several different factors (Baron, 1995: 576).

One interesting fact about schizophrenia is that the schizophrenics, persons who suffer from schizophrenia, seem to possess a rather "different" language. They have a unique language of their own. This language shows handicapped yet creative aspects. It is characterised with the occurrence of changes in grammar and syntax, such as a string of words which is not syntactical, cutting of words or deletion of essential elements of words, phrases, clauses, and sentences (Chauchard, 1993:80).

The schizophrenics also introduce the existence of neologism, that is the giving of new meaning to the already existed words, *glossolalia*, that is apparently ecstatic utterances of usually unintelligible *speechlike* sounds, and also word salad, that is the mix of words without considering whether the words take the correct place in the sentences.

The strangeness of the schizophrenics' language can also be seen from the theme of their talking which is usually uncommon, especially in those who suffer from hallucination and delusion. This, along with blocking of thoughts, incoherency, and the presence of other language disturbance already mentioned above suffered by the schizophrenics, sometimes, causes their communication with others to break down. Despite the occurrence of these language disturbances, these people can still communicate with others (Chauchard, 1983:80).

Communication, in general, is understood as the exchange and negotiation of information between at least two individuals through the use of verbal and non-verbal symbols, oral and written/visual modes, and production and comprehension processes (Richards and Schidt, 1993:4).

Ability to communicate is seen as a reflection of one's communicative competence. Everyone has a communicative competence. Communicative competence is understood as the underlying systems of knowledge and skill required for communication (Richards and Schidt, 1994:5).

This refers to both knowledge and skill in using the knowledge when interacting in actual communication (Richards and Schidt, 1993:5). Knowledge here refers to what one knows about the language and about other aspects of

communication in language use, while skill refers to how well one can perform this knowledge in actual communication.

The realization of such knowledge and skill is called actual communication or the performance. Performance or actual communication is often done under limiting psychological and environmental conditions, such as memory and perceptual constraints, fatigue, nervousness, distractions, and interfering background noises.

Since in communicating people use language, the use of language in communication will, certainly, be influenced by those psychological and environmental conditions also. These factors cause the presence of slips of the tongue, false starts, repetitions of words, pauses, errors, and other imperfect speech which normally occur in spontaneous everyday talk (Foss and Hakes, 1978:15). For instance, when one gets nervous he tends to repeat words he says or one cuts the string of words he utters before it is finished due to the limitation of memory.

It can be said, then, that in communicating, people mostly produce imperfect utterances. In fact, utterances are often incorrect in one way or another.

In producing utterances, in understanding them, in making judgement about them, and in acquiring the ability to do these things, we are dealing with the theory of performance. It describes the psychological processes involved in using our linguistic competence. Both of them, performance and competence, are closely related. One's performance is seen as the realization of his competence.

A theory of linguistic competence states the rules that are tacitly known by the speakers of a language. An essential part of linguistic competence is linguistic intuition. Linguistic intuition is used in the making of judgement about aspects of language. It helps the speakers of a language to make judgement about the grammaticality of a sentence, its appropriateness, sentences meaning, and so on. It also enables the speakers in understanding utterances and giving appropriate response to what others tell them (Foss and Hakes, 1978:17).

The ability to recognise functions of speech acts and give appropriate response to what the others say also reflects one's competence. When a person says something, he actually does something: making statement, asking for help, promising, thanking, etc.

The competence of the schizophrenics does not change, but due to their psychological conditions, they express a rather "different" language which is characterised with the occurrence of language disturbances already mentioned above.

Another theory that can explain the presence of the schizophrenics' language is weak version of Whorf's theory about language and mind proposed by Clark and Clark which says that there is a two-way relationship between language and mind; language influence human mind and, on the other hand, language is influenced by human mind (Subyakto, 1992:157).

Language, which can be seen as a mental activity and, therefore, can reflect the speaker's mind, will be affected by the psychological condition of its speakers. The existence of the schizophrenics' language proves this.
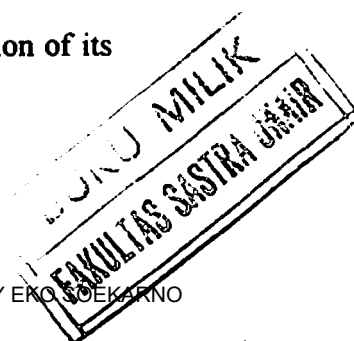
I.2. Statement of The Problem

Affected by their psychological condition, schizophrenics possess a rather "different" language of their own.

Still, with this language they can communicate with others. To know more about the schizophrenics' pragmatic skill, a problem is discussed in this study: "How do the schizophrenics use the functions of speech acts in their communication with others?"

I.3. Objective of The Study

Based on the statement of the problem stated above, the objective of this study is to find out the schizophrenics' pragmatic skill, especially in using the functions of speech acts in their communication with others.

I.4. Significance of The Study

This study is expected to give meaningful contribution to linguistic studies, especially pragmatics, since it concerns speech acts. Hopefully, this study can give some information that might trigger further research in linguistics.

It is also expected to encourage people, especially persons related to the study of the schizophrenia, to get involved more often by making conversation with the schizophrenics so that they can apply their language competence.

I.5. Scope and Limitation

This study concerns with the study of pragmatics. It will only discuss the use of speech acts theory proposed by Searle in analysing the utterances produced by the schizophrenics who are known to have a rather "different" language of their own.

I.6. Theoretical Framework

In analysing the data, the writer uses the speech act theory proposed by Austin and Searle.

Language is the chief means by which people communicate. But knowing the words and grammar of a certain language does not ensure a successful communication. Words can mean more than what they really say. Words interpretation depends on many factors, including familiarity with the context, intonational cues and cultural assumptions. The same phrase may have different meanings on different occasions. On the other hand, the same intention may be expressed by different linguistic means. Phenomena like these are the concern of pragmatics.

The theory of speech act, as part of pragmatics study, has drawn attention to the fact that when we produce various utterances we actually *do* things (Carter and Simpson, 1989:144). In 1962, Austin laid the foundation for what has become known as standard speech act theory. He moved from the basic insight about the capacity of certain linguistic expressions to perform communicative acts to

general theory of communicative actions, namely speech acts (Van Dijk, 1997: 42).

Speech acts are linguistic expressions that have the capacity to perform certain kinds of communicative actions, such as making statements, asking questions, giving directions, apologising, thanking and so on (Van Dijk, 1997: 42).

Austin noted that there are utterances of certain expressions that are not used to make true or false statement, but rather to do things with language. These utterances not only perform speech acts over and above simple assertions, but they also simultaneously describe the speech acts themselves. He called such utterances *performatives*, to be distinguished from all other utterances in the language. They always contain performative verbs. Examples of these utterances are "I *warn* you not to read my diary" and "I *bet* I can eat these apples in an hour". Other utterances, which are not included as performatives, are called *constatives*. This type of speech acts forces the hearer to think about the speaker's intention.

Later, Austin realised that performing communicative acts is not limited to the given subset of utterances known as performatives, but is rather an inherent property of every utterance. To achieve their performative function, utterances need to meet certain contextual conditions, called *felicity conditions*.

Felicity conditions are sets of necessary conditions for an illocution to *count* (Peccei, 1999:42). Felicity conditions are required for the success of uttering the performance of an act. Both the circumstances and the participants must be felicitous or appropriate for the successful performance.

For instance, the utterance of "I now pronounce you man and wife" will only be true if uttered by a priest, as the person who has authority to marry people, in a wedding ceremony.

Austin pointed out that any utterance simultaneously performs at least two types of act:

1. Locutionary act: the actual form of words used by the speaker and their semantic meaning. The locutionary act is what is said, typically containing a referring expression and a predicating expression to express a proposition.

2. Illocutionary act: the performing of a communicative function. Illocutionary act represents what the speaker *does* by uttering those words: commanding, offering, promising, threatening, thanking, etc.

Working from Austin's theory, Searle (1969) went several steps further in classifying types of speech acts and systemising the nature of the felicity conditions needed for the performance of different speech acts.

In making the classification of speech acts, Searle believed that it is closely tied to the set of preconditions proposed for the performance of speech acts and the nature of these preconditions serves as a grid for distinguishing speech acts (Van Dijk, 1997:44). Those preconditions are:

(a) proportional content, specifying features of the semantic content of the utterances. For example, requests usually contain reference to the future, while apologies mostly refer to an act in the past

(b) preparatory conditions, specifying the necessary contextual features needed for the speech act to be performed, such as the ability of the hearer to perform a requested act (directives)

(c) sincerity conditions, specifying the speaker's wants and beliefs, such as the speaker's wish that hearer does the requested act (for request), or his belief that an offence has been committed (for apology)

(d) essential condition, the convention by which the utterance is to *count*, as an attempt to get the hearer to do something or as an undertaking to remedy a social imbalance ---

Searle stated that there are five main classes of function of speech acts. The types of function of speech acts include representative, directive, commissive, expressive, and declarative (Hatch, 1992:121).

Following is a brief explanation of each type of function of speech acts already mentioned above.

1. Representatives: speech acts that can be used to judge for the truth of something. They describe some states of affair by asserting, concluding, claiming, etc. Representatives are all based upon the way words are fit to a world that is "pre-existing".

2. Directives: speech acts that can be used to ask the hearer to do or stop doing something, by acts like ordering, commanding, begging, requesting, and asking. The directives are attempts by the speaker to get the hearer to do a certain action.

3. Commissives: speech acts that function as promises or refusals for action. Commissives include promising, vowing, and pledging. The illocutionary point of commissives is that they commit the speaker to some future course of action.

4. Expressives: speech acts which are used to express feeling, such as likeness, dislikeness, joy, disappointment, anger, and so on. Speakers can also express their feelings by making their words fit their internal psychological world, such as thanking, apologising, congratulating, and condoling.

5. Declaratives: speech acts that, when uttered, bring about a new state of being. There is a special role requirement that goes with the uttering of declaratives, that is the person who utters these speech acts must have authority to perform them. Examples of declaratives are judge's utterance used to sentence an accused, the utterance of a priest when marrying couple, and utterance of an employer when firing his employee.

Besides introducing the classification of functions of speech acts, Searle also introduced the term *indirect speech acts*. An indirect speech act is defined as an utterance in which one illocutionary act is performed by way of the performance of another act. Instead of uttering utterance which will directly tell the hearer what the speaker wants, he uses another utterance. In Van Dijk's *Discourse as Social Interactions* (1992), Blum-Kulka stated that in indirect strategies, the literal meaning of the utterance does not convey its illocutionary force.

Though Searle (1975) claims that indirect speech act is not specific to directives, examples for other speech acts are much harder to come by. Hence, many examples of this phenomenon are directives (Van Dijk, 1992:45).

An example of indirect speech act is the utterance "It is cold here". It can be seen as a directive, a request from the speaker to the hearer, because the former might want the latter to close the window due to the cold weather. Under other circumstances, this utterance can be a representative for it can be used to describe a state of affair, that is the cold weather.

In dealing with indirect speech acts, the hearers are expected to be able to interpret them by relying upon their knowledge of speech acts, along with mutually shared factual information, a general ability to draw inferences and general principles of cooperative conversation proposed by Grice (Schiffrin, 1994:59).

Grice proposed that all speakers adhere to basic principles governing conversation which are called the cooperative principles (Peccei, 1999:27). It means that in conversation the participants will cooperate with each other when making their contributions. Grice then classified four basic conversational conventions, or maxims, as follow: (1) quantity: make your contribution as informative as required, (2) quality: do not say what you believe to be false, (3) relevance: make sure what you say is relevant to the conversation you have, (4) manner: avoid ambiguity.

I.7. Method of The Study

I.7.1 Location

The research of this study took place in RSJD Menur Surabaya. The reason of this choice is because RSJD Menur Surabaya is known as one of the biggest asylums in East Java that has many schizophrenics, four of which are the respondents of this study.

I.7.2. Respondents

The respondents of this study are schizophrenics who stay in RSJD Menur Surabaya. The choosing of respondents is done after a week of observation on four male patients and four female patients. Finally, the writer took all the male patients because they were "active". What is meant by "active" here is a condition where patients are still able and willing to communicate to others, because there are patients who suffer from schizophrenia who tend to give no response to other's action.

Shortly, the respondents of this study are people who possess the following characteristics:

- schizophrenics

- "active", either to respond or to talk

- use Indonesian, either formal or informal, in communication

I.7.3. Definition of Key Terms

Schizophrenia : a mental disorder of unknown causes typically characterised by a separation between the thought processes and the emotions, a distortion of reality accompanied by delusions and hallucinations, a fragmentation of the personality, motor disturbances, bizarre behaviour, etc., often with no loss of basic intellectual functions.

Schizophrenic : a person who suffers from schizophrenia.

Delusions : false beliefs which the individuals defends vigorously despite the logical absurdity or proof to the contrary and despite their serious inference with their social adjustment.

Hallucination : an apparent perception of sights or sounds that is not actually present

Neologism : giving new meaning for establish words

Glossolalia : apparently ecstatic utterances of usually unintelligible *speechlike* sounds

Word salad : mixing of words without considering whether the words take the correct place in the sentence or not

Pragmatics : the branch of linguistics concerned with the meaning in context, or the meanings of sentences in terms of the speaker's intention in using them.

Sentence : string of words which has a meaning

Utterance : any actual speech performance

Speech acts   : linguistic expressions that have the capacity to perform certain kinds of communicative acts, such as making statements, asking questions, giving directions, apologising, thanking, and so on.

I.7.4. Technique of Data Collection

Before collecting the data, the writer observed the location of the research, that is RSJD Menur Surabaya, and then chose the respondents who possess the characteristics given above. The writer took four female patients and four male patients. After a week of observation, the writer decided to take all of the male patients as the respondents of this study. The reason of this choice is because the writer found these male patients "active". They are able and willing to give response to others' actions.

In collecting the data needed for this study, the writer used a recording technique. The writer recorded the utterances that the schizophrenics uttered. Recording was done while they were talking to the writer or other patients.

Briefly, the techniques of data collection are:

(a) observing the location

(b) observing several schizophrenic patients

(c) choosing the respondents

(d) recording the utterances of the respondents

I.7.5. Technique of Data Analysis

After collecting the data, the writer began to analyse the data. Briefly, the techniques of data analysis are:

(a) transcribing the data in orthographic transcription

(b) finding out the function of each speech act by using the theory proposed by Searle about the principle of functions of speech act

(c) cutting the data into clusters

CHAPTER II
GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF THE OBJECTS OF THE STUDY