# CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

A.   Review of Related Theories

Language is an important tool in communication. However in interpreting language, we must see the context of the sentence being stated. An analytic approach in linguistics, which involves contextual considerations, necessarily belongs to that area of language study called pragmatics (Brown and Yule, 1983:26). Here, pragmatics acts as the umbrella of how context influences the way sentences convey information (Fromkin and Rodman, 1983: 227). Moreover Brown and Yule state that in pragmatics, we are concerned with what people using language are doing (Brown and Yule, 1983:26). Furthermore, in speech acts theory, we can find what people can do through language. Speech acts theory originates in John Austin's (1962) observation that sentences can be used to reports or states of affairs in specified circumstances (Brown and Yule, 1983: 231). Speech acts theory concern about utterances, for example when we utterance naming a ship or sentencing a criminal. They are utterances in which saying the words and doing the action is the same thing, the function is created by its form. Such utterances are labeled as declarations (Cook, 1983: 35). However, those words
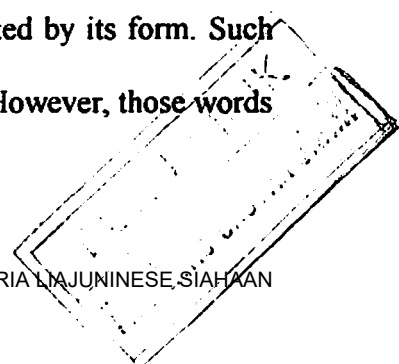
must be uttered by someone with the necessary authority to the right person in the right time. Such condition must be fulfilled when we utterance sentences. The conditions which must be fulfilled are known as *felicity condition* (Cook, 1983: 35). Furthermore, Austin shows three things in every speech acts. What is said, the utterance can be called the locution. What the speaker in tends to communicate to the addressee is the illocution. The message that the addressee gets, his interpretation of what speaker says, is the perlocution (Kreidler, 1998: 181).

Moreover, in doing communication, it needs some factors. Cook as well as Jakobson schematized factors involved in verbal communication first as follows:
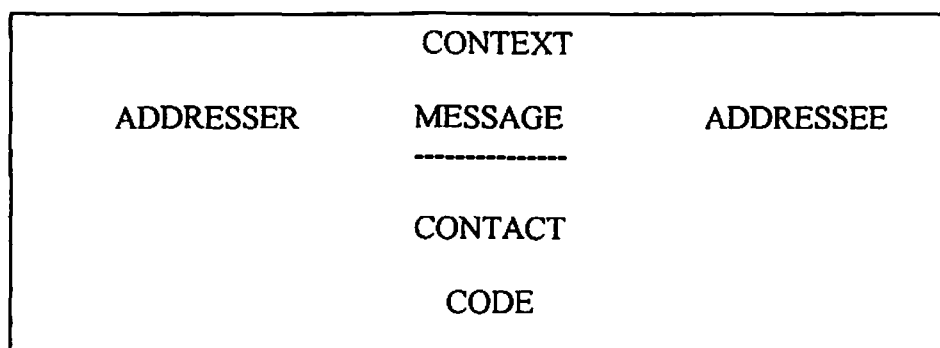
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                          CONTEXT

        ADDRESSER         MESSAGE         ADDRESSEE
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                          CONTACT

                           CODE
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Figure 1. Schema of Factors in Verbal Communication

Roman Jakobson explains that the ADDRESSER sends a MESSAGE to the ADDRESSER. To be operative the message requires a CONTEXT referred to, sizeable by the addressee, and either verbal or capable of being verbalized; a CODE fully, or at least partially common to the

addresser and addressee (or in other words, to encode and decoder the message); and finally, a CONTACT, a physical channel and psychological connection between the addresser and the addressee, enabling both of them to enter and stay in communication (Newton, 1998: 120).

However, Cook adds one more factor on the verbalized communication, which is the setting of the communication (Cook, 1989: 25). He explains that:

1. The addresser: the person who originates the messages, but not always, as in the case of messengers, spokespeople, and towncriers.

2. The addressee: the person to whom the message is addressed, but not necessarily so, as in, the case of intercepted letters, bugged telephone calls, and eavesdropping.

3. The channel or contact: the medium through which the message travels such as sound waves, marks on paper, telephone wires, word processor screen.

4. The message form: the particular grammatical and lexical choices of the message.

5. The topic: the information carried in the message.

6. The Code: the language or dialect, for example, Swedish, Yorkshire English, British sign language, Japanese.

7. The setting: the social or physical context.

B. Review of Related Study

A thesis written by R. A. Diah Kusuma Indah Handayani entitled *An Analysis of Figures of Speech Found in Advertisements in Cosmopolitan and Men's Health* by using descriptive qualitative method gives the writer many idea on doing this study. She presented steps to analyze the advertisements in *Cosmopolitan* and *Men's Health*, which make the writer interested in using them in this study.

In her thesis, Handayani analyzed the different language use for women and men, which were framed by using figures of speech as the data taken from advertisements in *Cosmopolitan* and *Men's Health*. The objective of her study was to find out the types of figures of speech used in advertisements in *Cosmopolitan*, the types of figures of speech used in advertisements in *Men's Health*, and the differences and the similarities of the use figures of speech in the advertisements in both magazines, *Cosmopolitan* and *Men's Health*. She used three general frames of theories, which were language and sex theory, advertisements theory, and figures of speech theory. The figures of speech theory was focused onto *simile, metaphor, personification, hyperbole, litotes, paradox, metonymy, synecdoche, erotema, and asyndeton*. The findings of this study were *Cosmopolitan* tended to use *hyperbole, simile,* and asyndeton and the *Men's Health* tended to use *erotema*. From the findings, Handayani concluded that the use of those three prominent figures of speech in *Cosmopolitan* is suitable with the language and sex theory

that women tend to see something in detail and verbose. On the other hand, the use of *erotema* is prominent in the *Men's Health* showed that men tend to see something in direct, get the point across, give a very prominent cue, think in macro way, need to be shown the big picture, and less complex metaphors. This thesis added the language characteristic of women and men.

Furthermore, the thesis of the writer entitled *An Analysis of Elements of Macro-Functions in Relation with Women Language on Advertisements (A Study on Advertisements of Products for women)* analyzes the language functions used by the advertisements, especially advertisements of product for women. The writer uses elements of macro-functions of Guy Cook, which are the *emotive function, the directive function, the phatic function, the poetic function, the referential function, the metalinguistic function* and *contextual function*, as the tool to analyze this advertisements text. Hopefully, this thesis could enrich the characteristic of women language in language and sex theory.

C. Theoretical Frameworks

1. Women Language

There is an issue that women use different language from men do. Differences in male and female language use began to be noticed at least as early as the seventeenth century in the societies visited by missionaries and explores (Malmkjær, 1996: 256). It means women have

their own characteristics in language. The writer finds there are two reasons that make women have their own characteristics in language. First, the characteristics emerge because of their position in society. According to Lakoff, sexual inequalities of a weak and differential women's style, which girls learn, is as part of their socialization (Cameron, 1991:25). Pamela Fishman supports the idea that women's style is seen as the outcome of power struggles and negotiations which are played out under the surface of conversation (Cameron, 1991:25). Second, the characteristics come out because of women's duties in the family. D. F. Jones and Jones say that women have their proper language, even more conscious, because of their role as primary socializers of children and as transmitters of language (Phillips et al, 1987:5). Further, Candace West et al support Jones that noun phrase used by women are typically described in relation to their marital and family responsibilities (Van Dijk, 1998:123).

The writer found a lot of explanation from many sources describing the characteristics of language used by women. The characteristics are explained below:

1. Women tend to use standard form of language

Esther Kuntjara states that women use standard form of language more often than men in social context (Kuntjara, 2003:8). Trudgill and Labov also found in their studies that female speakers

tend to use more prestige form than males (recited in Malmkjær, 1996: 257). O' Barr and Atkins (1980) add that women hypercorrect grammar and pronunciation in conversation (Coates, 1986: 112).

In society, women have lower social status than men so that they use standard and polite language (Kuntjara, 2003:7). Holmes explains more that women use more standard speech forms than men because they are more status-conscious than men and standard form are generally associated with high social status (Holmes, 2000: 157). Based on this fact, using more standard speech forms is a way for women to claim status in society.

2. Women tend to maintain the social equality of commands and directives in conversation.

West et al issue that the subcultures of girls stress cooperativeness and equality and girls learn to talk their ways around 'friend' relationships and situation (Van Dijk, 1998:130). West et al add that girls employ directives that minimize differences between playmates. They downgrade directives by modifying them with words like 'can', 'could', and 'maybe' (Van Dijk, 1998:133). Godwin notes that the modal auxiliaries 'can' and 'could' are used by girls to suggest rather than demand action; and the use of 'maybe' is to soften the directive (Coates, 1986: 105). Jennifer Coates in his article, *Language, Gender, and Career*, also has same idea with West et al that girls

typically use directives, which minimized status differences. For example, "let's use the first" [or] "let's ask her" (Mills, 1995:23). Coates adds that the girls preferred to use directives, which phrased as suggestions for joint action, for example, "we could go round looking for more bottles". Holmes strengthens this idea that women tend to use linguistics devices that stress solidarity more often than men do. Women tend to interact in ways, which will maintain and increase solidarity while men tend to increase their power and status (Wardaugh, 2002:320).

3. Women rarely use 'impolite' words (Dagun, 1992: 4).

O' Barr and Atkins (1980) state that women language is also characterized by (super) polite forms e.g. "would you please... or I'd really appreciate it if...(Coates, 1986:112).

4. Women tend to use affective function.

Women are very emotional (Dagun, 1992: 3). Women like words, which can touch their emotion. In conversation, women tend to use affective function to show their feelings. West et al say that women use terms of endearment such as 'sweetie', 'dear', 'honey' in wider range of setting; use fillers more often than men such as "you know", "uhm!"; they employ intensifiers such as 'quite', 'so', 'such' (Van Dijk, 1998:128). Kuntjara (Kuntjara, 2003:7) and Holmes

(Wardaugh, 2002:320) state that women tend to use affective function in interaction.

5. Women have their own characteristics in the area of morphology and vocabulary.

Women have their own vocabulary for emphasizing certain effects on them; words and expressions such as 'so good', 'such fun', 'exquisite', 'lovely', 'divine', 'precious', 'adorable', and 'fantastic' (Wardaugh, 2002: 316). Women tend to pay attention on color and often describe it in detail such as yellowish or brown purplish (Kuntjara, 2003: 14). Furthermore, O' Barr and Atkins state women have special vocabulary, e.g. specialized color terms. Lakoff explains more that women also maintain adjectives such as 'adorable', 'charming', 'divine', 'lovely', and 'sweet' (Wardaugh, 2003:316).

6. Women tend to use tag questions.

Lakoff claims that women use tag question 'isn't' more often than men (Coates, 1986: 103). He adds that women use tag questions, which undermine their own opinions by expressing uncertainty, for example, "the way prices rising is horrendous, isn't it?" Women use significantly more tag questions that fill a facilitative function for conversation, such as generating 'small talk', for example, "sure, it is hot in here, isn't it? (Van Dijk, 1996: 129). More, Coates adds that women use interrogative forms more than men and that this may

reflect women's relative weakness in interactive situation: they exploit questions and tag questions in order to keep conversation going (Coates, 1985: 104).

7. Women pay attention on information in detail.

Women always pay attention on something in detail (Kartajaya et al, 2004: 24). They investigate something in detail. Moreover, they pay attention on some phenomena all at once (Kartajaya et al, 2004:16). This characteristic has relation with accepting information. In conversation, women pay attention on the information in detail.

2. The Elements of Macro-Functions

Generally, layman knows function of language only as a tool to send information through communication. Cook states that non-specialist in linguistics will say that the function of language is to send information "or" to tell other people of your thoughts (Cook, 1989:25). The function of language is not superficial as that. He, further, says that language clearly has many more functions than simply sending information (Cook, 1989:25). According to Brown and Yule, there are two major functions of language, which are as *transactional* and *interactional* (Brown and Yule, 1984:1). More, Jakobson raises six functions of language, which are *referential function, emotive function, conative function, phatic function, metalingual function, and poetic function*. Cook

also has seven main functions of language or 'macro-functions', which the six functions are based on the Jakobson's and the additional function is *contextual function* connected to the setting of the communication.

Since the writer finds many sources about the classification of language functions (Brown and Yule, 1984; Guy Cook, 1989; Newton, 1989; Abdul Rani et al, 2004; Kreidler, 1998), she chooses to use Cook's classification in this study.

1. Emotive function

Emotive function focused on the addresser aims a direct expression of the speaker's attitude towards what he is speaking about (Newton, 1989:121). It is communicating the inner states and emotions of the addresser (Cook, 1989:26). This function is individualistic; it can be in form of apologizing, begging, expressing happy (Rani et al, 2004:20). The most common of expressive verbs are acknowledge, admit, confess, deny and apologize (Kreidler, 1998: 188). The purely emotive stratum in language is presented by interjection. For example: "Oh no, I've got headache" or "Fantastic!" or "Ugh!"

2. Directive function

Directive function finds it purest grammatical expression in the vocative and imperative (Newton, 1989:121). It is seeking to affect the behavior of the addressee (Cook, 1989:26). The imperative sentence cardinally is different from declarative sentence; it cannot be challenged by the question 'is it true or not?'' which declarative one can be (Newton, 1989: 121). This function can be used to give invitation, direction, ordering, warning, threatening (Rani et al, 2004:21). According to Kreidler (Kreidler, 1998: 200), there are three kinds of directive utterances that can be recognized:

a. Commands

It is effectively only if the speaker has some degree of control over the actions of the addressee. For example: "Don't waste your money on that."

b. Requests

A request is an expression of what the speaker wants the addressee to do or refrain from doing. A request doesn't assume the speaker's control over the person addressed. For example: "We beg you to stay for more night."

c. Suggestions

Suggestions are the utterances we make to other persons to give opinions as to what they should or should not do. For example: "I

suggest you (should) pay more attention to what the teacher are saying."

Ervin Tripp (1972) classified directives into five types that include the relationship between the speaker and addressee roles (Hatch, 1992: 122), which are:

a. Personal need/desire statement

Example : I need/want X.

Addressee : Subordinates

b. Imperative

Example : Give me X.

Addressee : Subordinates or families equals.

c. Imbedded imperative

Example : Could you give me X (please, OK).

Addressee : Unfamiliar people; people who differ in rank or who are physically distant; someone who is in his or her own territory; someone whose willingness to comply is in doubt.

d. Permission directive

Example : May I have X? Is there any X left? Do you have X?

Addressee : someone who might not comply; also used when there is an obstacle to compliance.

e.   Hint (sometimes with humor)

    Example   : This has to be done over. What about the X?

    Addressee   : Persons with shared rules such as members of a family, people living together, and work groups.

3. Phatic function

Phatic function is serving to establish, to prolong, or to discontinue communication, to check whether the channel works, to attract the attention of the interlocutor or to confirm the continuing attention (Newton, 1989:122). It opens the channel or checking that it is working for social reasons or for practical ones (Cook, 1989:26). Phatic utterances express solidarity and empathy with others (Holmes, 2001: 258). This function can be on indirect communication, such as telephone calling (Rani et al, 2004:22). Phatic utterances include greetings, farewell, polite formulas, sorts comments of weather, asking someone about health, conveying someone to eat meal, beginning a voyage, undertaking a new venture, or celebrating a personal or social holiday (Kreidler, 1998: 204). For example, "Hello, do you hear me?", "Lovely weather", "Can You read my writing?"

4. Poetic function

Poetic function focuses on the message for its own sake (Newton, 1989:122) and uses particular form (Cook, 1989:26). Poetic utterances focus on aesthetic features of language e.g. a poem, an ear-catching motto, or a rhyme (Holmes, 2001: 259). This function has orientation on CODE and MESSAGE simultaneously. It means code of the language is specially chosen so it can provide place for message sent by the addresser. It can be in the form of rhythm, rhyme, and metaphor (Rani et al, 2004: 23). For example, "BEINZ MEANZ HEINZ" ,"Aku dan kau suka Dancow", "Peter Piper picked a peck of pickled peppers".

5. Referential function

Referential function is used for carrying information (Cook, 1989:26), such as reporting, description, explaining, or confirming something (Rani et al, 2004:21). In Kreidler's classification, this function is included in assertive utterances such as announce, agree, report, remind predict, and protest (Kreidler, 1998:). Furthermore, Kreidler explains the class of verbs which introduce information (Kreidler, 1998: 184):

a. Focus on information:

Announce Declare Disclose Explain

Express   Indicate   Mention   Proclaim

Relate   Report

b. Focus on truth-value of utterance:

Affirm   Allege   Assert   Certify

Concede   Guarantee   Swear   Attest

Bet   Claim   Contend   Maintain

c. Focus on speaker's commitment or involvement in what is reported:

Confide   Deny   Profess   Protest

d. Focus on manner:

Hint   Imply   Stress

Intimate   Emphasize

e. Focus on the nature of the message:

Dictate (a spoken message, written by another person)

Narrate recount (the utterance is unified series of event)

Preach (the utterance has moral or ethical content)

f. Focus on aspect:

Predict (the utterance is about possible future events)

Recall (the utterance is about previous events)

Example for this function: "word or vocabulary is element of language, which is important in discourse or text. In vocabulary, [we] can find the message or idea which is expressed by the writer".

6. Metalinguistic function

Metalinguistic function focuses attention upon the code itself, to clarify it renegotiate it (Rani et al, 2004:22; Cook, 1989:26). Whenever the addresser and/or the addresser need to check up whether they use the same code (Newton, 1989:122). For example, "What does this word mean here?", "This bone is known as the 'femur' ".

7. Contextual function

Contextual function is creating a particular kind of communication (Cook, 1989:26). For example, "Right, let's start the lecture!" or "It's just a game". This contextual function is related with the setting. According to Hymes (1964), setting are terms of where the event is situated in place and time, and terms of the physical relations of the interactants with respects to posture and gesture and facial expression (Brown and Yule, 1983: 38)./

CHAPTER III
METHOD OF THE STUDY