

## **CHAPTER II**

### **REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE**

#### **2.1 Theoretical Framework**

In this chapter, the writer reviews some theories, which are going to be used in the study. The writer includes the important theories which are relevant for her study. In part one the writer will explain theoretical framework. They are review of related theories and the review of the previous study. In the review of the related theories, she reviews the theories which fully support her study about commanding strategies. In this part, the writer will discuss in brief about Pragmatic, speech act, and commanding act. These theories can help the writer to solve her problem.

##### **2.1.1. Pragmatics**

People cannot really understand the nature of a language unless they understand how it is used in communication. It is important for people to understand language because it always expresses ideas, thoughts, feeling, and the speaker's intention. One branch of linguistics which studies language as is called pragmatics.

There are some points of view on pragmatics. According to Yule (1996: 3), firstly, pragmatics is the study of utterances as communicated by a speaker and interpreted by a hearer. Secondly, pragmatics is the study of contextual meaning. It requires a consideration of how a speaker organizes what he or she wants to say. Thirdly, pragmatics is the study of how the hearer gets the implicit meaning of the

speaker's utterances. The last, pragmatics is the study of the expression of a relative distance. It is assumed as the study of the relationship between linguistics forms and the users of those forms.

In addition, Leech (1983: 6) states that pragmatics is the study of meaning which is related to the speech situations. Further he explains that pragmatics can be seen as a way to solve problems which can arise, both from the perspective of a speaker and a hearer. For example from the speaker's point of view, the problem is the planning about how to produce an utterance. On the other hand, from the hearer's point of view, the problem is related to the interpretation, which forces the hearer to be able to interpret the possible reason that makes the speaker produce the utterance.

Meanwhile, Mey (1993: 42) considered pragmatics as the study of human language users' condition, which has a close relationship with the context of society. It means that pragmatic is one of study that learn about the context of society and language. Similarly, Levinson (1983: 5) states that pragmatics is the study of the use of language in communication. In this study, people try to see the relation between language and contexts.

In conclusion, pragmatics is the study of meaning of utterances in relation to the contexts which involves how a speaker produces an utterance to deliver his or her intention and how the listener interprets it.

## 2.1.2. Speech Act

### a. Definition of Speech Act

People do not only produce utterances which contain grammatical structure and words when they speak, but also perform an action through those utterances. Utterances that perform an action is generally called as speech act (Yule, 1996: 47). Similarly, Austin (in Tsui, 1994: 4) states that speech act is an act which refers to the action that is performed in making an utterance. Based on those opinions above, it can be concluded that speech act is the act performed by a speaker in uttering a sentence. The functions of the speech act itself is to state the speaker's intention to the hearer.

The discussion of speech act cannot be separated from the other aspects of speaking activities, such as speech situation and speech event. Speech situation is a speech which is associated with the situation and an event may consist of one or more speech acts (Hymes in Fasold, 1999: 42). Austin (in Levinson, 1983: 236) divides three basic senses in which when someone says something, he or she is also doing something at the same time. For this reason, he or she proposes three kinds of acts, they are:

- 1) Locutionary act is the real word that is uttered by a speaker and it contains the speaker's verbalized message.
- 2) Illocutionary act is the power or intention behind the words that is uttered by the speaker. It indicates the speaker's purpose in saying something. The speaker's expression can be in the form of statement, offer, promise, etc.

- 3) Perlocutionary act is the effect of the illocution on the hearer, such as the effect on the feelings, thoughts, or action of hearers.

In the other word, locutionary act is the simple act of saying words and the meaning of those words which are spoken by the speaker. Ilocutionary act is what is done the speaker in saying something, and perlocutionary act is the effect that arises when the speaker is saying something.

According to searle (1969: 16) speech acts are the basic or minimal units of linguistic communication. The unit of linguistic communication itself is the production or issuance of the symbol or word or sentence in the performance of the speech act (1969: 16). In other words, linguistic communication is the noise or mark which is produced by certain intention.

## **b. Direct and Indirect Speech Act**

### **1) Direct Speech Act**

A direct speech act occurs when there is a direct relationship between a structure and a function. Thus, to make a statement people have to use a declarative form, to make questions they formulate it in the interrogative form, and to make commands they will use an imperative form. For example:

- a. Wear seatbelt (declarative)
- b. Do you wear your seatbelt? (interrogative)
- c. Wear your seatbelt! (imperative)

Yule, (1996: 54) explained that in (a), the speaker stated that the hearer wears a seatbelt. In (b), the speaker asks a question to the hearer whether the

hearer wears the seatbelt or not. In (c), the speaker commands the hearer to wear the seatbelt.

## **2) Indirect Speech Act**

An indirect speech act occurs when there is an indirect relationship between a structure and a function. For example, a declarative and an interrogative forms used to make commands in an indirect speech act. Allan states that in an indirect speech act, there is an implicit meaning behind what the speaker actually says (1986: 204).

When people use indirect speech act, they will be able to create a polite statement. As stated by Yule, indirect commands or request are simply considered as more gentle or more polite way to express commands better than direct commands (1996: 133). That is why people tend to use indirect speech act better than direct speech act.

### **c. Speech Act Classification**

Searle (in Levinson, 1983: 240) proposes that in speaking, one can perform five basic kinds of action, namely:

#### **1) Representative**

Representative is a kind of speech act that states what the speaker believes to be the case or not, for example state, conclude, represent, deduce, etc. By using this utterance, his or her expresses belief that the propositional content is true.

## 2) Directive

In this type of speech acts, the speaker wants to ask someone else to do something. Acts of commanding, ordering, requesting, inviting, are all the examples of how the speaker expressing his or her wants.

## 3) Commissive

When the speaker uses commissive speech acts, it means that he or she will commit some future action. Basically, it expresses what the speaker intends. The examples are promises, offers, threats, and refusals.

## 4) Expressive

Expressive is a kind of speech acts that states what the speaker feels. The form of expressive can be statements of pleasure, pain, like, dislike, joy, or sorrow. In this case, the speaker makes the words fit with the situation which his or her feeling also includes in it. Acts of thanking, apologizing, congratulating are all the examples of what the speaker feels.

## 5) Declaration

Declaration is a kind of speech acts that change the situation via the speaker's utterance. In order to perform a declaration correctly, the speaker has to have a special institutional role, in a specific context. For example, appoint, nominate, sentence, pronounce, fire, and resign.

### **2.1.3. Directive**

Directive is used when the speaker wants the hearer to do things for him or her. Searle (in Levinson, 1983: 241) gives the notion of directive as the utterance which is used by a speaker to get the hearer to do something. Similarly, Holmes

says that directive is a linguistic utterance which is meant to ask someone to do something (1992: 239). Directive can be in a form of commanding, offering, requesting, asking, inviting, ordering, begging, permitting, daring or challenging. Directive include acts of commanding and requesting that lead for further actions of the hearers, and the actions are in accordance with the speaker's instruction. Based on the theory of Gordon and Lakoff (in Bovillain 2003: 119), to employ directive, a speaker must fulfill the certain conditions as follows:

1. The speaker wants the hearer to do some actions.
2. The speaker assumes that the hearer is able to do the act.
3. The speaker assumes that the hearer is willing to do the action.
4. The speaker assumes that the hearer would not do an action if there is no request.

Directive can be performed directly and also indirectly. When a speaker expresses an utterance in an imperative form, it means that he or she uses a direct directive and when he or she expresses in an interrogative and declarative forms, he or she uses an indirect directive. Orders and commands are generally expressed in an imperative form. In order to be more polite in asking someone, the speaker can use interrogatives and declaratives forms.

The example below may clarify the explanation above:

- (a) Sit down!
- (b) Could you sit down?
- (c) You'd be more comfortable sitting down (Taken from Holmes, 1992: 290)

There are many factors that influence the use of a certain form of directive, such as social distance between the participants, their status, and the formality of the context. To get what he or she wants from someone else, a speaker must know the rule in expressing his or her desire and it should be relevant to the socio-cultural context. In choosing the appropriate linguistic form of directive to family, friends, and foreigners, the speaker involves the dimensions of solidarity/social distance and status/power (Holmes, 1992: 294).

#### **2.1.4. Context**

Context is the important part in study about pragmatics. Analyzing the sentences related the meaning cannot be separated from the context. The importance of the context can be seen in Levinson's idea of pragmatics (1987: 24) he state that the language user must pair sentences with the context in which they would be appropriate. In short the sentences should be appropriate with the context.

In understanding the meaning of utterances, we must pay attention to the surrounding context of situation. A situational context or context of situation is an important element in communication. As stated by Leech (1983: 13), context has a great influence and also effect in understanding the meaning of an utterance. Through the context, the speaker and the addressee share their background in understanding the utterances.

Holmes (2001: 8) explains that there are some components, in any situation, will be generally reflected by the linguistic choices. They are the

participant, the setting or social context of interaction, the topic, and the last is the function.

In spoken language, the function of context helps the speaker and hearer in delivering and receiving meaning of utterances. By concerning the context, speakers and hearers, writers and readers will not misinterpret the intended meaning.

### **2.1.5. Commands**

#### **a. Definition of Commands**

In communication, people often employ commands to get someone to do something. In some occasions, commands are very important to be employed, for instance; when a chief of police commands his subordinates to catch the criminals. Even, in the modern technology, people can send commands only by clicking their computer's mouse. Every time they click on an icon on the computer they are sending a command to the computer's operating system.

According to Coulthard there is an easy way to predict whether a declarative or an interrogative form will realized into something other than to make a statement or question (2004: 24). He says that any declarative or interrogative form can be interpreted as a command if it refers to an action or an activity which is forbid when the speaker utters it. Chaika (1994: 183) states that commands and questions, virtually, have the same precondition. They are:

- a. The speaker who commands has the right and duty to command
- b. The recipient of the command has the responsibility to carry out the command.

It means that, the person who has the right to command usually has a higher status than the person who must obey it. Rescher (in Trosborg, 1995: 194) writes that in expressing a command, the speaker should have a rational and a reasonable answer if someone asks him or her a question about why he or she issued a certain command.

According to Green (in Tsui, 1994: 92) the form of request and order are different. The difference between both of them is in the level of politeness, in which the request form is more polite than the order form. Lyon (in Tsui, 1994: 92- 93) adds that the crucial difference between command and request is that a command has the unconditional feature; it means that the speaker assumes that the hearer will do the action in the way that the speaker has commanded. Whereas a request has the conditional feature, or, in other words, the speaker assumes that the request will only take an effect if the hearer agrees to do it.

Based on the explanations above, it can be concluded that a command is something that should be done by the hearer. A command can be interpreted only if the participants are actually in a commanding situation. The duty or obligation to carry out a command does not proceed only from status of the speaker, but it may proceed from the physical circumstances in which the command has been uttered.

Commanding is concluded in the indirect speech act. As Searle (in Cutting, 2002: 19) explained that someone using indirect speech act want to communicate a different meaning from the apparent surface meaning; the form and function are not directly related. From the clarification above the writer

concludes that sometimes the speaker use indirect utterances to perform their want without directly explicit to the listener. To give more understanding about commanding, the writer will give example: “You leave immediately”. That word has declarative form, it encodes the force of a statement, but it could be used to issue a command

## **b. Types of Commands**

### **1) Direct Commands**

According to Chaika (1982: 184), a direct command is allowed and commonly can be found in several certain circumstances, such as in family, in military form, in emergency situation (for example, during firefighting), and in hospital emergency rooms. Direct command is used because the speaker wants the hearer to know or understand what the speaker wants from the hearer more explicit and the speaker must not explain again about their want. Some examples of direct command:

- a) Pick up toys up right way (in a family: Parents to young children)
- b) Fire! (In military form)
- c) Get the hose! Put up the ladders! (In firefighting)
- d) Get me some bandages! (In hospital emergency rooms)

### **2) Indirect Commands**

Searle (in Richards and Schmidt, 1975: 93) describes one type of directive and he calls it as indirect commands. His categorization is primarily based on the content of commands. Sinclair and Coulthard (in Richards and Schmidt, 1975:

96), also provide a rule for the interpretation of declarative and interrogative forms as indirect commands. The rule is that if the required action is not made explicit, so it is a kind of indirect commands. An indirect command is a command given by using another command of which the command to execute is either an explicit argument or a shell variable. Indirect command has a surface meaning that the form and function are not directly related. Below are some examples of indirect commands:

- a) Do you have to stand in front of the TV? (Interrogative)
- b) You're standing in front of the TV. (Declarative)
- c) You close the door. (Declarative)

#### **2.1.6. Politeness**

Politeness is a very important principle in a language use, and in communication, it can be defined as a means to show awareness of another person's face (Yule, 1998: 60). The same opinion is also stated by Holmes (1992: 306). He says that a polite person makes other people are able to feel comfortable. So politeness involves how one can make others feel more pleasant. It also includes the appropriate linguistic choices in accordance with certain social and situational context.

Related to the discussion of politeness, in issuing commands, a speaker has to make sure that he or she is able to create a polite command. It is not only because he or she usually expects a positive result from the hearers (which the form is in compliance) but also because a speaker cannot employ commands directly (anytime and at any situation) because he or she must consider several

factors. Those factors are when and where he or she utters the expressions and also consider to whom he or she speaks to.

Bonvillain (2003: 120) also adds that the above factors are very important because a speaker should make requests, so he or she will have a positive result, namely compliance; but because of the fact that sometimes there is a social relationship exists between the speaker and the addressee (even if the addressee is a strange person), a speaker must be sensitive to the hearer's feeling.

Therefore, a speaker needs to use certain strategies for accomplishing FTA in order to reduce the risk of damaging hearer's face. Brown and Levinson (1996: 86) distinguish strategies of polite behavior to reduce FTA in commands, they are:

**a. Bald-on-record**

The prime reason in using bald on record comes whenever a speaker wants to do the FTA with maximum efficiency more than he or she wants. It is to satisfy the hearer's face, even to any different degree {Brow and Levinson (1996: 89)}. The speakers go on-record if there are good reasons to ignore the face risk of the hearer. They do not do any effort to minimize threats to the hearer's face.

When a speaker employs bald on record, there are some occasions in which the external factors can strain individual to speak directly so the speakers ignore face risk. For example, if there is an emergency situation (where there is a time limitation) and where there is some form of channel limitation such as in a communication via telephone. It would certainly require the speaker to speak with maximum efficiency. The other situations in which no attempt is made to mitigate

the face risk are found where the power differential is great; in such cases the powerful participant will often employ no indirectness at all.

There are some sub strategies in bald on record, they are:

- 1) An emergency: HELP!
- 2) Task oriented or command: Give me the nails!
- 3) Alerting or warning hearers: Turn your headlights on! (When alerting someone to something they should be doing). Take from Brow and Levinson (1996: 89).

### **b. Positive Politeness**

Positive politeness is oriented toward the positive face of the hearer. It is the positive self-image that he or she claims for himself or herself. It is about the face of the addressee by indicating that in some respects, the speaker wants the hearer's wants (for example by treating him as a member of an in-group, a friend, and a person whose wants personality traits are known and liked).

Positive politeness utterances are used as a kind of "metaphorical extension of intimacy". It is to eliminate the distance between the speaker and the hearer. So, it is considered as if they are known and they have no specific restrictions or differences in their social status. When people speak to someone, they may orient positive face and employ positive politeness which appeals the hearer's desire to be liked and approved of in conversation. Positive politeness is oriented to enhance the positive face needs of the interlocutor.

There are some sub strategies in positive politeness such as:

- 1) Noticing or attending to the hearer's interests, wants, needs or goods: "You must be hungry; it's a long time since breakfast. How about some lunch?"

2) Avoid disagreement

A: "What is she, small?"

B: "Yes, yes, she's small, smallish, um, not really small but certainly not very big."

3) Assume agreement: "So, when are you coming to see us?"

4) Give (or ask for) reasons: "Why don't you lend us your record player?"

5) Use in-group identity markers: "Come here, buddy."

**c. Negative Politeness**

Negative politeness is a strategy in which the speaker states the FTA by utilizing strategies oriented towards redressing the negative face-threat to the hearer. The realizations of this strategy consists in assurances that the speaker recognizes and respects the addressee's negative face wants and will not interfere with the addressee's freedom of action.

The main focus in using this kind of strategy is to assume that the speaker may be imposing on the hearer and intruding on their space. Therefore, these are automatically assumed that there might be some social distance or awkwardness in the situation. The example of the negative politeness is represented below:

1) Be conventionally indirect: "Could you pass the salt?"

2) Minimize imposition: "I just want to ask you if I would use your computer?"

3) Be pessimistic: "Could you jump over that five foot fence?"

4) Impersonalize speaker and hearer: "Give it."

**d. Off-record**

Off record strategy is performed typically through the use of an indirect illocutionary act which has more than one interpretation. Thus, if a speaker wants

to do an FTA, but he or she wants to avoid the responsibility for doing it, he or she can do it in the form of *off record* utterances and leave it up to the addressee to decide how to interpret it.

Off record utterances essentially use indirect language. It is in order to minimize threat on hearer's face. Off record covers the act indirectly so the speaker cannot be responsible for any specific communicative intent.

- 1) Give hints: "It's cold here".
- 2) Be vague response: "Perhaps someone should have been more responsible."
- 3) Overstate tonight: "There were a million people in the Co-op tonight!"

## **2.2 Related Study**

In this study the writer takes two previous studies from similar studies that have been done before to support her research. They are; *Indirect Commands in Manado Malay* that was written by Yubilly J. Turangan (2008) student of Manado State University. Her study is focused on the indirect command that is used in Manado Malay Language. He used theory from Searle (2002) to support her study and get the data with descriptive method was used. The data were collected by recording the conversations of the speaker and noted all the information needed related to the topic of this research. The researcher had found that in the north Sulawesi, the people who spoke in Manado Malay language use indirect commands in order to make the expression of commands itself felt soft in their conversation.

Similar study has been done before. *Command and Request used in Tombo Lulu Language* the study is conducted by Pontoh (1998), student of State of Manado University tried to answer the research questions: 1. how are command and request expressed in Tombulu Language? 2. What factors influence command and request in Tombulu Language? The study was qualitative research. The intention of that study is to describe commands and requests in Tombulu Language. The data were collected in natural setting that is by recording native speaker's informal conversations, taking notes and observing the context in which Tombulu command and request are used. It is found in that study that to indicate command and request of the language can be expressed in a number of sentence forms which are generally influenced by social and situational factors in the culture of Tombulu.