CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

To support the analysis, the researcher takes several experts theories dealing with this theory; those are language style and personal style.

2.1 Language Features

Language features is existing features associated with lexicon and grammar. Richard Nordquist describe lexicon is really an appendix of the grammar, a list of basic irregularities. Merriam Webster describe grammar is the study of the classes of words, their inflections, and their functions in the sentence.

Peter Knapp and Megan Watkins describes the language features patterns that are typically associated with a text written for a particular purpose. These include selection of tense, tone, text connectives, vocabulary, noun, Verb, Adjectives and phrases, Personal voice, Formal, Nominalise, Rhetorical questions and thought-provoking questions, Emphatic language, hyperbole or exaggeration, Alliteration or rhyme, Alliteration or rhyme, Figurative language, metaphor and simile, Repetition, Quotes or humour, Anecdotes, examples, facts and statistics, The antithesis or opposing points of view.

The following is a list of techniques that students should be encouraged to use in their persuasive writing. The types of language features:

1. Verbs to indicate actions and feelings

present tense for most of the argument e.g. Smoking is ..., I hate...

past tense for some evidence or past happenings e.g. For years, people smoked ...

future tense for suggesting solutions to problems, predictions for the future or calls for action e.g. We will be a healthier society if ..., Society can change...

2. Adjectives and phrases – descriptive, emphatic, feeling words that appeal to the emotions

Wonderful, beneficial, amazing, excellent, terrible, horrible, cruel, unjust, endangered, unwise, attractive, frightening, perfect, highly recommended, practical, only course of action, sensible, the best way, useful, the only path, the obvious solution ...

3. Personal voice (first, second person) with action verbs

I like, I think, I believe, I do not believe, I urge you, you should, shouldn't, we should, could, must, must not, we need to, we will ...

4. Formal voice (more authoritative, more power of persuasion)

Progress writing from I think computer games are good ... to Computer games are good ...

5. Nominalise information – turn verbs, adverbs or clauses into nouns for more authority Instead of *You should not pollute* ... write *Pollution should be stopped* ... *It* ...

Greedy to *greed; violent* to *violence; cruel* to *cruelty*

6. Rhetorical questions and thought-provoking questions for effect

Where do we go from here? What is the point of ...?

7. Emphatic language, hyperbole or exaggeration for effect

We need to..., Society has no other choice, it must..., There are a countless ways to...

8. Alliteration or rhyme, especially in the title or the last statement or sentence

Exercise is exhilarating. Plastic will never ever go away.

9. Figurative language, metaphor and simile to enhance your argument

... is driving me up the wall, Littering is a sickness, Eating junk food is like jumping off a cliff.

10. Repetition of words, phrases and concepts to push your point of view

We can stop the use of illegal drugs. We will stop the use of illegal drugs.

11. Quotes or humour that pack a punch and help your case

'Tomorrow is the first day of the rest of our lives' so let's begin right now!

12. Anecdotes, examples, facts and statistics as evidence to enhance your argument

Last year..., An example of this can be seen... 70% of young smokers ...

13. The antithesis or opposing points of view by contrasting the opposites

Smokers might say that smoking is relaxing but ..., Love it or hate it ..., Right this wrong...

Ethical language calls for fairness, ideas of right and wrong, morality and justice

The only fair thing to do is... We have a moral obligation to...

Connectives or joining word.

2.2 Lexical Features

Lexical features is the proven indispensable for the good performance of most aplications dealing with Inguage, more generalized characterizations of the lexicon (Brown et al., 1992; Wilson t al., 2005; Feng et al., 2013; Ji and Lin, 2009; Resnik, 1995), have become key in overcoming issues with lexical sparseness and in providing practical semantic information for natural language processing system (Miller et al. 2004; Rutherfordand Xue, 2014; Velikovich et a;., 2010; Dodge et al. 2012).

Thierry Fontenelle (2008: 175-185) lexical function is a tool developed within meaning text theory for the description and systematization of semantic realtionships, specifically collocations and lexical derivation between particular lexical units of language.

Austin Cline (atheism.about.com), lexical is commonly thought of as the real definition and because is describes how words are genuinely used, there is some basis for this judgment.

Wren and Martin (2000: 3) explain that the discussion lexical is about part of which consist of noun, verb, and adjective.

Leec and Short (1981: 78-79) words can be classified as lexical or nonlexical. Lexical words are those that have independent meaning such as:

a. Noun

A noun is defined by Frank (1972: 6) as the name of person, place or thing. A noun can have some function in a sentence. It can be a subject, a direct object, an indirect object, a subject complement, an object complement, an appositive, an adjective, and an adverb.

Nouns are among the most important words in the English language, without them we'd have a difficult time speaking and writing about anything. This guide to noun types is intended as a basic overview. Every types of noun comes with its own rules, so be sure to read more in our pages about specific types of nouns.

1. Abstract Nouns

- 2. Collective Nouns
- 3. Common Nouns
- 4. Concrete Nouns

b. Verb

Katamba (1993: 23) explains that a verb is word used to show an action or a state of being. According to the object they are requiring, verbs can be transitive verbs (verbs which takes a direct object and no prepositions are needed to connect verb and object) and intransitive verbs which taken an indirect object and without object at all, such as He feel down).

Verb is one of the main parts of a sentence or question in English. In fact, you can't have a sentence or a question without a verb. That's how important these "action" parts of speech are:

- a. Action verbs: action verbs express specific actions, and are used any time you want to show action or discuss someone doing something.
- b. Transitive verbs: transitive verbs are action verbs that always express doable activities. These verbs always have direct object, meaning someone or something receives the action of the verb.
- c. Intransitive verbs: intransitive verbs are action verbs that always express doable activities. No direct object follows an intransitive verb.
- d. Auxiliary verbs: auxiliary verb are also known ashelping verbs, and are used together with a main verb to show the verb's or to form a question or negative.

- e. Stative verbs: stative verbs can be recognized because they express a state rather than n action. They typically relate to thoughts, emotions, relationships, sense, states of being, and measurements.
- f. Modal verbs: modal verbs are auxiliary verbs that are used to express abilities, possibilities, permissions, and obligations.
- g. Phrasal verbs: phrasal verbs arenot single words; instead, they are combinations of words that are used together to take on a different meaning to that of the original verb.
- h. Irregular verbs: irregular verbs are those that don't take on the regular spelling patterns of past simple and past participle verbs.

c. Adjectives

An adjectives, according Katamba 91993: 24), is a modifier that has the grammatical property of comparison. It describes or modifiers noun. It is often identified by special derivational endings or by special adverbial modifiers that precede it. Its most usual position is before the noun it modifies, but it fills other position as well.

In addition to their basic forms, Leech (2006: 6) propose that there are two other forms: comparative and superlative. The comparative is the form of an adjective involving a comparison of more o less, greater or lesser. Comparativesin English are either marked by the suffix –er or preceded by the word more or less, for example: greater, smarter, and more beautiful . superlative means the from of an adjective hat indicates the most or the least of something. Superlatives are either marked by the suffix –est or precede by the word most or ;east, for example: greatest, smartest, and most beautiful.

For example: my brother, who is much older than I am, is an astronaut.

There are different kinds of adjectives. These are:

- a. Descriptive adjectives: among the different kinds of adjectives, descriptive are probably the most common one.
- b. Adjectives of number or adjectives of quantity: as the name suggests, this kinds of adjective answer the question, "How many?" or "How much?"
- c. Demonstrative adjectives: demonstrative adjectives point out pronouns and nouns, and always come before the words they are referring to.
- d. Possessive adjectives: obviously, this kind of adjectives shows ownership or possession.

 Aside from that, possessive adjectives always come before the noun.
- e. Interrogative adjectives: interrogative adjectives ask questions and are always followed by a noun.

There are only three degrees or levels of adjectives (also known as degree of comparison) namely, positive, comparative, and superlative

The definition which reports the meaning of a word or a phrase as it is actually used by people is called a lexical definition. Meanings of words given in a dictionary are lexical definitions. As a word may have more than one meaning, it may also have more than one lexical definition. Lexical definitions are either true or false. If the definition is the same as the actual use of the word then it is true, otherwise it is false.

2.3 Grammatical

Albert C. Baugh & Thomas Cable (2002: 224) explained grammatical features is marked more by the survival of certain forms and usages that have since desappeared than by any fundamental developments. The section of grammatical features includes types of pronoun, metaphor, and rhetoric.

Richard Nordquist describe grammatical function is the syntactic role played by a word r phrase in the context of a particular clause or sentence. Sometimes called simply function. In Eglish, grammatical function is primarily determined by a word's position in a sentence, not by inflection (or word endings). The parts of grammatical features are pronouns, metaphor, and rhetoric.

a. Pronouns Usage

A pronoun is a word that replaces a noun or noun phrase. Pronoun is a word that replaces or stands for ("pro" = for) a noun, for examples: I. You, and we. According to Burton (1986: 54) pronoun can be divided into eight types. They are:

1. Personal Pronouns / Definite Pronouns:

Personal pronouns have different forms depending on their person (first, second or third) and, usually, number (singular and plural). Sometimes, in the third person singular, they take different forms according to gender (he, she). They also take different forms depending on whether they stand for the subject or the object of the sentence. First person pronouns are I, me, we, and us. These pronouns refer to the person doing the speaking or writing. The second person pronoun, whether singular or plural, is always you, meaning the person or persons being spoken to or addressed. Third person pronouns refer to those being spoken or written about: he, him, she, her, it, they, and them. (Most third person pronouns refer to people, although they and them can

refer to things and it is sometimes used about babies and animals. There are, as always in English, odd exceptions, such as the customary use of she or her for a ship.) (King, p. 80). Academic writing generally requires the use of the third person.

The subject of a sentence (or clause) is the person or thing doing something — in other words, the subject of the verb. Subject pronouns are as follows: I, you, he, she, it, we, they, who, whoever. The object of the sentence is whoever or whatever is having something done to it; it is the object of the verb: me, you, him, her, it, us, them, whom, whomever.

2. Possesive Pronouns

There are two main types of possessive pronouns. First, Adjectival possessive pronouns (also a kind of determiner, because they tell us more about following nouns): my lecture notes, his jacket, our motor car, your house, their party. Second, pronominal possessive pronouns which are used on their own: that textbook is mine; yours is over there; his is under the table; hers is lying on the bottom stair; this land is ours; theirs is down the road.

3. ReflexivePronouns:

Reflexive pronouns 'reflect' the action back to the self or subject: myself, yourself, herself, himself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves — for example, we often say 'Look after yourself' to people we care about. Sometimes, reflexive pronouns are used in an intensifying or clarifying way. For instance: 'The funeral, featuring hymns the dead man himself had selected, took too long'; 'Although the house itself was in good condition, its outbuildings were fallingdown.

4. DemonstrativePronouns:

Pronouns that specify almost by pointing to an object (e.g. this, that, those), but be careful: these same words followed by a noun (e.g. those books) would be demonstrative adjectives and not pronouns at all. These pronouns help us 'to demonstrate something or to point out things' (King, p.85).

Examples: 'This chicken dish looks delicious'; 'Those rocks look too dangerous for fishing'; 'These clothes are too warm for a sunny day.

When demonstrative pronouns are used on their own, as in 'That is not fair!' it is very important that the listener or reader knows what is being referred to.

5. Introgative Pronouns:

Interrogative Pronouns are pronouns that are used only in reference to a question (who, what, which, whom, whose).

Examples:

- •What time is it? •Who is the woman wearing the yellow scarf?
- •Which room is mine?
- •Whose bicycle was stolen?

Whomis tricky, and is falling into disuse because many people do not know how to use it correctly. Who is a subject pronoun, while whom is an object pronoun; it should only be used as the object of a verb – e.g. 'To whom shall I address the parcel?', 'By whom was the letter sent?', 'Whom shall I ask?'

If you're not sure which of **who** and **whom** to use, choose **who**.

6. Relative Pronouns

Relative pronouns are used to introduce relative clauses. (That, which, who, whom, whose, whatever, whoever, whomever).

Examples:

- •I wish I knew whose shoes had made the carpet so muddy.
- •The suit **that** she wore to the wedding was ruined by the rain.
- •Newcastle buses, which usually run on time, terminate near the station.
- •We're going on a picnic to the beach next weekend, whatever the weather is like.
- •The mayor, who had once been a leading businesswoman, was accused of corruption.
- •The assault victim had nobody to whom to turn for help.
- •Whoever caused the company's bankruptcy should be held responsible.
- •He should make reparation to **whomever** his crimes have affected.
- * That is used to introduce what we call a **definitional relative clause** a clause that provides an essential piece of information about a noun. For example: I want you to cut down the tree **that** hangs over the back fence.
- * Which is used to introduce a non-definitional clause in other words, a clause adding extra information not essential to understanding the main idea of the sentence. For example: He bought the Porsche, which everybody knows he can't afford, last month.

Let's immediately revise this important rule:

• That is used to introduce what we call a definitional relative clause — a clause that provides an essential piece of information about a noun.

Which is used to introduce a non-definitional clause — in other words, a clause that
adds extra information unnecessary to the understanding of the main idea of the
sentence.

7. Indefinite Pronouns

All, any, every, everything, each, some, one, both, either, neither, few, little, less, least, many, everyone, someone, no one, something, anybody, nobody, more, most, nothing, enough, plenty, several. (King, p. 89). What do they have in common? They all concern number or quantity.

Some indefinite pronouns should only be applied to **uncountable nouns**, because they concern **portions** rather than numbers of something: **a little** sugar, **much** trouble, **less** fat. (Remember that when indefinite pronouns precede nouns like this, they are actually called indefinite determiners.).

But, we say many cakes, many problems, and fewer calories. Many and fewer are used to indicate number and so are used with countable nouns. Make sure that pronouns agree in grammatical number (singular or plural) with any nouns to which they may refer. For instance, each, one, either, neither, someone, anyone, no one, nobody and something are all singular.

Make sure that an indefinite pronoun agrees in number with a verb or personal pronoun in a sentence – e.g. 'Each (singular) one of us has (singular) problems'; 'Neither (sing.) of the actors could remember her (sing.) lines,' but 'Few (plural) of the players are (plural) likely to turn up on such a cold day.' (King, p. 89)

8. Reciprocal Pronouns

There are only two reciprocal pronouns: each other and one another. As the term 'reciprocal' indicates, they express a mutual, give-and-take relationship. Each other refers to two people or things — e.g. 'The brothers are no longer talking to each other.' One another is usually meant to refer to more than two — e.g. 'The people of the small community helped one another through family crises.'

b. Metaphor

Metaphor is used to compare things that are essentially unlike. Such uses are intended to say something more vividly and forcefully (Perrine,1988, p. 565). Metaphor is a figure of speech which makes an implicit, implied or hidden comparison between two things that are unrelated but share some common characteristics. In other words, a resemblance of two contradictory or different object is made based on a single or some common characteristics.

(Perrine, 1984: 62) says that metaphor is a figurative language used when we want to make indirect comparison between two objects. Metaphoric language is used in order to realize a new and different meaning. According p Goatly (1997: 166) metaphor is used to make variations of a sentence. It can be used to reinforce the readers' imagination of the world.

Furthermore, a metaphor develops a comparison which is different from a simile i.e. we do not use "like" or "as" to develop a comparison in a metaphor. It actually makes an implicit or hidden comparison and does not an explicit one.

Most of us think of a metaphor as a device used in songs or poems only, and that it has nothing to do with our everyday life. In fact, all of us in our routine life speak, write and think in metaphors. We cannot avoid them. Metaphors are sometimes constructed through our common language. They are called conventional metaphors. Calling a person a "night owl" or an "early bird" or saying "life is a journey" are common conventional metaphor examples commonly

heard and understood by most of us. Below are some more conventional metaphors we often hear in daily life:

- a. My brother was **boiling mad**. (this implies he was too angry).
- b. The assignment was a breeze. (this implies that the assignment was not difficult).
- c. It is going to be **clear skies** from now on. (this implies that clear skies are not a threat and life is going to be without hardships)
- d. The skies of his future began to **darken**. (Darkness ia a threat; therefore, this implies that the coming times are going to be hard for him).
- e. Her voice is **music to his ears**. (this implies that her voice makes him feel happy).

c. Rhetorical

The study of rhetoric began from the small Greek city of Athens during the sixth, fifth, and fourth centuries. Democratic government called *demokratia* was formed by the citizens of Athens who were given rights to participate in decisions making and to speak on the decisions in the Assembly. In the fifth century, the term *rhetor* was introduced for a member of assembly who had sufficient knowledge and skills to address the issues in the Assembly, but by the fourth century, the term *rhetor* meant for someone who was considered to be "an expert on politics" (Crowley and Hawhee 2004:7-8). Aristotle defined rhetoric as the power of finding the available arguments suited to a given situation (Crowley and Hawhee, 2004:01). Rhetoric is the art of persuasion as practiced by orators and described by the theorists and teachers of speech (Kennedy 1972:3). Rhetoric is an ability to see the available means of persuasion (Kennedy 2007:37). Rhetoric refers to powerful and effective use of language to persuade, convince, stimulate, or defend in any given situation. Aristotle's rhetoric theory is a set of tools that guides a rhetor to become effective rhetorician.

Classical rhetoric of Aristotle is accounted to analyze the rhetorical strategies of Obama's inaugural address in this project. Let us discuss the Aristotle's contribution to the classical rhetorical theories by considering various studies. First complete rhetoric theory was developed by Aristotle who wrote: Rhetoric is an antistrophe to dialectic; for both are concerned with such things as are, to a certain extent, within the knowledge of all people and belong to no separately defined science. A result is that all people, in some way, share in both; for all, to some extend try both test and maintain an argument (as in dialectic) and to defend themselves and attack (others, as in rhetoric). Now among the general public, some do these things randomly and others through an ability acquired by habit, but since both ways are possible, it is clear that it would also be possible to do the same by (following) a path; for it is possible to observe the cause why some succeed by habit and others accidently, and all would at once agree that such observation is the activity of an art (tekhne). *On Rhetoric*, I i 1354a, translated by Kennedy, 2007:30.

a. Rhetoric Situation:

The rhetor makes a better choice of arguments if understand and aware of rhetorical context, facts, background while composing a rhetorical discourse. The background, the facts, or the contexts in which a rhetoric discourse takes place is called the rhetorical situation. Bitzer (1995:61) explained the rhetorical situation as a complex of persons, events, objects, and relations presenting an actual or potential exigency which can be completely or partially removed if discourse, introduced into the situation, can so constrain human decision or action so as to bring about significant modification of the exigency. The rhetors become effective rhetoricians if they understand/aware of the topic of discourse, the audience in the given situation and their relationship to the topic as well as the rhetors, their reputation, and their relation to the

topic. Other artifacts like time, place, and surroundings in which discourse take place are to be considered.

b. Types of Rhetorical Speeches:

Kennedy (1972:9) described three forms of oratory: judicial, deliberative, and epideictic. Crowley and Hawhee (2004:245) stated as "Aristotle divided rhetoric into three species: deliberative, epideictic, and judicial." Kennedy (2007:20) further argued that in Aristotle's rhetoric theory, the concept of epideictic form of speech is most problematic because the speeches which cannot be specified as deliberative or judicial are considered as epideictic discourses. The classification of oratory is based on three elements: circumstances in which the discourse takes place, the audience, and the rhetors. Rapp (2013) discussed further that epideictic oratory is formal and ceremonial in which rhetor either phrases or blames the individuals or the institutions for their actions or policies. The rhetor is concern with the present, often recalls the past and guesses for the future. In this case, the audience observes the skilful delivery of message by the orator. In judicial oratory, a speaker either accuse or defends somebody in the court of law by referring to the events occurred in the past. The audience, judge or jury, makes judgement on the basis of precedents from the past. Deliberative oratory is concern with the legislation in the Assembly. It focuses the future and proposes the course of actions for the future. The audience in this case is the other members of Assembly who make judgement if the proposed legislation is good or bad.

c. Genres of Rhetorical Discourse:

Kennedy (2007:32) argued that Aristotle was one of first scholars to give the distinction of three species/genres of rhetoric, i.e. judicial, deliberative and epideictic. Harold Zyskind (1950) analyzed the Lincoln's Gettysburg Address and presented his analysis as an example of generic

criticism. He concluded that a classical genre was the combination of elements from the discourse situation, the topic, the arguments, and the audience. Campbell and Jamieson (1978:21) noted that a genre was formed by the number of elements which come together due to their likeness to each other. The elements of similar forms could appear in different genres without posing any critical problem. They contended that Aristotle's generic schema was weak only if the elements of epideictic genre could not be distinguished by the critic from the other genres of Aristotle. Campbell and Jamieson (1985:395) described the presidential inaugurals as the ceremonial speeches therefore called epideictic. The fusion of general epideictic feature with the nature of formal inauguration ceremony generates a constellation of five interrelated elements which differentiate the Presidential inaugural address from the other types of epideictic rhetoric. The aim of presidential inaugural is to unify and reconstitute the audience, to rehearse national values, to put forth the agenda and policies of new administration, to appreciate the mandate of the people, to acknowledge the responsibilities and limitations of executive under the constitution (1985:396).

d. Classical Canons (Divisions) of Rhetoric:

According to Crowley and Hawhee (2004:36), the art of rhetoric is divided into five canons (divisions): invention, arrangement, style, memory, and delivery. Invention is the first and most lavish canon of the classical rhetoric. Aristotle defined "invention" as the process of examining positions held by others to be able to find and display the available arguments on any issue. In an invention phase, the rhetoric understands the rhetorical situation, the audience, and makes a choice of suitable arguments appropriate in given situation (Crowley and Hawhee, 2004:7). Rapp (2013) discussed the arrangement as the second canon of classical rhetoric that primarily concerns with selecting of suitable arguments and arranging them in an order that makes the

oratory clear and persuasive to the audience in any given situation. Ancient rhetoricians agreed upon the division of arrangement into five parts - *exordium* (introduction); a *narration*(statement of the issue); a *partition*(division of the issue into its constituent parts); *confirmatio* (*main part of the speech*); and a *peroratio*(conclusion).

Crowley and Hawhee (2004:278) explained that the third canon *style* (known as *lexis* in Greek and *elocutio*in Latin) of the ancient rhetoric is devoted to art of study of unusual uses or arrangement of words. The style can be defined as persuasive or extraordinary use of language. Aristotle argued that rhetorical language should be clear and persuasive to make appeal to the emotions. He drew up the rule of language use to make it more persuasive to excite the emotions and to represent clearly.

The first rule *correctness* guides the rhetoric to use the current words in accordance with the grammatical rules of given language. The second rule of language use is *clarity* that referred in Greek as *sapheneia* in Latin as *perspicere*. The clarity rule guide the rhetoric to use the ordinary words unless compels to do otherwise. The rhetoric should use the language that is common among the audience. The third rule of use of language is *appropriateness* that derived from Greek word *prep on*, meant to say or to do that fit at any given situation. An appropriate style means that a style suits rhetoric, situation, and audience.

Ancient rhetoricians distinguished three general style levels: grand, middle, and low. In grand style, there is a great deal of use of ornament and figurative language. The middle style deals with ordinary everyday language, loose sentence composition, and fewer ornaments. The low style is stripped of ornaments, with basic everyday speech just like conversation. The ceremonial events like funerals, weddings, and inaugurations are the examples of grand style.

The low style is most appropriate when clarity is required, while the middle style is used for most publications (2004:285).

Ornament is a last rule of language use that makes a language adorn and attractive. There are three sorts of ornament: tropes, figures of speech, and figures of thought. In figures of language, the repetition or juxtaposition of words gives the extraordinary pattern to language. Figures of thought account artful changes in concepts, and ideas. A trope is a replacement of word or phrase with another. In rhetoric, a trope transfers the meaning of a word or phrase to another. Rhetors use the tropes and figures to enhance their linguistic skills and use them when appropriate to situation, subject, and audience (2004:286).

Crowley and Hawhee (2004:316) discussed the fourth division of an art of rhetoric *memory* that deals with memorizing of an oratory. In rhetorical theory, memory holds a central place and is distinguishing between natural and artificial memory. In artificial memory, rhetoric trains to remember things. Different techniques can be adopted to enhance artificial memory. Rhetoric can memorize things by focusing on things. Things can be remembered by repeating them many times. Rhetoric can memorize things by associating them with familiar arrangement or order. Familiar geographical layout that contain memorable features, can be use to memorize things.

The fifth canon of classical rhetoric is delivery that concerns with the presentation of the speech. Arhetoric cannot be effective and persuasive by only choosing the arguments appropriate to rhetoric situation and audience until delivered with careful attention. The presentation of rhetoric is related to voice, gestures and facial expressions of rhetoric. The expressions of emotion can be altered by variations in volume, rhythm, and pitch of voice. The physical gestures go along with the tone of the speech. The gestures should be used according to the rhetorical situation (2004:335).