

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter aims to discuss the review of related literature and the theories of the research. It describes about Pragmatic, Implicature, Language of Advertising, and Magazine.

#### A. Pragmatics

Pragmatic is one of topics in discourse study, which concerns with the study of the relationship between language and the context in which it is used, in other word, Pragmatics is the study of meaning in context.<sup>9</sup> Therefore Yule states in his book "Pragmatic" that pragmatics is concerned with four areas, namely:<sup>10</sup>

1. The study of speaker meaning

It concerns with the study of meaning as communicated by a speaker (or writer) and interpreted by a listener (or reader).

2. The study of contextual meaning

It necessarily involves the interpretation of what people mean in a particular context and how the context influences what is said.

---

<sup>9</sup> Michael McCarthy. *Discourse Analysis for Language Teachers* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1991), 5.

<sup>10</sup> George Yule, *Pragmatics* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1996), 3.

3. The study of how to get more communicated than is said

This type of study explores how listeners can make inferences about what is said in order to arrive at an interpretation of the speaker's intended meaning.

4. The study of the expression of relative distance

This study arises from the question of what determines the choice between the said and the unsaid. The basic answer is tied to the notion of distance. On the assumption of how close or distant the listener is, speakers determine how much needs to be said.

Furthermore, pragmatics concerns signs as well, but it is more about how those signs are used and interpreted. How do people produce, offer, and interpret language. The sentence given may be used as a joke, insult, and so on.<sup>11</sup>

Moreover, People's expressions are different each other, or people express their meaning for one differently to other. For the example, you can say "Open the door!" to your friend, your younger brother or sister, but you cannot say it to your lecturer that way. To do that expression, you may use more polite utterance "May the door is opened?" or "It is very hot here" or other way. What makes you do this is the difference of relative distance.<sup>12</sup>

---

<sup>11</sup> Zainurrahman (Under guidance of Prof. E. Aminudin Azis, M.A., PhD.), *Pragmatics: How People Use Language, article* (STKIP KIE RAHA TERNATE)

<sup>12</sup> Ibid.

Moreover, in pragmatics, we will find some tools to be used to analyze the speaker's meaning, or the meaning of utterance in context. Therefore, pragmatics is the study about how people use language in a certain context for a certain purpose.

## **B. Implicature**

The term 'implicature' goes back to the philosopher Paul Grice, as laid down in his seminal article 'Logic and Conversation' (Grice, 1989), which is the published version of a part of his William James lectures held in 1967 at Harvard University. In Grice's approach, both 'what is implicated' and 'what is said' are part of speaker meaning. 'What is said' is that part of meaning that is determined by truth-conditional semantics, while 'what is implicated' is that part of meaning that cannot be captured by truth conditions and therefore belongs to pragmatics.<sup>13</sup>

In addition, (Herbert) Paul Grice was born on March 15, 1913 in Birmingham, England, into the family of Herbert and Mabel. Herbert Paul was educated at Bristol Clifton College and at Corpus Christi College at Oxford University. Paul Grice is generally known for his two most influential papers, 'Meaning,' published in 1957, 318 Grice, Herbert Paul and 'Logic and Conversation,' published in 1975. In 'Meaning', he distinguishes between two types of meaning: (1) the 'natural' or 'observable' meaning and (2) the 'non-natural' meaning, that is, the idiosyncratic meaning of a particular communicator. In "Logic and

---

<sup>13</sup> Jacob L. Mey, *Concise Encyclopedia of Pragmatics, second edition* (Denmark: University of Southern Denmark, 2009), 365.

Conversation,” Grice argues that in order to communicate people need to cooperate while exchanging verbal information and proposes the “cooperative principle”; “Make your conversational contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted direction or purpose of the talk exchange in which you are engaged”.<sup>14</sup>

Moreover the term “*Implicature*” is used by Grice (1975) to account for what a speaker can imply, suggest, or mean, as distinct from what a speaker literally says.<sup>15</sup> In other word, implicature is not part of the utterance in literally said however it is hidden meaning in an utterance.

Therefore, in simple definition, *Implicature* is what is meant by the speakers from what they said when they conveyed a message implicitly. So, the listeners or hearers certainly will have different interpreted meaning based on their mind and understanding, also the context was very determined in this case because the context will help the listener to understand the utterance, in other word, different context will bring different meaning. Look at the example of implicature below:

*“I looked at my watch after two hours and realized that only twenty minutes had passed”*.<sup>16</sup> This utterance shows that the speaker was boring in that occasion, although she didn’t say it. It is called implicature.

---

<sup>14</sup> *Ibid.*, 318 – 319.

<sup>15</sup> Gillian Brown and George Yule, *Discourse Analysis* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1983), 31.

<sup>16</sup> Peter Grundy, *Doing Pragmatics, second edition* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2000), 71.

Furthermore, in previous discussion stated that Grice mentioned two aspects relates the speaker meaning, “what is said” and “what is implicated” from this point raises the types of implicature as showed in Figure 2.1.

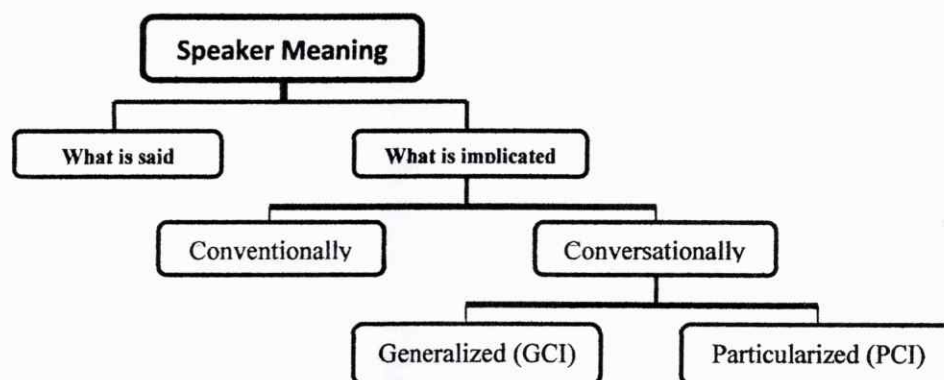


Figure 2.1 Gricean typology of speaker meaning.<sup>17</sup>

### 1. Conventional Implicature

Conventional implicature is independent of the cooperative principle and its four maxims. A statement always carries its conventional implicature.<sup>18</sup>

Moreover, conventional implicature is also called non-conversational implicature. In “Doing Pragmatics” by Peter Grundy, he used this term “Non-conversational implicature” that has definition as natural meaning. Therefore he gave an example to make easy understanding like:

“Our children once chose a tube of toothpaste on the grounds that it had colored stripes in it”. The legend on Tube said

<sup>17</sup> Mey, *Concise Encyclopedia*, 365.

<sup>18</sup> [Http://En.Wikipedia.Org/Wiki/Implicature](http://En.Wikipedia.Org/Wiki/Implicature), accessed on December 13, 2012.

“Actually fights decay”

I was glad they chose the striped toothpaste because *actually fights decay* is a perfect example of a conventional implicature. The lexical item “actually” has a literal meaning or entailment, it means *in reality* or *in actuality*. But it also conveys a secondary, implied meaning which is something like *although this is hard to credit*. This is an implicature because it is not part of the entailment of *actually*. It is conventional in the sense that it is closely associated with the particular lexical item.<sup>19</sup>

In addition, conventional implicature relates to semantics, thus relatively the lexical item such conjunction often used in this case. For example the speaker says:

“*Joe is poor but happy.*”

This sentence implies poverty and happiness are not compatible but in spite of this Joe is still happy. The conventional interpretations of the word “but” will always create the implicature of a sense of contrast. So *Joe is poor but happy* will always necessarily imply “Surprisingly Joe is happy in spite of being poor”.<sup>20</sup>

---

<sup>19</sup> Grundy, *Doing Pragmatics.*, 84.

<sup>20</sup> [Http://En.Wikipedia.Org/Wiki/Implicature](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Implicature), accessed on December 13, 2012

## 2. Conversational Implicature

It is derived from a general principle of conversation plus a number of maxims which speaker will normally obey. The general principle is called the *Cooperative Principle* which Grice (1975: 45) presents in the following terms:<sup>21</sup>

“Make your conversational contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged”

Therefore, there are a number of characteristics of conversational implicatures, namely:<sup>22</sup>

- a. Implicatures are not part of the conventional meaning of an expression; rather, they presuppose it;
- b. Calculating a conversational implicature is not a matter of truth conditions: the validity of an implicature is not required by the truth of what is said (which may be true while its implicature (s) may be false); implicatures are not carried by what is said, but only by saying of what is said;
- c. As a consequence of the fact that to calculate implicatures is to calculate what has to be supposed in order to preserve the supposition that the Cooperative principle is being observed, implicatures turn out to be essentially indeterminate in nature: there may in fact be more than one possible explanation for them.

---

<sup>21</sup> Gillian Brown and George Yule, *Discourse Analysis* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1983), 31.

<sup>22</sup> Jef Verschueren and Jan-Ola Ostman, *Key Notions for Pragmatics* (Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company, 2009), 151.

Therefore in Grice's book "Studies in the Way of Words", he states that The presence of a conversational implicature must be capable of being worked out; for even if it can in fact be intuitively grasped, unless the intuition is replaceable by an argument, the implicature (if present at all) will not count as a conversational implicature; it will be a conventional implicature. So he gives several ways to determine whether conversational implicature is present or not by relying on the following points:

1. The conventional meanings of the words used, together with the identity of any references that may be involved;
2. The Cooperative Principle and its maxims;
3. The context, linguistic or otherwise, of the utterance;
4. Other items of background knowledge; and
5. The fact (or supposed fact) that all relevant items falling under the previous headings are available to both participants and both participants know or assume this to be the case.<sup>23</sup>

Moreover the most widely accepted type of implicature is the conversational implicature. According to Grice, it comes in two ways, generalized conversational implicature (GCI) and particularized conversational implicature (PCI). The following example from Levinson in *Mey Concise Encyclopedia of Pragmatics* illustrates this distinction:<sup>24</sup>

---

<sup>23</sup> Paul Grice, *Studies in the Way of Words* (USA: Harvard University Press, 1991), 31.

<sup>24</sup> Mey, *Concise Encyclopedia*, 365



- Context 1      Speaker A: What time is it?  
                   Speaker B: Some of the guests are already leaving.  
                   PCI: 'It must be late.'  
                   GCI: 'Not all of the guests are already leaving.'
- Context 2      Speaker A: Where's John?  
                   Speaker B: Some of the guests are already leaving.  
                   PCI: 'Perhaps John has already left.'  
                   GCI: 'Not all of the guests are already leaving.'

Because the implicature mostly triggered by some arises in both contexts, it is relatively context independent. Based on this phenomenon, it is clearly showed the different between GCI and PCI. Furthermore, GCI are normally consistently associated with certain linguistic forms because it is irrelative with the context of an utterance when they produce. The example by Grice provided, if someone utters "Peter is meeting a woman this evening" generally implicated that the woman is not his wife, close relative, etc because of the indefinite article that used. In contrary, PCI are highly context-dependent, it means that the context has important role in this type of conversational implicature and they are not consistently associated with any linguistic form.<sup>25</sup>

Moreover, it is clearly that both of GCI and PCI is really contrary. For more explanation of the differences among them, it will be presented more below:

---

<sup>25</sup> Ibid.

### a) Generalized Conversational Implicature

When no special knowledge is required in the context to calculate the additional conveyed meaning, it is called a generalized conversational implicature.<sup>26</sup> In addition, Grice in Peter Grundy *Doing Pragmatics* states that generalized conversational implicature arise irrespective of the context in which they occur.<sup>27</sup> Then he gives an example arise as:

“Some people believe in God”

It is always give rise to the generalized conversational implicature no matter what the context. And this clearly implicatures rather than an entailment since it can be denied:

“Some people believe in God {implicature; not all}, *in fact everyone does*”

In this case, the point is not what is relevant way to take the word “some”, but the same inferences (not all) always be drawn whatever the particular context.

In addition, the utterance “*Everybody went to the party.*” logically interpreted means that there was nobody who didn't go to the party or at least, by pragmatical inference, it interpreted that most of the people went.<sup>28</sup>

---

<sup>26</sup> Yule, *Pragmatics.*, 41.

<sup>27</sup> Grundy, *Doing Pragmatics.*, 81.

<sup>28</sup> <http://www.ling.gu.se/~biljana/st1-97/pragmlect3.html>, accessed on December 13, 2012.

Therefore, generalized conversational implicature is independent of the context of the utterance literally said; however it is more associated with certain linguistic forms as illustrate in the examples above.

#### b) Particularized Conversational Implicature

It is specific utterance in a specific situation which may have had completely different interpretation in a different context.<sup>29</sup> Grice define this term in *Studies in the way of words* as cases in which an implicature is carried by saying *p* on a particular occasion in virtue of special features of the context.<sup>30</sup> Furthermore, look at the example by Grundy imagine if someone uttered:

“I’ve got £100 to last me till the end of the month”

This utterance may draw several different inferences depending on the context. The speaker could imply that she wanted to borrow money from you, or that she could lend you money, or that she was a good money manager, etc. these are context-bound, so it called particularized conversational implicature.<sup>31</sup>

The table below is the short resume how to differ between conventional and conversational implicature based on Grice’s theory;

<sup>29</sup> <http://www.ling.gu.se/~biljana/st1-97/pragmlect3.html>, accessed on December 13, 2012.

<sup>30</sup> Grice, *Studies in the Way of Words.*, 37.

<sup>31</sup> Grundy, *Doing Pragmatics.*, 82.

Conventional	Conversational
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Not based on cooperative principle or maxims</li> <li>▪ Encoded in the lexicon or grammar</li> <li>▪ Not dependent on context for their interpretations</li> </ul>	Inferred via the cooperative principle or maxims
	<b>Generalized:</b> Independent of the context
	<b>Particularized:</b> Dependent on a specific context

Also look at this example to distinguish between them:

"I have a friend who is a fanatical Manchester City supporter. As Manchester City live very much in the shadow of their more successful neighbors, Manchester United, and had a very bad run of form in the 1990, he has had to endure a certain amount of ridicule". Imagine he says to me

*"Some Manchester City supporters are actually sane"*

We can distinguish the following kinds of meaning:

- Conventional Implicature deriving from *actually*: it's hard to believe what is predicted of *Some Manchester City supporters*
- Generalized Conversational Implicature deriving from *some*: *not all Manchester City supporters are sane*
- Particularized Conversational implicature: the possibilities include *I'm sane, I'm not the pitiable idiot you think I am, you should admire my loyalty, Manchester City are a good side despite appearances to the contrary.*<sup>32</sup>

<sup>32</sup> Grundy, *Doing Pragmatics.*, 85.

### C. Cooperative principle

Grice formulated a general principle of language use, "The Cooperative Principle":<sup>33</sup>

"Make your conversational contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged"

Grice claimed that in order to achieve the conversational goals participants must assume of each other that they are obeying the following maxims:<sup>34</sup>

- |                 |   |
|-----------------|---|
| <b>Quantity</b> | The quantity of information to be provided <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Make your contribution as informative as is required<br/>(for the current purposes of the exchange)</li> <li>2. Do not make your contribution more informative than is required</li> </ol> |
| <b>Quality</b>  | Try to make your contribution one that is true <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Do not say what you believe to be false</li> <li>2. Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence</li> </ol>  |
| <b>Relation</b> | Be <i>relevant</i>  |
| <b>Manner</b>   | Be <i>perspicuous</i> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Avoid obscurity of expression,</li> <li>2. Avoid ambiguity,</li> <li>3. Be brief (avoid unnecessary prolixity)</li> <li>4. Be orderly</li> </ol>  |

<sup>33</sup> Jan Renkema. *Discourse studies; An Introductory Textbook*, (Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company, 1993), 9.

<sup>34</sup> Grice. *Studies in the Way of Words.*, 26 - 27

#### D. Language of Advertising

Advertising is a business in which language is used to persuade people to do things: to buy a particular product, to watch a certain television show, to donate to a given cause, to engage in a certain practice (such as getting a vaccine or not smoking), to go to some community function, to vote for someone, or to hold certain beliefs (such as that a political philosophy is a good one).<sup>35</sup>

In addition, Advertising is bringing a product (or service) to the attention of potential and current customers. Advertising is focused on one particular product or service. Thus, an advertising plan for one product might be very different than that for another product. Advertising is typically done with signs, brochures, commercials, direct mailings or e-mail messages, personal contact, etc.<sup>36</sup>

Meanwhile, Oxford pocket dictionary give simple definition of advertisement that is notice in a newspaper, on television, etc telling people about a product, job, or services.<sup>37</sup>

In conclusion, advertisement is the form of advertising as business that purposed to promote, persuade and make someone to buy the product or use the service, etc. that being promoted. In addition, it can be formed in a text, image, or audiovisual, etc.

---

<sup>35</sup> Department of Linguistics, *Language Files: Material for An Introduction to Language and Linguistics*, 11<sup>th</sup> edition (California: Ohio State University Press, 2011), 657.

<sup>36</sup> <http://managementhelp.org/marketing/advertising/defined.htm>, accessed on June 10, 2013.

<sup>37</sup> -----, *Oxford Learner's Pocket Dictionary, fourth edition* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2008), 7.

Furthermore, understanding language used in advertising is useful for those who consider careers in marketing and advertisement or for those who may need to hire a marketing company to produce an advertisement. On the other hand, having a basic understanding of the language in advertising is useful to the average consumer as well, as it can help us to discern the ways in which advertisers are trying to communicate with us and to disentangle any informative content than an advertisement may contain from the (often misleading) packaging that it comes in.<sup>38</sup>

Because the purpose of advertising is to get people to think about or react to the product or the company in a certain way, advertising messages must be imaginative, entertaining and rewarding to their audience. Effective advertising message should be meaningful, believable and distinctive.<sup>39</sup>

Moreover, the successful advertisers must do at least three things. *First*, they must establish the trust of their audience so that the audience is compelled to pay attention to the content of the advertisements. *Second*, they must convey some message about what is being advertised. *Finally*, they must convince their audience to act in some way: to buy the target product, to vote for the target politician, or to do whatever else the advertiser has set as the goal.<sup>40</sup>

---

<sup>38</sup> Department of Linguistics, *Language Files: Material for An Introduction to Language and Linguistics*. 11<sup>th</sup> edition (California: Ohio State University Press, 2011), 657.

<sup>39</sup> Nguyen thi hong minh, "A Discourse Analysis of Medicine Advertisements in English and Vietnamese" Summary (Ministry of Education and Training University of Danang, 2011), 9.

<sup>40</sup> Department of Linguistics, *Language File.*, 657.

Furthermore according to William Wells (1995:10-11), characteristics of great ads are as follows:<sup>41</sup>

### 1. Strategy

It's strategically sound, it's carefully directed to a certain audience, it's driven by specific objectives; its message is crafted to speak to that audience's most important concerns, and its run in media that will most effectively reach that audience. The measure of ad's success is how well it achieves its goals, whether they are increased sales, memorability, attitude change or brand awareness.

### 2. Creativity

The creative concept is a central idea that gets your attention and sticks in your memory. A big idea is creative and original. The buying and placing of ads in the media are creative.

### 3. Execution

Every great ad is well executed. That means the craftsmanship is impressive. The details, the techniques, and the production values have all been fine-tuned.

Therefore, the advertisers need to consider the points above to create good advertisement which high quality and meaningful, also the important point can attract the consumers to buy the product promoted.

---

<sup>41</sup> Siti Aisah, "A Discourse Analysis on the Reference Found in the Advertisements Published in *Jakarta Pos*". Skripsi. (Malang: The State Islamic University of Malang, 2008), 27.



### a. Types of Advertising

There are several types of advertising based on their scope, namely, standard advertising, public advertising, social responsibility advertising, counter-advertising, corrective advertising, advocacy advertising, image advertising and municipal advertising.<sup>42</sup> The more explanations are as follow:

#### 1. Standard Advertising

Standard advertising appear in all media and are financed by the company or organization that has products to sell and to create in the costumer a feeling of need and desire for a product or service.

#### 2. Public Service Advertising

It supports nonprofit causes and organization. Time or space for this type of advertising is provided free as a service to the public by the print or broadcast media.

#### 3. Social Responsibility Advertising

It is simply advertisement that admonishes us to act responsibility, such us; the safe-driving and Responsible alcohol consumption advertising.

#### 4. Counter-Advertising

It concentrates on warning consumers about alleged fraud or misrepresentation in advertising. Some familiar counter-advertising is

---

<sup>42</sup> John R. Bittner, *Mass Communication, An Introduction, fourth edition* (USA : Prentice-Hall, 1986), 227.

those that warn against abusive collection practices by credit agencies, the dangers of air and water pollution and cigarette smoking.

#### 5. Corrective Advertising

It is employed when enforcement has misinterpreted a product or service. Moreover, "Super bloopers make your feet run faster," "The vitamin cures all ill," "Thirst-quench has better nutrients than any other drink," exaggerated claims such as these are prime targets for corrective advertising, which are attempts, usually instigated by regulatory orders, to correct false or misleading advertising.

#### 6. Advocacy Advertising

Advocacy advertising champions preventive action against conditions affecting the public welfare. In most cases it is sponsored and paid for by an organization that wants to be associated with community involvement. Some examples of advocacy advertising, they are: advertising raising our awareness of heroin addiction, the rising crime rate, and impoverished conditions in the ghetto.

#### 7. Image Advertising

It is a term primarily applied to messages sponsored by corporations to improve their corporate images. For example, oil companies may go to great lengths to show how they are working to protect or reclaim the environment during drilling and exploration.

## 8. Municipal Advertising

It refers to the promotion of municipalities as attractive places to live and work. Municipal advertising is important for attracting everything from tourist to new businesses. This advertising appeared in a publication for convention planners.

### E. Magazine

Oxford Dictionary defined magazine as weekly or monthly paper-covered publication with articles, stories, etc. In addition, it is a type of thin book with a paper cover that contains stories, essay, picture, etc and that is usually published every week or month.<sup>43</sup>

Moreover, there are four types of magazines and each of those has characteristics that will be presented below; as John R. Bittner stated that magazines are of four principle types, *farm, business, consumer, and religious*. Each has subcategories.<sup>44</sup>

#### 1. Farm Magazines

It consists mainly of state and vocational publications. *State* publications are directed toward a particular geographic area, such as Montana Farmer-Stockman and the Pennsylvania Farmer. On the other hand, Vocational publication, are directed toward a particular type of farmer and include such as magazines as the citrus and vegetables magazine and dairy herd managements of beef.

---

<sup>43</sup> <http://www.learnersdictionary.com/search/magazine>, accessed on 11 June, 2013.

<sup>44</sup> Bittner, *Mass Communication*, 69.

## 2. Business magazines

It included *Professional magazines* such as those pertaining to law, medicine, or education. Then, *trade magazines* for specific Business, such as the Hardware Retailer and Today's Office. Therefore the last subcategories of business magazines is *industrial publications*, of course it edited for specific industries, they can include magazines directed to specific processes, for example, manufacturing or communication.

## 3. Consumer Magazines

In this case, there are subtypes of consumer magazine there are *specialized* and *general*. Therefore, if it directed at audiences with an interest in a special area, such as *Sailing* or *Model Railroader*, it called *specialized magazines*. In other side, *General magazines* are directed to people with more varied interest.

## 4. Religious Magazines

For this type has varieties based on specific religious denominations. Typical religious publications include *The Catholic Voice*, *The Jewish News*, *The Episcopalian*, *The Lutheran*, and many more regional publications that deal with specific denominations within a city.

In this study focused on analyze Reader's Digest as family Magazine. Reader's Digest is a general interest family magazine, published monthly. Formerly based in Chappaqua, New York, its headquarters is now in New York City. It was founded in 1922, by DeWitt Wallace and Lila Bell Wallace. For many years, *Reader's Digest* was the best-selling consumer magazine in the United States, losing the distinction in 2009 to *Better Homes and Gardens*.<sup>45</sup> Besides, it is one of good magazine recommended in many countries which is classified as Top 20 U.S. Magazines by circulation in 2008, Reader's Digest stay in second rank with 8, 30 percent consumers, about 8 million.<sup>46</sup>

---

<sup>45</sup> [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Reader%27s\\_Digest](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Reader%27s_Digest), accessed on January 8, 2013

<sup>46</sup> Stanley J. Baran, *Introduction to Mass Communication: Media Literacy and Culture*. (New York: Mc Graw-Hill, 2012), 124.