

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter covers the explanation of the related literature that supports this study. It also contains the descriptions of pragmatics, Grice's cooperative principle, Implicature, Conversational Implicature types based on Grice and Functions of Conversational Implicature based on Halliday theory. At this chapter also will starts with a review of pragmatics, implicature and its type and the example of each type of implicature.

A. Pragmatics

Pragmatics is one of science that concerned with the study of meaning as communicated by a speaker or *writer* and interpreted by a listener or *reader*. This type of research necessarily involves the interpretation of what people mean in particular context and how the context influences what is said. It requires a consideration of how speakers organized what they want to say with whom they are talking to, where, when and under what purpose. Pragmatics is related to the context of the society in using their language in communication.¹⁷

It is a study of contextual meaning which is analyzes the interpretation of what people mean in particular context and how the context influences what is

¹⁷ Mey, L. J, Pragmatics: An Introduction. (Australia: Blackwell Publishing, 2001), 24.

said. So that, from some of these descriptions the researcher is capable of summing up that pragmatics is one of the studies about meaning in language process that used to communicate between societies. It makes the hearer are able to inferences in understanding or interpret what the speaker intend. Related to these rules, it can be said that conversation needs more contributions to interpreting each utterance between speaker and hearer to create suitable communication. To achieve a smooth and fluent communication, the speaker has to obey the Grice's cooperative principle as the rule of communication.¹⁸

B. Grice's Co-operative Principle

Brown and Yule clarified that conversational implicature is derived from a general principle of conversation plus a number of maxims: which speakers will normally obey. In addition, an underlying assumption in most conversational exchange seems to be that the participants are co-operating each other. The general principle is called the cooperative principle which Grice in Brown and Yule mentioned in the following terms:

“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”.¹⁹

Grice divides cooperative principle into four basic maxims which are support these principles are as follows:

¹⁸ George Yule. Pragmatics, 112.

¹⁹Brown, G., & Yule, G, Discourse Analysis. (Cambridge: Cambridge University Pres, 1993),

1. Quantity : make your contribution as informative as required, not more or less informative than required for the purposes of the ongoing discourse.
2. Quality : seek to say that which you know to be true, and do not say that which you know to be false or which you lack adequate evidence.
3. Relevance : be relevant.
4. Manner : make your distribution clear, and intelligible, brief, orderly and not ambiguous.

Of course, it is known that people do not follow all these normative maxims all of the time, but if the norm's were not norms, there would be no concept of lying, telling half-truths, evading the issues, being deliberately obscure.²⁰

In most situations, the assumption of cooperative is so pervasive that it can be stated as a cooperative principle of conversation and elaborated in four sub-principles, called maxims. The cooperative principle is a principle of conversation stating that participants expect that each will make a “conversational contribution such as is required, at the stage in which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange”. Violating

²⁰ Grice, p. 7-26

cooperative principle usually happened in daily communication to create favorable conversation, it is called implicature.²¹

C. Implicature

The word implicature is derived from the verb ‘to imply’, as is its cognate ‘implication’. Originally, ‘to imply’ means ‘to fold something into something else’ (that which implied is ‘folded in’ and has to be ‘unfolded’ in order to be understood.²² See example below:

(1a) *Alan: are you going to Paul’s party?*

(1b) *Alice: I have to work.*

Alice’s answer above implicated that she is not going. Alice’s answer here is an implicature. The differences between saying and implicating affects whether meaning something one does not believe is a lie. If Alice knew she did not have to work, then she was lying in dialogue. If she knew she was going to Paul’s party, she might be guilty of misleading Alan, but not of lying. This sample of implicature is said to be conversational. Implicature is not part of the conversational context. A key feature was the question Alan asked. Had he asked *What are you going to do today?*, Alice could have implicated something completely different-I am going to work- by saying the same thing. One other contrasted side of a conversational implicature is a conventional implicature, by

²¹Stephen Levinson, *Pragmatics* (USA: Cambridge University Press, 1983), 9

²²Mey, L. J. *Pragmatics*, 45.

which the meant one that is part of the meaning of the sentence used in second example.

(2a) He is an Englishman; he is, therefore, brave.

(2b) He is being an Englishman implies that he is brave.

Here, the speakers who use (2a) implicate (2b). they imply but do not say, that his being Englishman that he is brave. Hence the use of (2a) while disbelieving (2b) would be misleading, but not a lie. Alice's sentences in (1) can be used with its conventional meaning without implicating what she did. But (2a) cannot be used with its conventional implicating (2b).²³ The meaning of therefore carries this implicature. As above example clear described, it is not possible to understand speakers fully without knowing what they have conversationally implicated as well as what they have said.

Based on Grice (in Michael: 2015) Implicature is divided into two categories those are conventional and conversational implicature.²⁴ But this study will only focus on the conversational implicature which talks about implied meaning which out of the context of the utterance.

²³ Mey, L. J. Pragmatics

²⁴ Michael Haugh, "Mouton Series in Pragmatics: Im/Politeness Implicature". (Germany: Library of Congress Cataloging, 2015), 52.

D. Conversational Implicature

Anthony stated that conversation is one of the most prevalent uses of human language. All human beings engage in conversational interaction and human society depends on conversation in order to function:

Social interaction is the primordial means through which the business of the social world is transacted, the identities of its participants are affirmed or denied, and its cultures are transmitted, renewed and modified.²⁵

Mostly people exchange meaning and their intention in their communication. They express their ideas and feeling. They do that way to get information from their surroundings. They need communication to interact with other people in their social life. Put in other words, they do conversational interaction, they provide meaning. There are two ways in expressing meaning, explicitly or implicitly. Expressing meaning explicitly means that the actual conversation is stated. While expressing meaning implicitly means that there are more hidden meaning in that conversation. In this case, the conversation which carries meaning more than what is stated in the speaker's utterance. It is what is called by "implicature".²⁶

²⁵ C. Goodwin and Heritage, Annual Rev: Conversation Analysis. 1990: 283.

²⁶ Saragi, Y. M. (2011). *Flouting Maxims in Conversational Implicatures in the Ellen Degenerates Talk Show*. State University of Surabaya, Surabaya

Conversational implicature itself refers to the implications that can be deduced from the form of an utterance, on the basis of certain cooperative principles which efficiency and normal acceptability of conversations, for example “*there’s some chalks on the floor*” is taken mean you ought to pick it up.

We can represent the structure of what was said, with b (=attend the meeting) and c (= sign the agreement). Using the symbol +> for an implicature, we can also represent the additionally conveyed meaning.

A: b and C ?

B: b (+> not c)

The discussion of implicature is in pragmatic study. The conversational implicature is the single most important indeed in pragmatics.²⁷ It is implication or proportion in conversation which appears because of violating the conversational principle in which the speaker’s intention is expressed differently in the speaker’s actual utterance.

Conversational implicature triggered by “certain general features of discourse” rather than by the conventional meaning of a specific word.²⁸ Grice also stated some features as follow: (1) linguistic exchanges)conversation) are governed by cooperative principle, in the detailed context of Grice’s maxims and

²⁷ Levinson, Pragmatics, 97.

²⁸ Grice, Pragmatics, 43.

its sub-maxims, (2) when one of the participants of conversation is not following the cooperative principle, then the hearer will assume that the speaker seems contrary to appearances, the principle have to observe deeply.

Based on Grice, distinctly, there are two types of conversational implicature those are generalized conversational implicature and particularized conversational implicature which figured below:

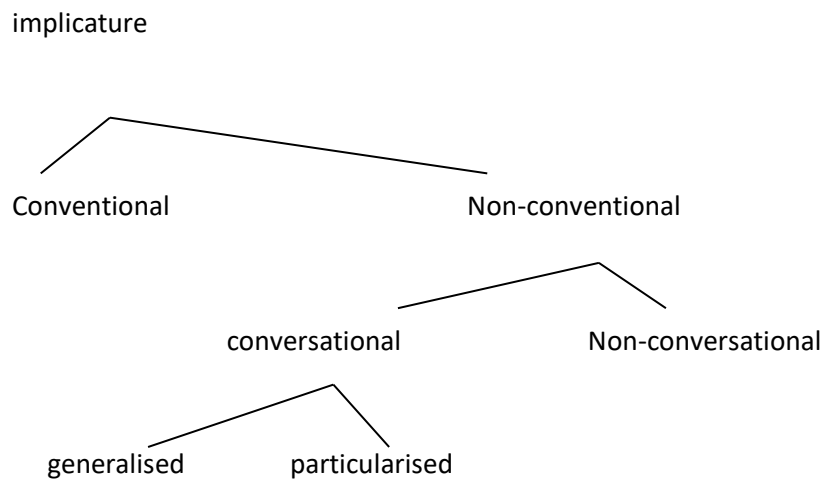


Figure 2: types of Gricean implicature (Levinson 1983: 131; cf. Birner 2013: 99)²⁹

²⁹ Michael .H, *Im/Politeness Implicature*, P. 47

E. Functions

At this part, the writer would use function of language based on Halliday (1973:27) in identified the function that uttered from conversational implicature at the *Axe Files* interview.

Here, Michael Halliday stated there are 7 functions:

1. Instrumental

The instrumental functions serve to manipulate the environment, to cause certain events to happen. Sentences like “This court finds you guilty,” “Oh your mark, get set, go!” or “Don’t touch the stove” have an instrumental function: they are communicative acts that have specific per locutionary force, they bring about a particular condition.

2. Regulatory

The regulatory function of language is the control of events. While such control is sometimes difficult to distinguish from the instrumental function, regulatory functions of language are not so much the “unleashing” of certain power as the maintenance of control. “I pronounce you guilty and sentence you to three years in prison” serve an instrumental function, but the sentence “Upon good behavior, you will be eligible for parole in 10 months” serve more of a regulatory function, The regulations of encounters among people –

approval, disapproval, behavior control, setting laws and rules _ are all regulatory features of language.

3. Personal

The personal function allows the speaker to express feelings, emotions, personality, “gut-level” reactions. A person’s individuality is usually characterized by his or her use of the personal function of communication. In the personal nature of language, cognition, affect, and culture all interact.

4. Interactional

The interactional function of language serves to ensure social maintenance. “Phatic communion,” Malinowski’s term referring to the communicative contact between and among human beings that simply allows them to establish social contact and to keep channels of communication open, is part of the interactional function of language. Successful interactional communication requires knowledge of slang, jargon, jokes, folklore, cultural mores, politeness and formality expectations, and other keys to social exchange.

5. Heuristic

The heuristic function involves language used to acquire knowledge, to learn about the environment. Heuristic functions are often conveyed in the form of questions that will lead to answers. Children typically make good use of the heuristic function in their

incessant “why” questions about the world around them. Inquiry is a heuristic method of eliciting representations of reality from others.

6. Representational

Representational function is the use of language to make statements, convey facts and knowledge, explain, or report – that is, to “represent” reality as one sees it. “The sun is hot.” “The president gave a speech last night,” or even “The world is flat” all serve representational functions, although the last representation may be highly disputed.

7. Imaginative

The imaginative function of language is used to create one’s own world or environment.³⁰

By listing those functions, it helps the researcher to analyze the data. In this case, the example of each topic has same proportion example data to this research. Thus, it can comprehend the process of finding data. That theory also will be applied in the Axe Files interview.

³⁰ Halliday, M. A. K. 1973. *Explorations in the Functions of Language*. . p. 103-143.

F. Talk Show

According to Ilie, talk show as a setting for conversational interaction is similar to the Italian academy in the sixteenth century, the French salon in the seventeenth century and the English coffee-house in the eighteenth century. She supports this view by the idea that “talk shows can be regarded as a particular kind of face-to-face conversation”.³¹ This face-to-face conversation, then, is characterized by it takes in a specific sociocultural setting, as was the case in the academy, salon, and coffee-house. The talk shows further shares with these its sense of being live. The television talk show is a live medium. Scannell notes that “although today many programs are prerecorded, they are recorded in such a way to preserve the effect of liveness”. He further argues that “the liveness of broadcasting is a pervasive effect of the medium”. According to Scannell, broadcast talk is “intentionally communicative”. Therefore, “all talk on radio and TV is public discourse, is meant to be accessible to the audience for whom it is intended”. Scannell’s insights on present-day broadcasting may account for Ile’s claim that talk shows bear traits of previous public forms of interaction.

The talk show itself is a product of the twentieth century. The broadcasting landscape in Britain moved from authoritarian to more populist and democratic in. The talk show went through a similar development. Notes that talk

³¹ Janne Carnel, *Aspects of Talk Show Interaction: The Jonathan Ross Show and The Tonight Show with Jay Leno*, Ghent University: Faculty of Arts and Philosophy English Linguistics Department, (2011). P.25

show developed from a chat between the host and a celebrity to a show where there was more room for audience discussion.³²

G. Previous Studies

There are many researchers conducting this research, some of them are: The first, is Nadya Alfi Fauziyah 2016. Her published research is titled “Conversational Implicature On The Chew Talk Show ”, concentrating on finding answers to : (1) what types of conversational implicature are found on *The Chew* talk show? (2) what functions of conversational implicature are found on the conversation of *The Chew* talk show?³³

The second published research is titled “Conversational Implicature In Sentilan Sentilun Talk Show On Metro Tv” which concentrating on finding answers to : (1) the maxim that used by Ngoro Sentilan and Sentilun also the guest; (2) the meaning that delivered by Ngoro Sentilan and Sentilun also the guest.³⁴

According those previous studies before: Conversational Implicature in the Chew Talk Show and Conversational Implicature in Sentilan Sentilun Talk Show on Metro Tv, which both of them have similarity in their vision to find

³²Ille, C. (2001). *Semi-Institutional Discourse: The case of talk show*. Stockholm, Sweden: Elsevier.

³³Nadya A. F. (2016). *Conversational Implicature On The Chew Talk Show*. Maulana Malik Ibrahim State Islamic University, Malang

³⁴Arifah, R, *A Study of Conversational Implicature in Sentilan Sentilun Talk Show on Metro TV*. (Surabaya: University of Wijaya Putra, 2014), 4.

out the use of conversational implicature that also would be discussed at the following chapter.