

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

In this chapter, the writer deals with the theories that he used to analyze the data. The writer also discusses the previous studies done by other researchers in the review of related studies.

2.1 Language variation

Following Hudson (1980, pp. 21-24), every community or ethnic group is unique in their language although they use the same language but live in different region. They use different pronunciation, grammar, or word choice within a language when they construct sentences in daily conversation. These variations on language use by the same ethnic group but live in different regions are called language variation. When Lisa want Andy to buy popcorn for her in Jakarta, she will say '*An beliin gue popcorn dong*'. While in Surabaya, when Yulia want Budi to buy popcorn for her, she will say '*Bud belikno aku popcorn*'. Variation in a language may be related to social class and/ or educational background or to degree of formality of a situation in which language is used.

2.2 Regional and social dialect

Regional dialect is variation in a language (features of pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar), which differs according to the geographical area the speakers come from. For example, words which are collected from regional dialect of British English: snowblossom means snowflake (Somerset) and an effet means newt (south east). While social dialects are features of pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar according to the social group of the speakers. A range of features, such as

education, occupation, residential area, and income level, usually determines social group. So people who come from different social groups speak different social dialect if they use different words, pronunciations, and grammatical features. For example, Standard English is a social dialect because it is the dialect used by well-educated English speakers throughout the world.

2.3 Register

The language of airline pilots, students, criminals, and politicians are examples of different language variations. So, the language of groups of people with common interests or job, or the language used in situations associated with such groups is called register.

2.4 Social factor/ Social dimension

Sometimes we say something to other people with different ways although we say the same thing. For example: Good morning, sir/ma'am when students meet his or her teacher at school. Morning, Pat, when students meet his or her friends in the cafeteria. Following Holmes (1992, pp 3-18), the reasons why people say the same thing in different ways are

- 1 The participants are the persons who are involved in a conversation. When Vania talks with Edwin in a conversation about movies, then Vania and Edwin are the participants.
- 2 The setting or social context of the interaction is the place where the conversation takes place. When Vania and Edwin talk about movie in a cafe, then cafe is the

setting of the conversation.

3. The topic is the problem being talked by the speakers or participants. When Vania and Edwin talks about movie then movie is the topic of the conversation.
- 4 The function is the reason from the speakers to make the conversation. When Vania and Edwin make a conversation to maintain their friendship then it is the reason why they make the conversation.

Social dimension

In addition to those components it is useful to take account of four different dimensions for analysis, which relate to the factors above. According to Holmes (1992, pp. 3-18) the four dimensions are:

- 1 **A** social distance scale concerned with participant relationship based on solidarity. Because the way people talked to other people who have close relationship is different from the way people talked to other people who have distant relationship. The way Garry greet Andy his close friend with 'Hey man what's up' is different from the way Garry greet Greg his friend with 'Greg, how do you do?'
2. **A** status scale concerned with participant relationship based on social class. When Kay meets his principal then he greets 'good afternoon sir' because the school principal was of higher status and entitled to a respect term

Example from Holmes, 1992 pp 3-18

Sam: You seen our 'enry's new 'ouse yet? It's in 'alton you know.

Jim. I have indeed I could hardly miss it Sam Your Henry now owns the

biggest house in Halton

Sam's dropping in the example from Holmes reflected his lower social group status in the society as a whole, while the educationally and occupationally higher status Jim dropped none.

- 3 A formality scale concerned with language choice based on the setting or type of interaction. When Garry meets his aunt as her teacher in school, he greets 'good morning ma'am while he meets his aunty after school, he greets 'hello aunt'.
- 4 Two functional scales concerned with language in its social context in different speech communities and the ways in which language reflects its users and the uses they put it to In Ray's utterance 'Yeah, that bastard Sootbucket kept us in again' simultaneously expresses both information about why he is late, while also conveying his feelings about the teacher referred to

2.5. Language function

According to Bolinger (1980, pp 326-380) people used to communicate ideas, to express attitudes, to express a certain mode of experience in a certain way, the purpose for which an utterance or unit of language is used. In language teaching, language functions are often described as categories of behaviour for example, request, apologies, etc. The functional uses of language cannot be determined simply by studying the grammatical structure of sentences

2.6. Opening expressions

According to Coulthard (1958, pp 88-92), opening expressions occur at the very beginning of a conversation and cannot be done anywhere else in the

conversation. For example, “Good morning, how do you do, Sam?” They allow all the speakers a turn right at the beginning of the conversation. There are two major types of occasion on which a conversation does not open with an opening. They are:

1. Conversations between people who do not consider themselves co-conversationalist, for example strangers. They are not on opening terms and therefore do not exchange an opening. The speaker who opens must demonstrate in his first utterance why he is beginning the conversation:

Excuse me. Can you tell me the way to Sheraton Hotel? or:

Hey you've dropped your book.

2. Conversations, which typically do not open with an opening expression, are telephone conversation. Schegloff (1968) argues that although the person who answers the telephone may say ‘hello’ this is not an opening, it is an answer to the summons from the caller embodied in the ringing of the telephone. Following this indication that the channel is open there is often an openings sequence to begin the conversation proper, although sometimes, if the answerer simply answers with ‘hello’, there is first a checking sequence to make sure the caller is talking to the right person

<i>Summons.</i>	Telephone rings
<i>Answer</i>	A Hello.
<i>Opening</i>	B: Good morning.
<i>sequence</i>	{ A. Oh hi

2.7 Closing expressions

Following Coulthard (1958, pp 88-92), closing expressions are expression, which can only occur when a topic has been ended, and the other speaker

has agreed not to introduce any new topic. For example, “goodbye”, “goodnight”, “see you”, and so on.

2.8. Pronouns

According to Francis (1958, pp 244-246), the eight pronouns are *I*, *we*, *you*, *he*, *she*, *it*, *they* and *who*. All of them have inflectional variants, but they do not have the {-es} plural and the {’s} possessive characteristic of most other nouns. Instead they have forms, which are commonly called the objective (or accusative) and the first and second possessive. Only three of them – *I*, *we* and *they* – have four distinct forms; of the rest, *you*, *he*, *she* and *who* have three forms, variously distributed, and *it* has two. But the three with four forms establish a paradigm in which the others are included (See table on p 12)

From the table it can be seen that *you* and *it* both double as subjective and objective forms, *her* as objective and first possessive, and *his*, *its* and *whose* as first and second possessive. Many speakers also use *who* as both subjective and objective form. All these pronouns except *who* are frequently classed as personal pronouns, a distinction borrowed from the grammar of other languages that have other groups of different classes of pronouns. They are also often classified by person; thus, *I* and *we*, denoting or including the speaker, are called first person; *thou* and *you*, denoting or including the person spoken to and excluding the speaker, are called second person; *he*, *she*, *it*, *they*, excluding both speaker and person spoken to, are called third person.

Subjective	Objective	Possessive	Possessive
I	me	my	mine
we	us	our	ours
you		your	yours
he	him		his
she		her	hers
it			its
they	them	their	theirs
Who	Who(m)		Whose

Table 1: Pronouns

2.9 Indonesian variation

According to Alwi (1988, pp. 249-260), Pronouns are words that are used to address someone or something in a conversation. The use of pronouns are different in each conversation depends on the speaker, the hearer, or whom they are talking about.

‘There are 3 kinds of pronouns in Indonesian:

- 1 Personal pronouns
- 2 Pointing pronouns
3. Question pronouns.

Personal pronouns

Personal pronouns are pronouns that are used to address persons in conversations. Personal pronouns are used to address the speaker as first person, the hearer as second person and a person being talked as third person. Some of the pronouns are singular, plural, exclusive, inclusive and neutral. Most of the pronouns have more than one form because in Indonesian culture is concerned with social

relationship. A manner in Indonesian society needs a rule, which is harmony, and suitable with the dignity so there are 3 parameters to scale the relationship: age, social status, and solidarity

The Personal pronouns can be seen through the table below

Personal	Meaning
	Singular
Pertama	saya,aku,aku Ku-.-ku
Kedua	engkau,kamu Anda,dikau, Kau-,-mu
Ketiga	Ia,dia,beliau, -nya

Table 2 Indonesian Personal pronouns

There is a lot of variation in Indonesian language and culture, so there are other forms that are used to address persons in conversation as a speaker (first person), hearer (second person), and third person in different regions. There are four factors that influence the use of other forms to address other people in different regions and the four factors are geographical place, local language, social environment and culture

Tone is a term used in Phonology to refer to the distinctive pitch level of a syllable. In many languages, the tone carried by a word is an essential feature of the meaning of that word (lexical tone). e.g. in Peking Mandarin Chinese the word *ma* when pronounced in a level tone means ‘mother’, and in a fallingrising tone means ‘horse’. Many languages of South East Asia and Africa are tone languages, illustrating several types of tonal organization. In such languages, sequences of

adjacent tones may influence each other phonetically, e.g. a word which in isolation would have a low tone may be given a higher tone if a high tone word follows.

REVIEW OF RELATED STUDIES

In this review of related studies, the writer explains a research about Indonesian spoken language written by Serly as her thesis in 1997 with the topic of the study of personal pronoun used by the Chinese Descendants in speaking “*Bahasa Cina Peranakan*” in Surabaya. This study is about personal pronouns used by Surabaya Chinese descents in the daily conversation.

She found out in her research that the Surabaya Chinese descents usually used the informal or neutral forms of Indonesian personal pronouns, and the Javanese personal pronouns. For example, *aku*, *kamu*, *kon*, *awake*, *awakmu*, *dheke* and Chinese personal pronouns that are elu, lu- ‘you’ when they talk to the younger, the same age, and the older addressees who have close relationships among them as well as the older addressees of lower social status in the informal situation.

They used the personal pronouns of first person –*ku*, *tak*- for ‘I’ and the possessive personal pronouns of first person –*ku* for ‘my’ to talk to all addressees who have close social relationship with them and the older addressees of lower status who have distant social relationship. They used the personal pronouns of second person *kamu*, *elu*, *koen*, *kon* for ‘you’ and the possessive personal pronouns of second person –*mu*, *lu* for ‘your’ to talk to the younger and the same age addressees. However, they rarely used the personal pronouns of second person to address the older addressees, instead they used the terms of address. They used the personal

pronoun of third person *dheke* for 'she/he' to refer to another person and the possessive personal pronouns of third person *-e*, *-ne* 'her/his' when they talked to all addressees who have close social relationships and the older addressees of lower status who have distant social relationship

The Indonesian personal pronouns that are used by them in talking to the older addressees of higher social status who have distant social status in the informal situation are the first person of personal pronoun *saya* for 'I' the personal pronoun of third person *dia* 'she/he', the possessive personal pronoun *saya* for 'my', *-nya* for 'her/his' They do not use the personal pronouns of second person to address these older addressees; instead they use other terms of address.

This study contributes an idea to the writer to make a study about openings, closings and the use of addressing terms in Jakarta and Surabaya.