

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

In this chapter, the researcher discusses some of literatures related to the content of the research.

A. The Concept of Language

Language is a system of communication and it is very useful to compare it with other system of communication. For instance, human communicate not just through language, but through such means a gesture, art, dress, and music. The study of communication system has its origins in semiotics. According to Saussure in Charles (2009: 41), meaning in semiotic system is expressed by signs, which have a particular form, called a signifier, and some meaning that the signifier conveys, called the signified.

In Charles Darwin's vision of the origins of language, early humans had already developed musical ability prior to language and were using it "to charm each other." This may not match the typical image that most of us have of our early ancestors as rather rough characters wearing animal skins not very charming, but it is an interesting speculation about how language may have originated. It remains, however, a speculation (Yule, 2010: 1).

The study of language is conducted within the field of linguistic. Contrary to popular belief, linguists are not necessarily polyglots-individuals fluent in many languages. Instead, their primary interest is the

scientific study of language. Like a biologist studying the structure of cells, a linguist studies the structure of language: how speaker create meaning through combination of sounds, words and sentences that ultimately result in text- extended stretches of language (e.g. a conversation between friends, a speech, an article 8 in a newspaper). Every language has structure it, can be described, as Leech (1983: 21-4) notes, by postulating in Charles:

- (1) Rules governing the pronunciation of sounds; the ways that words are put together; the manner in which phrases, clauses, and sentences are structured; and, ultimately, the ways that meaning is created. Rules of grammar operate at various levels: phonetics/phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics.
- (2) Principles stipulating how the structures that rules create should be used (e.g. which forms will be polite in which contexts, which forms will not).

B. Discourse

Discourse studies are the discipline devote to investigation of the relationship between forms and function verbal communication. The aim of discourse studies to provide an explanatory design (Renkema, 1993:1).

A discourse is an instance of spoken or written language that has described internal relationship of form and meaning (e.g. word, structures, and cohesion) that relate coherently to an external communicative function or purpose and a given audience/ interlocutor. Furthermore, the external

function or purpose can only be properly determined if one takes into account the context and participants in which the piece of discourse (Murcia, 2000:4).

Language teaching has divided discourse into two major categories, the spoken and the written, furthermore divide into the four skills of speaking, listening, writing and reading. In written discourse we expect them to be coherence, meaningful communication in which the words or sentences are linked or another in a fashion that correspond to conventional formulate, just as we do with speech (McCarthy, 1991:12). Therefore, in order to get in term “communicative” we have concerned with textuality of text.

Discourse analysis is a field of study which is concerned with how discourse is presented. Discourse analysis, the study of the relationship between language and its context fuse, is a case in point (McCarthy, 2001:36).

The analysis of discourse is, necessarily, the analysis of language in use. As such, it cannot be restricted to the description of linguistic forms independent of the purposes or functions which those forms are designed to serve in human affairs (Brown and Yule, 1983:1).

Expressed more generally, this means that discourse analysis must be concerned with ways in which information is selected, formulated and conveyed between speakers or alternatively assumed to be known and shared as knowledge, taken for granted and not selected at all. It is

therefore concerned, not just with whether statements are true or false but with states of information and differential access to information.

Moreover, Brown and Yule (1983:27) in their book explain about discourse analyst:

Discourse analyst is investigating the use of language in context by a speaker / writer; he is more concerned with the relationship between the speaker and utterance, on the particular occasion of use, than with the potential relationship of one sentence to another, regardless of their use.

Yule (1985:104) gives addition about discourse analysis:

..... when we carry this investigation further and ask how it is that we, as language-users, make sense of what we read in texts, understand what speakers mean despite what they say, recognize connected as opposed to jumbled or incoherent discourse, and successfully take part in that complex activity called conversation, we are undertaking what is known as discourse analysis.

“Discourse analysis is minimally the study of language in use that extends beyond sentences boundaries” (Murcia and Marianne, 2000:4)

In summarize, discourse analysis is the study which concerning at how sentences are build up and as discourse analyst we can tell about contextualize and grammatical items.

C. Coherence

Coherence is the connection between/among sentences/utterances within a discourse because of non-linguistic factors. The hearer base his/her interpretation of the speaker’s intended meaning on the assumption

of coherence, the principle of analogy, local interpretation and general features of context. The assumption of coherence will only produce one particular interpretation in which the elements of the message are seen to be connected.

We have isolated three aspects of the process of interpreting a speaker's intended meaning in producing discourse. These involve computing the communicative function (how to take the message), using general socio cultural knowledge (facts about the world) and determining the inferences to be made (Brown and Yule, 1983:225).

D. Language Function

If we are to explain such interpretation we will need more than our list of cohesive devices. One way of doing this is to look behind the literal, formal meaning of what is said or written, and to consider what the sender of a message intends to achieve with it, to try to understand its *function*. People are interpreting other people's language and expecting other people to interpret their own in this way all the time, apparently with a surprising degree of accuracy.

In order to discover how such inferences are made, we will need firstly to examine the range of possible functions of language, and secondly to try to understand how people correctly interpret them. Understanding this connection between the form and the function of language will help us to explain how stretches of language, like the request of help us as language teachers. We cannot assume that these interpretations will be made in the same way in all cultures and in all

languages, so understanding how interpretation proceeds in the culture of the language we are teaching is crucial if we are to help foreign learners to make their words function in the way that they intend.

From now on, we shall use term utterance for a unit of language used by somebody in context to do something to communicate and reserve sentence for grammatically complete units regarded purely formally, in isolation from their context and their function.

Specialist in linguistics sometimes claim that if non-specialist are asked what the function of language is, they will reply that it is to send information or to tell other people your thoughts. People are not as simplistic as this; even a moment's reflection leads to the conclusion that language has many more functions.

Nevertheless it is true, in the adult and public world at least, that this function which language has of transmitting information, its referential function, is considered the most important. To abuse it, by sending false information, is usually regarded wrong and can in certain circumstances, incur the punishment of imprisonment or a fine. Yet it is by no means the only, or the first, function of language in human life.

In the world of the infant and parent, the referential function of language often takes a subordinate role to others. There is little the four year old child can tell his or her parents that they don't know already, for they share the child's world almost entirely. The same is true in other intimate relationships. Some conversations of couples, whether

affectionate or belligerent, have scant informational content. And even in the wider social world of adult intercourse, language clearly has many more functions than simply sending information.

Sometimes, there have been conflicting attempts to classify the main functions of language (macro functions). One of the clearest and most influential was formulated by the linguist Roman Jakobson (1960), and further developed by Dell Hymes (1962). The scheme proceeds by first identifying the elements of communication, as follows:

- a. *The addresser*: the person who originates the message. This is usually the same as the person who is sending the message, but not always as in the case of messengers, spokes people and town criers. Addresser is the person creates the messages. Sometimes, this person is called the sender, the writer or the speaker. (Nurul Chojimah, 2015: 16)
- b. *The addressee*: the person to whom the message is addressed. This is usually the person who receives the message, but not necessarily so as in the case of intercepted letters, bugged telephone calls and eavesdropping. Addressee is the person to whom the messages are addressed or sent. This person can also be called the hearer and reader (Nurul Chojimah, 2015: 16).
- c. *The channel*: the medium through which the message travels; sound waves, marks on paper, telephone wires, word processor screens.

- d. *The message form*: the particular grammatical and lexical choices of the message.
- e. *The topic*: the information carried in the message.
- f. *The code*: the language or dialect, for example Swedish, Yorkshire English, Semaphore, British Sign Language, Japanese.
- g. *The setting*: the social or physical context.

Macro-functions (language functions) are then established, each focusing attention upon one element, it can be showed by knowing the addresser and addressee.

. According to Cook (1989: 26), the function of language can be divided into seven functions, they are:

1. *The emotive function*

Emotive function is communicating the inner states and emotions of the addresser ('Oh no!', 'Fantastic!', 'Ugh!', and swear words used as exclamations)

2. *The directive function*

Directive function is seeking to affect the behavior of the addressee ('Please help me!', 'Shut up!', 'I'm warning you!').

And Chojimah (2015: 16) states that directive function is language might be used to direct others to do something.

Example: 'Please open the window', 'Do this homework as seriously as possible'.

3. *The phatic function*: opening the channel or checking that it is working, either for social reasons ('Hello', 'Lovely weather', 'Do you come here often?') or for practical ones ('Can you hear me?', 'Are you still there?', 'Can you read my writing?').
4. *The poetic function*: in which the particular form chosen is the essence of the message (the advertising slogan BEANZ MEANZ HEINZ) would lose its point if it paraphrased as 'If you are buying beans, you will naturally buy Heinz'). Chojimah (2015: 16) also states that language is a medium to express feeling, interest, attitudes, and many others in the form of poetry. Like: *Fresh Outside, Healthy Inside*.
5. *The referential function*: carrying information ('Mubarak was toppled down by Egyptians in 18 day massive demonstrations').
6. *The metalinguistic function*: focusing attention upon the code itself, to clarify it or renegotiate it ('What does the word here mean?', 'This bone is known as the "femur", "'Will" and "Shall" mean the same thing nowadays').
7. *The contextual function*: creating a particular kind of communication ('Right, let's start the lecture', 'It's just a game').

E. Context

Context is the situation within which something exists or happens (Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary).

Hymes argues that the study of language must concern itself with describing and analyzing the ability of the speakers to use language for communication in real situations (communicative competence) rather than limiting itself to describing the potential ability of the ideal speaker/listener to produce grammatically correct sentences (linguistic competence). Speakers of a language in particular communities are able to communicate with each other in a manner which is not only correct but also appropriate to the context.

Context by Hymes (2010: 7) represented in terms of SPEAKING mnemonic:

(S) Setting including the time and place, physical aspects of the situation such as arrangement of furniture in the classroom; (P) participant identity including personal characteristics such as age and sex, social status, relationship with each other; (E) ends including the purpose of the event itself as well as the individual goals of the participants; (A) act, sequence or how speech acts are organized within a speech event and what topic/s are addressed; (K) key or the tone and manner in which something is said or written; (I) instrumentalities or the linguistic code i.e. language, dialect, variety and channel i.e. speech or writing; (N) norm or the standard socio-cultural rules of interaction and interpretation; and (G) genre or type of event such as lecture, poem, letter.

F. Presentation

1. Definition of Presentation

Presentation is an activity through which the presenters communicate with the audience. It means that in the presentation activity both presenters and audience are the main objects which have to communicate each others. Siddons (2008: 1- 2) states three essential ingredients of a presentation: The audience, you- the presenter, and the presentation itself.

Each of these three ingredients is vital to a successful presentation like a three legged stool, when all the legs are there it is stable, but remove or shorten one of them and the whole things collapses. No matter how well- constructed the presentation is, if it is badly delivered it will fail; no matter how well- delivered the presentation is, if it doesn't make sense then it will fail. Most importantly of all, even if the presentation is perfect and the presenter inspired and charismatic, if the audience isn't interested or engaged, then the presentation will certainly fail, Wallwork 20 (2010: 4). Thus, it is important to prepare the presentation in advance to get the best results from it.

2. Purposes of Student Presentation

Chivers and Shoolbred (2007:14) state that “There are many reasons why students are asked to give presentations and these will be influenced by your academic course and situational and organizational factors. The purpose and circumstances of the presentation will influence its style, content and structure.

They also explain that “Most presentation will involve a combination of purposes but it may be helpful to think about the different features of each of these presentations. Student presentations may be given for the purposes of;

1. Advocacy/ persuasion

This presentation usually involves persuading members of the audience to take some action or make a decision. Examples could include:

- a. Support a cause
- b. Join a student society

2. Training

This type of presentation includes examples where students may demonstrate their skills in the use of equipment and also their skills as a trainer or teacher.

3. Teaching and learning

This type is very common in the universities and the majority of the professors and students use the presentations for this purpose. So, it includes:

- a. Developing a deeper understanding of a topic or text.
- b. Covering specific areas of the curriculum in more detail.

4. Informing

In some circumstances this type of presentation could be seen as similar to teaching, but the aim of this type of presentation could be to

communicate as much information as possible in the time available.

The purpose of the presentation may be to:

- a. Describe a new policy
- b. Outline a set of instructions
- c. Give a progress report on some research or development

5. Assessment

Student presentations are frequently assessed and may be awarded a percentage of the marks that contribute to the overall module mark and credits. However, some presentations may not be assessed but used as an opportunity for students to practice and further develop their presentation skills.

3. Benefits of Student Presentations

Emden and Becker (2004:23) state a variety of purposes. The benefits of student presentations will be influenced by the situation but they can be summarized as providing opportunities for:

a) Student-centered participation in their learning

Presentations offer a variety and challenges that contrast with regular delivery by an academic lecturer. Students can sometimes be more willing to learn from the poor and good performances of their peers than from their tutors. Presentations can also be used as an effective form of peer learning.

b) Develop new knowledge and perspectives on a topic

Presentations offer opportunities for developing skills and knowledge together. The topic of the presentation can strengthen learning and

enthusiasm for further knowledge. If the presentation is effective, the audience should have learned something new and increased their interest about the topic.

c) Practice in a known environment/situation

Presentations offer opportunities for students to practice performing in a fairly safe environment. When the learner has to prepare several presentations on a course, the student will begin to develop the essential skills and transfer these from presentation to presentation. The academic environment will probably be familiar to him.

d) Increasing confidence to speak and present in front of an audience

Well-managed presentations, as part of academic courses, can be used developmentally to improve both skills and confidence levels. The learner may be able to demonstrate his personality in a way that is not possible as a passive listener in a lecture. Presentations can help learner to be noticed and stand out from the rest of the group. The presentation will enable him to show his individuality. He can learn to deal with nervousness in a positive way that can help to reduce his fears and anxieties.

e) Improving marks earned for a module assessment

Sometimes, the presentations give the student opportunities for learning a higher percentage of marks than for written work alone. Students who prefer to speak rather than write, may be better communicators and presenters in their use of speech or visuals than in a written mode.

f) Developing a wide range of communication and presentation skills

The learner may need to think about his own skills and preferences for how he communicates. Presentations can help him to communicate using different media formats. They also give him opportunities to practice performing in public and develop his speech.

g) Preparation for skills needed in the workplace

Many organizations and schools seek confident candidates and use presentations as a part of their selection procedures. Preparing and delivering presentations, this can help student to be a more competent and confident candidate for interviews. They offer opportunities to develop his team working and project management skills.

G. Previous Study

In this part the researcher presents some relevant studies previously conducted by other researchers. The source in the form of Thesis , the first is Adhalina (2011) in “The Different Language Style and Language Function between Students and Teachers in Updating Their Status in Facebook Webpage” from English Department Faculty of Humanities in Diponegoro University, Semarang. In her study, to get and analyze the data about language function, the researcher used Holmes’s theory, there are six of language functions: Expressive, Directive, Referential, Metalinguistic, Poetic and Phatic.

The second is Nova (2015) that the thesis consent on “An Analysis on Language Function Found in “Enchanted” Movie Script” from English Education Department State Islamic Institute of Tulungagung. In her

study, the researcher used Cook's theory that language function divided in seven functions there are: emotive, directive, phatic, poetic, referential, metalinguistic and contextual function.

The third is Andayani (2013) that the thesis consent on "An Analysis of Language Functions Found in English Used by Receptionists in Bali Brasco" from English Department The Faculty of Teacher Training and Education Mahasaraswati University. In her study, the researcher used Halliday and Kusumayanti's theory which consist of language functions as asking for information, giving situation, denying something, offering something, certain or uncertain, permission, repeating, greeting and thanking.

All the researches before, they have different using theory and data. But in similarity, between in this research and the researches before, they have same statement of research problem that analyzing kinds of language functions. In this research, the researcher discusses the kinds of language function and what is dominantly language functions used by students in English presentation.