

ILLOCUTIONARY ACTS IN TWO RADIO PROGRAMS



Tgl. Terima	20-5-03
Dari	Fak. Sastra
Jumlahnya	2 das.
Harga	Gratis
No. Inventaris	030502.061
Kelembagaan	14609

A THESIS

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements

for Sarjana Degree at the Faculty of Letters

Hasanuddin University

By

FRENKY HIMAYA

F211 01 710-1

MAKASSAR

2003

TO

MY PARENTS

UNIVERSITAS HASANUDDIN

FAKULTAS SASTRA

Sesuai dengan Surat Tugas Dekan Fakultas Sastra Universitas Hasanuddin Nomor: 77/J04.11.1/PP.40/2002 tanggal 11 Desember 2002, dengan ini kami menyatakan menerima dan menyetujui skripsi ini untuk diteruskan kepada Panitia Ujian Skripsi.

Makassar, April 2003

Konsultan I



(Dra. ETTY BAZERGAN, M.Ed., Ph.D.)

Konsultan II



(Drs. ABD. MADJID DJURAIID, Dip.TEFL)

Menyetujui,

Dekan

u.b. Ketua Program Ekstensi Jurusan Sastra Inggris



(Dra. HERAWATY ABBAS, M.Hum., M.A.)

UNIVERSITAS HASANUDDIN

FAKULTAS SASTRA

Pada hari ini, Sabtu, tanggal 3 Mei 2003, Panitia Ujian Skripsi menerima dengan baik skripsi yang berjudul:

“ILLOCUTIONARY ACTS IN TWO RADIO PROGRAMS”

yang diajukan dalam rangka memenuhi salah satu syarat ujian akhir guna memperoleh gelar Sarjana Sastra Inggris pada Fakultas Sastra Universitas Hasanuddin.

Makassar, 3 Mei 2003

Panitia Ujian Skripsi:

1. Drs. Mustafa Makkah, M.S.
2. Dra. Herawaty Abbas, M.Hum., M.A.
3. Dra. Harlina Sahib, M.Hum.
4. Drs. Husain Hasyim, M.Hum.
5. Dra. Ety Bazergan, M.Ed., Ph.D.
6. Drs. Abd. Madjid Djuraid, Dip.TEFL

Ketua

Sekretaris

Penguji I

Penguji II

Konsultan I

Konsultan II

The image shows a list of handwritten signatures corresponding to the roles of the thesis examination committee. The signatures are written in black ink on a white background. The roles listed are Ketua, Sekretaris, Penguji I, Penguji II, Konsultan I, and Konsultan II. Each role has a corresponding signature next to it, with some roles having a colon and a dotted line before the signature.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

In this valuable opportunity, the writer would like to thank the Almighty God for His help and guidance to the writer in finishing this thesis. Then, great thanks are due to **Dra. Ety Bazergan, M.Ed., Ph.D.** and **Drs. Abd. Madjid Djuraid, Dip.TEFL**, the writer's first and second consultants, for their patient assistance in correcting and directing the writer during the time of completing this thesis.

The writer also wishes to express his deep gratitude to:

1. **Drs. Aminuddin Ram, M.Ed.**, the Dean of the Faculty of Letters, Hasanuddin University
2. **Drs. M. Amir P., M.Hum.**, the Head of English Department
3. **Drs. Husain Hasyim, M.Hum.**, the Secretary of English Department
4. **Dra. Herawaty Abbas, M.Hum., M.A.** the Head of Extension Program of English Department
5. **Drs. Fathu Rahman, M.Hum.**, as his academic consultant
6. **Drs. M. Syafri Badaruddin, M.Hum.**, who has given so much help and guidance during the writer's study in the Extension Program of English Department
7. All lecturers and staff of English Department, Hasanuddin University
8. All crew of Delta FM and RRI Pro2 FM, Makassar

The writer owes a major debt to his parents, who have given him much love and support; and to his sisters, who have done him many favors and given him encouragement in completing this thesis. Moreover, the writer would also like to thank all his relatives who have given him their great support and assistance both materially and spiritually. Without them, it is impossible for the writer to finish this thesis on time.

Finally, the writer realizes this thesis is not a perfect work. That is why any suggestions are very much solicited to improve the quality of this thesis.

Makassar, April 2003

The Writer

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Halaman Judul	i
Halaman Persembahan	ii
Halaman Pengesahan	iii
Halaman Penerimaan	iv
Acknowledgements	v
Table of Contents	vii
Abstrak	xi
Chapter I INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Background	1
1.2 Reasons for Choosing the Title	3
1.3 Scope of Problem	4
1.4 Statement of Problem	5
1.5 Objectives of Writing	5
1.6 Sequence of Presentation	6
Chapter II THEORETICAL BACKGROUND	7
2.1 Speech Acts	7
2.1.1 Coulthard's Theory of Speech Acts	7
2.1.1.1 The Locutionary and Illocutionary Acts	7

2.1.1.2	The Illocutionary and Perlocutionary Acts	8
2.1.2	Leech's Theory of Speech Acts	9
2.1.3	Cook's Theory of Speech Acts	10
2.1.4	Direct and Indirect Illocutionary Acts	10
2.1.5	Felicity Conditions	11
2.2	Discourse Analysis	12
2.2.1	The Function of Discourse Analysis	13
2.2.2	The Significance of Discourse Analysis	13
2.3	Conversation Analysis	15
2.3.1	Radio Conversation	15
2.3.2	Turn-taking	16
2.3.3	Basic Construction of A Conversation	17
2.4	The Application of Theories	18
Chapter III	METHODOLOGY	19
3.1	Method of Collecting Data	19
3.1.1	Library Research	19
3.1.2	Field Research	20
3.1.2.1	Technique of Collecting Data	20
3.1.2.2	Methods of Analyzing Data	21

3.2 Population and Sample	22
3.2.1 Population	22
3.2.2 Sample	22
Chapter IV PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA	24
4.1 The Sentence Types	24
4.1.1 Declarative Sentence	25
4.1.2 Interrogative Sentence	28
4.1.3 Imperative Sentence	32
4.2 The Direct Illocutionary Acts in the Data	35
4.2.1 The Act of Asserting	35
4.2.2 The Act of Asking	37
4.2.3 The Act of Ordering	38
4.2.4 The Act of Greeting	39
4.2.5 The Act of Apologizing	40
4.2.6 The Act of Responding	40
4.2.7 The Act of Repeating	41
4.2.8 The Act of Answering	43
4.2.9 The Act of Accosting	44
4.2.10 The Act of Requesting	44

4.3	The Indirect Illocutionary Acts in the Data	45
4.4	Chapter Summary	51
Chapter V	CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTION	54
5.1	Conclusions	54
5.2	Suggestion	55
	BIBLIOGRAPHY	57
	APPENDIX	

ABSTRAK

Skripsi ini berjudul "*Illocutionary Acts in Two Radio Programs*". Tujuan dari penulisan skripsi ini adalah untuk membahas tentang jenis kalimat, tindak tutur ilokusi langsung, serta tindak tutur ilokusi tak langsung yang terdapat dalam percakapan berbahasa Inggris dari dua program radio di Makassar, yaitu RRI Pro2 FM dan Delta FM. Hal ini dianggap penting sebab percakapan radio yang menggunakan bahasa Inggris sangat banyak mengandung tindak tutur, khususnya tindak tutur ilokusi. Selain itu, percakapan-percakapan yang terjadi dalam program radio terdengar sungguh alami, sehingga sangat menarik untuk dikaji lebih lanjut.

Metode yang digunakan oleh penulis dalam menyusun skripsi ini meliputi penelitian pustaka dan penelitian lapangan. Dalam penelitian pustaka, penulis membaca sejumlah buku referensi yang berhubungan dengan tindak tutur, khususnya tindak tutur ilokusi. Selain itu, teori-teori yang diperoleh sebagai hasil pembacaan buku-buku referensi dijadikan sebagai landasan berpikir dalam menganalisis data. Kemudian, dalam meneliti, penulis melakukan beberapa kegiatan. Pertama-tama, penulis merekam sebanyak 15 percakapan radio yang menggunakan bahasa Inggris. Setelah itu, penulis memilih 10 dari 15 percakapan tersebut secara acak untuk dijadikan data. Penulis kemudian membuat transkripsi percakapan dari ke sepuluh data yang telah dipilih. Selanjutnya, semua transkripsi percakapan tersebut ditabulasi. Dari tabel yang ada, penulis akhirnya menentukan jenis kalimat, tindak tutur ilokusi langsung, serta tindak tutur ilokusi tak langsung dari setiap ujaran yang terdapat dalam data.

Dari hasil analisis data, ditemukan bahwa ada tiga jenis kalimat yang muncul dalam data, yaitu kalimat deklaratif (pernyataan), interogatif (pertanyaan) dan imperatif (perintah). Dari ketiga jenis kalimat ini, kalimat deklaratif mendominasi semua percakapan dengan jumlah kemunculannya sebanyak 324 kali. Sedangkan jenis kalimat yang paling jarang muncul adalah jenis kalimat imperatif dengan angka kemunculan sebanyak 14 kali. Sisanya, jenis kalimat interogatif, muncul sebanyak 113 kali. Selain jenis kalimat, penulis juga menemukan bahwa ada 10 tindak tutur ilokusi langsung yang terlihat dalam data. Ke sepuluh tindak tutur tersebut, yaitu: tindak tutur menyatakan atau menegaskan (*asserting*), bertanya (*asking*), memerintah (*ordering*), memberi salam (*greeting*), meminta maaf (*apologizing*), memberi tanggapan (*responding*), mengulang (*repeating*), menjawab (*answering*), menyapa (*accosting*), dan memohon (*requesting*). Selanjutnya, penulis juga menemukan 50 tindak tutur ilokusi tak langsung, antara lain: tindak tutur menasehati (*advising*), memuji (*complimenting*), memperbaiki (*correcting*), menjelaskan (*explaining*), memperkenalkan (*introducing*), menawarkan (*offering*), dan sebagainya.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Communication is definitely important in our life. People can survive to live because they communicate with one another. Since we are social creatures, it will be very difficult to live in this world without interacting with other people. In other words, life is impossible without communication. How can we get food, clothes, homes, or any other necessary things without involving other people's help? Furthermore, how can people around us live and fulfill their needs without us? Everybody does need other people around him/her. The way people interact with each other to fulfill their needs is called communication which is only possible to take place if there are at least two parties, that is a speaker and a hearer.

There are several ways people use to communicate. First of all is through languages. They talk to other people in one particular language so that they can understand each other. That is why languages play a very important role in human life. Many languages exist in the world. Each language has its own particular characteristics and forms. The role of a language is so important that many people are competing to master more than one language. The second way is by using signals. Sometimes people only use certain signals to indicate something or represent what they want to say. Every single signal has

its own meaning. The most important thing in using signals to communicate is that both 'the sender' and 'the receiver' should have the same perception about the signals they are using. This is to avoid misunderstanding between the two parties. Finally, people usually communicate by using gestures. This way of communication needs the parts of body such as hands, eyes, fingers or even shoulders. Like signals, gestures also need the same perception between the two parties. Someone expresses his/her idea only by moving a certain part of his/her body; and as a result, the opposite party will react to the message he/she receives. These three ways of communication represent many others to show that man uses various ways to communicate.

When a communication takes place, especially by using a language as the means, there should be a speaker at one side and the hearer at the other side. If the speaker and the hearer have the same perception of one utterance, the communication process will go on without any problems at all. However, if the speaker and the hearer do not have the same perception, a miscommunication will take place. The question is how can the two parties have different perceptions? Or how can a miscommunication take place? These questions can only be answered if we have sufficient knowledge on speech acts. By using the knowledge of speech acts, someone will think and analyze something he/she hears before giving any reactions to it. The study of speech acts is included in discourse analysis.



Discourse analysis leads us to comprehend the types of sentences we hear and the kinds of illocutionary acts utterances may have. They actually consist of three main parts, that is locution, illocutionary act (illocution) and perlocutionary act (perlocution). Locution refers to what someone is saying; while illocution contains both the speaker's intention in saying something and carrying out an act. Then, the effect on the hearer is called perlocution. Among these three parts, the most important one is the illocutionary act (illocution). What makes it important? The different perception between the speaker and the hearer will only occur if the hearer does not really know or understand the speaker's intention in saying an utterance.

The fact that illocutionary act plays a very important role in the daily communication challenges many people to analyze the illocutionary act further. The writer, for example, would like to analyze the illocutionary acts performed by participants in two radio programs (that is Delta FM and RRI Pro2 FM). Delta FM is a private radio program, whereas RRI Pro2 FM is a public radio program. Both of them are well-known radio programs in Makassar.

1.2 Reasons for Choosing the Title

There are many dialogues in the radio which are carried out in English. Some of them are performed between an announcer and his/her friend (another announcer) or between an announcer and a caller. The topics of their conversation are usually

interesting, such as health, tourism, music, economy, politics, weather, et cetera. That is why the writer is interested in listening to the dialogues in the radio programs. Moreover, while listening to the dialogues the writer finds out that some illocutionary acts are taking place. When the announcer or the caller says something, he/she is actually carrying out an illocutionary act simultaneously. This provokes the writer's interest to analyze those illocutionary acts further. The writer would like to find out what kind of illocutionary acts they actually carry out when performing some utterances. His curiosity not only motivates him but also challenges him to choose the illocutionary acts as the focus of his analysis.

1.3 Scope of Problem

Based on the focus of his analysis, the writer limits his discussion only on direct and indirect illocution. All utterances will first be categorized into their sentence types, that is declarative, interrogative or imperative. The utterances will then be categorized into either direct or indirect illocution. They will further be classified into several acts such as: the act of asserting, asking, ordering, greeting, apologizing, responding, repeating, answering, accosting, requesting. If some other kinds of acts appear in the data, they will also be analyzed.

1.4 Statement of Problem

The object of this analysis will be discussed through the following problems:

1. What are the sentence types of the utterances performed by the radio announcers and the callers?
2. What kinds of direct illocutionary acts performed by the announcers and the callers in the two radio programs?
3. What kinds of indirect illocutionary acts performed by the announcers and the callers in the two radio programs?

1.5 Objectives of Writing

Through this analysis, the writer intends to accomplish a particular objective with the targets as follows:

1. To analyze the sentence types of the utterances performed by the radio announcers and the callers.
2. To describe the kinds of direct illocutionary acts performed by the announcers and the callers in the two radio programs.
3. To describe the kinds of indirect illocutionary acts performed by the announcers and the callers in the two radio programs.



1.6 Sequence of Presentation

The paper is divided into five chapters and organized as follows:

Chapter one contains the introductory descriptions related to the topic. It includes the background of the study, reasons for choosing the title, scope of problem, statement of problem, objectives of writing and sequence of presentation.

Chapter two is the theoretical background.

Chapter three deals with the methodology.

Chapter four contains the presentation and the analysis of data.

Chapter five consists of conclusions and suggestion.

CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

2.1 Speech Acts

Speakers can do many different things with words. By uttering only one sentence, a speaker may perform several different acts. The acts performed by the speaker are known as speech acts. According to Stubbs (1983:152), utterances can perform three kinds of act. *The locutionary act* is the act of saying something: producing a series of sounds which mean something. *The perlocutionary act* produces some effect on hearers. This has been traditional concern of rhetoric: the effect of language on the audience. *The illocutionary act* is performed in saying something, and includes acts such as betting, promising, denying and ordering.

2.1.1 Coulthard's Theory of Speech Acts

2.1.1.1 The Locutionary and Illocutionary Acts

Sometimes, people misunderstand about the interpretation of the locutionary act and the illocutionary act. People get confused in distinguishing them. As a result, they do not even know what kind of speech act he/she is performing. Coulthard (1977:18)

says that the interpretation of the locutionary act is concerned with meaning; while the interpretation of the illocutionary act with force.

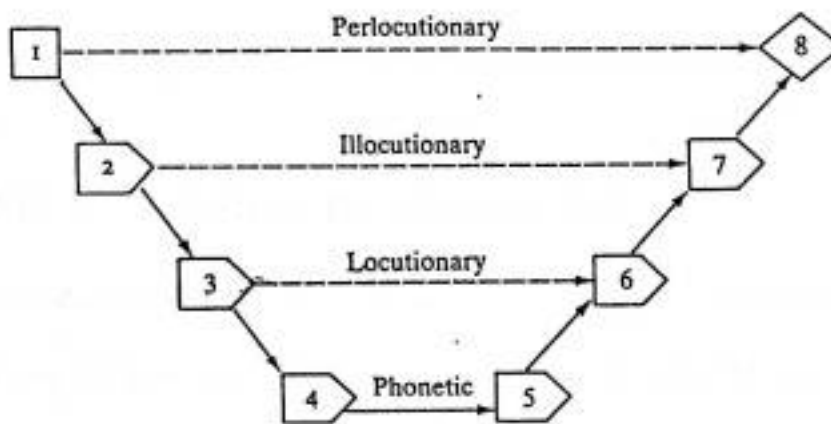
2.1.1.2 The Illocutionary and Perlocutionary Acts

The illocutionary act, being achieved through the uttering of certain words, is potentially under the control of the speaker; provided he uses the correct explicit *performative* (i.e. an utterance which performs an act) in the appropriate circumstances he can be certain that the act will be happy – no one can prevent someone from warning or advising them, except by refusing to listen. The perlocutionary act, however is the causing of a change in the mind of the listener, so that he becomes ‘alarmed’, ‘convinced’, ‘deterred’. The act is the effect of the utterance on the listener but this is not an effect governed by convention – there is no conventional or reliable way of ‘convincing’ or ‘detering’ someone (Coulthard, 1977:19). Then Coulthard (1977:12) provides conditions which must be satisfied if the performative act is not to misfire:

1. There must exist an accepted conventional procedure, having a certain conventional effect, that procedure to include the uttering of certain words by certain persons in certain circumstances.
2. The particular persons and circumstances in a given case must be appropriate for the invocation of the particular procedure invoked. †
3. The procedure must be executed by all participants both correctly and completely

2.1.2 Leech's Theory of Speech Acts

Another linguist, Leech (1987:199), distinguishes those three acts by using different prepositions in his statements. According to him, a locutionary act performs the act *of* saying something; while an illocutionary act performs an act *in* saying something. And the last, a perlocutionary act performs an act *by* saying something. The following figure shows the sequences of speech acts (i.e. locutionary act, illocutionary act, and perlocutionary act) in order to reach the goal from the initial state:



The perlocutionary act is represented by the sequence 1-2-3-4-5-6-7-8, the illocutionary act by the sequence 2-3-4-5-6-7, and the locutionary act by the sequence 3-4-5-6.

2.1.3 Cook's Theory of Speech Acts

Cook defines the three speech acts in different way. In his point of view, the formal literal meaning of the words is the locutionary act; the act which is performed by saying it is the illocutionary act; and then the third layer is the perlocutionary act or overall aim of the discourse. Meaning becomes more and more slippery as we move from one layer to the next. This is something which human beings exploit to their advantage. It enables them to avoid committing themselves and to retreat in front of danger; and this is one of the major reasons why people speak indirectly (Cook, 1989:40).

2.1.4 Direct and Indirect Illocutionary Acts

One utterance may have some illocutionary acts at the same time. On the one hand, we can directly see the illocutionary act carried by the utterance. This kind of illocutionary act is known as direct illocutionary act. On the other hand, the same utterance may carry one or several other purposes, which we recognize as indirect illocutionary acts. So, the direct illocutionary act of an utterance is the illocution most directly indicated by a literal reading of the grammatical form and vocabulary of the sentence uttered; whereas the indirect illocutionary act of an utterance is any further illocution the utterance may have (Hurford and Heasley, 1987:259). We may consider this utterance as the example: "*Can you pass the salt?*" The direct illocutionary act of

the utterance is an enquiry about the hearer's ability to pass the salt. The indirect illocutionary act of the utterance, however, is a request that the hearer passes the salt. The direct and indirect illocutionary acts of this utterance are clearly not the same. Now, we may agree to the statement: *one utterance may have some illocutionary acts at the same time.*

The difference between direct and indirect illocutions is seen through the fact that a pedantic or deliberately unhelpful reply can be given to an utterance which has both kinds of illocutions (Hurford and Heasley, 1987:260).

2.1.5 Felicity Conditions

Speech acts can be defined by their felicity conditions. According to Hurford and Heasley (1987:251), felicity conditions of an illocutionary act are conditions that must be fulfilled in the situation in which the act is carried out if the act is to be said to be carried out properly, or felicitously. So, we can conclude that the felicity conditions give direction to the speaker to use the illocutionary acts in particular circumstances. The felicity conditions give a boundary of when an illocutionary acts should be performed. Stubbs (1983:159) also states that the felicitous performance of certain speech acts, such as christening, excommunicating people, naming ships and pronouncing people guilty in court, requires that their speakers have social roles bestowed on them by the framework of some social institution.

The following is the list of felicity conditions (Cook, 1989:39):

1. The sender believes the action should be done
2. The receiver has the ability to do the action
3. The receiver has the obligation to do the action
4. The sender has the right to tell the receiver to do the action
5. The sender refers to an action necessary for a particular goal
6. The sender refers to an action necessary if the receiver is to avoid unpleasant consequences
7. The sender refers to an action which will benefit the receiver
8. The sender refers to an action which will benefit the sender
9. The sender possesses knowledge which the receiver lacks
10. The sender cannot carry out the action referred to.

2.2 Discourse Analysis

We can find many utterances produced by the participants in a conversation. Those utterances will combine to form discourse, which can later be analyzed. So, discourse is a combination of some utterances with certain topic and purpose. Lots of people are interested in analyzing a discourse because it contains abundant of speech acts, as described in the previous part of this chapter.

2.2.1 The Function of Discourse Analysis

Discourse analysis examines how stretches of language, considered in their full textual, social, and psychological context, become meaningful and unified for their users (Cook, 1989:ix). It is now clear to us that a discourse analysis has the purpose to make the readers fully understand the meaning and the main point it contains. Furthermore, Stubbs (1983:30) states 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 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. Part of a speaker's task is to understand his hearers, what they know already, and what they expect and want to hear.

2.2.2 The Significance of Discourse Analysis

In uttering something, a speaker definitely has a purpose in his/her mind. Unfortunately, not all speakers will say directly what they want the hearers to do or what they mean. Stubbs (1983:147) says if speakers always said what they meant, then there would be few problems for speech act theory or for discourse analysis. But, of course, they do not, and in principle could not, say in so many words exactly what they mean on any occasion of utterance.

The following examples show how requests may suggest that the possible realizations can be usefully grouped into 6 categories (Searle, as quoted by Coulthard, 1977:25):

1. Sentences concerning hearer's ability

For example: *Can you pass the salt?*

2. Sentences concerning hearer's future action

For example: *Will you pass the salt?*

3. Sentences concerning speaker's wish or want

For example: *I would like (you to pass) the salt.*

4. Sentences concerning hearer's desire or willingness

For example: *Would you mind passing the salt?*

5. Sentences concerning reasons for action

For example: *It might help if you passed the salt.*

6. Sentences embedding either one of the above or an explicit performative

For example: *Can I ask you to pass the salt?*

The categories above are based on requests. It is generally known, there are many more kinds of acts can be found in a conversation beside the act of requesting. So, discourse is indeed something interesting to be analyzed.



2.3 Conversation Analysis

One way to analyze the speech acts is through conversations. In even a single conversation, we will be able to find many speech acts performed by the participants. That is why many people use conversations as the means of their analysis on speech acts. However, we should remember that not every talk can be classified as a conversation. Cook (1989:51) states that a talk may be classified as conversation when:

1. It is not primarily necessitated by a practical task
2. Any unequal power of participants is partially suspended
3. The number of participants is small
4. Turns are quite short
5. Talk is primarily for the participants and not for an outside audience

Another important thing we should know in analyzing a conversation, according to McCarthy (1991:6), is that the emphasis is not upon building structural models but on the close observation of the behaviour of participants in talk and on patterns which recur over a wide range of natural data.

2.3.1 Radio Conversation

Conversations in radio programs are the perfect sources of data since they are natural. In a natural conversation, the utterances are more spontaneous, unplanned and casual. Therefore, if someone intends to analyze a conversation to find out the speech

acts occurred in it, a radio conversation is a good alternative. Stubbs (1983:19) supports this statement by stating that spontaneous conversation, although it may look chaotic, when closely transcribed, is, in fact, highly ordered. From Stubbs' statement, it is vividly declared that we need data in the form of a transcript of audio-recorded. That is why before analyzing a radio conversation, we need to make the tapescript of that conversation. We require closely transcribed data for several reasons. First, intuitions (introspective data) are notoriously unreliable in this area. Second, most people are simply unfamiliar with what such material looks like. Third, given these two points, a close transcript of conversation can allow us to see ways in which conversation is ordered which we would never imagine just by thinking about it. (Stubbs, 1983:19)

2.3.2 Turn-taking

In a conversation, it is always found that the participants have their own turns to speak. The transition from a participant's turn to other participant's is called turn-taking. When this transition occurs, the roles of speaker and hearer change with remarkably little overlapping speech and remarkably few silences (Coulthard, 1977:52). A conversation is a string of at least two turns. Some turns are more closely related than others. This class of sequences of turns are called adjacency pairs. The adjacency pairs are very important parts in a conversation since they help the hearer or the reader to

understand the sequence of utterances of the speaker. Later on, these adjacency pairs will help the hearer or the reader to understand the topic or the point of the speaker.

Talking about turn-taking, there are three degrees of control a current speaker may have over the next turn. Firstly, he can select which participant will speak next, either by naming him or by alluding to him with a descriptive phrase. The second option is simply to constrain the utterance, but not select the next speaker, while the third option is to select neither and leave it to one of the other participants to continue the conversation by selecting himself (Coulthard, 1977:53).

2.3.3 Basic Construction of A Conversation

In normal circumstances, a conversation should, of course, have a structure. Although there is no certain fixed structure, we will still be able to find a common structure of a conversation. That common structure of a conversation: (Coulthard, 1977:84-86)

1. Greetings. Greetings are close to being universal in conversation and although they sometimes don't occur, on some of these occasions their absence is noticeable, which suggests that conversationalists feel they are an almost invariant feature. There are two important features about greetings: firstly, they occur at the very beginning of a conversation, and cannot be done anywhere else in the conversation; secondly they allow all the speakers a turn, right at the beginning of the conversation.

2. Following the opening sequence the conversation consists of a series of one or more topics, though occasionally the conversation may be closed before speakers reach the first topic.

3. The endings of conversations are also things that have to be achieved – speakers don't just stop speaking. Conversations virtually always end with a closing pair, composed of '*goodbye*', '*good night*', '*see you*', and so on. However, the closing sequence can only occur when a topic has been ended and other speakers have agreed not to introduce any new topics. Another technique used by a speaker to indicate that he has nothing further to add to the topic is by using his turn to produce simply '*alright*', '*okay*', '*so*', '*well*', often lengthened and with a falling intonation contour.

2.4 The Application of Theories

In writing this thesis, the writer refers to the theories discussed in the previous parts of this chapter. The speech acts theories are first used by the writer to identify and analyze the data. Then, all data are classified into their sentence types and illocutionary acts. The illocutionary acts are divided into two main groups, that is direct and indirect. For each utterance, the writer identifies its sentence type, and then describes its direct and indirect illocutionary acts.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Methodology is an essential part in writing this thesis. It is generally known that without methodology, a work will not achieve the maximum result or target. Although it is finished successfully, a work is not really at its best. A work without methodology is just like a guitar with loose strings which can only produce a discordant melody. This chapter, therefore, will deal with some sequences of steps and techniques used by the writer to finish this thesis as a scientific work.

3.1 Method of Collecting Data

3.1.1 Library Research

This is a part in which the writer reads a number of books to find some information related to the topic of his discussion. The writer studies theories which are relevant to the topic, especially some necessary theories of discourse analysis including the locutionary acts, illocutionary acts, and perlocutionary acts. After reading and studying some theories, the writer finds it much easier to identify and analyze his object of discussion.

3.1.2 Field Research

In this part, the writer would like to describe two kinds of activities, that is technique of collecting data and methods of analyzing data.

3.1.2.1 Technique of Collecting Data

In collecting the data, the writer conducts the following steps:

1. Recording

In this step, the writer records some conversations conducted by radio participants, i.e. the callers and the announcers. The writer makes this recording because it is too difficult to write down directly what the participants are saying in their conversation. So, the writer finds it easier to analyze the data if they are recorded first.

2. Transcribing

The next step is writing the transcription of recording. The writer replays the result of his recordings and writes them down as tape scripts. All utterances among participants are written in scripts in this step.

3. Classifying

The writer, then, classifies the tape scripts based on the dates of recording. This is done by the writer to find out how many pieces of data are taken on the same date. Moreover, this step also reminds the writer about the topic of each

conversation. Then, he labels each conversation with the name and its date, e.g. *Datum 1, Recorded on October 6, 2002*

3.1.2.2 Methods of Analyzing Data

After collecting data, the writer analyzes them by using descriptive method. In doing so, the writer uses the following steps:

- Step 1: Transcribing all utterances performed by the radio participants which have been recorded
- Step 2: Tabulating each conversation to clarify the utterances performed by each speaker.
- Step 3: Analyzing each table of conversation and classifying each utterance into its sentence type.
- Step 4: Identifying both direct and indirect illocutionary acts the utterances may carry.
- Step 5: Analyzing the data to find out the number of appearances of all sentence types, direct illocutionary acts, and indirect illocutionary acts in the whole data. This step is supported by some utterances taken from the data as examples. Moreover, the writer also provides some tables to support the results of his analysis.

3.2 Population and Sample

The writer finds it almost impossible to observe all data which have been recorded because they are too large in amount. So, in this part, the writer would like to give information about the selected data he uses in his analysis.

3.2.1 Population

The population provided by the writer in writing this thesis is all utterances appearing in fifteen recorded conversations. The conversations are conducted by two or three participants in two radio programs (i.e. RRI Pro2 FM and Delta FM). Those conversations are recorded in three cassettes. Each cassette has two sides; in which each side plays for forty-five minutes.

3.2.2 Sample

From fifteen recorded conversations, the writer uses ten of them as samples to be analyzed. The writer chooses randomly the whole recorded conversations to find ten conversations which are later used as representative data. The ten chosen data are the conversations among radio participants (i.e. the callers and the announcers) which are recorded on 6 October 2002, 13 October 2002, 3 February 2003, 10 February 2003, 16 February 2003, and 23 February 2003. Some data are sometimes recorded on the same day, but from different channels, like Datum 1 and Datum 2. Some others are recorded

on the same day, same channel, but from different callers with different topics, like Datum 9 and Datum 10.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

This chapter contains the presentation and analysis of data. All data are recorded from two radio programs. There are ten pieces of data used to analyze the illocutionary acts in the conversations taken from two radio programs. Sentence types and illocutionary acts are the focus for discussions. The writer will first analyze the sentence types, then the illocutionary acts that appear in the data. Utterances in the data are used and presented as examples of the analysis. Complete data are presented in Appendix.

4.1 The Sentence Types

From the whole data obtained, the writer finds that the utterances in the conversations can be classified into three sentence types. They are declarative, interrogative and imperative. Declarative sentence is a sentence which is in the form of a statement; whereas interrogative sentence is the one in the form of a question. Then, imperative sentence is a sentence which is in the form of a command.

4.1.1 Declarative Sentence

Most of the utterances are classified as declarative sentences. This is, of course, because most of the utterances show that the speakers only make statements in their conversations. This can be seen in some utterances below

"Well, you look good today" (Datum 1 line 7, see Appendix)

"We have mentioned it many times" (Datum 2 line 16, see Appendix)

"I'm doing fine" (Datum 4 line 6, see Appendix)

Sometimes declarative sentences come in succession in the same conversation. It does not mean that all the utterances are performed by only one speaker. The successive appearances of declarative sentences may take place among a conversation between two people or more as shown in two examples below:

Example 1 (Taken from Datum 6)

Speakers	Utterances	Sentence Types
.....
Caller	I am fine	Declarative
Announcer 1	You're fine	Declarative
	Glad to hear that	Declarative
Caller	I..... I beginner in English	Declarative
Announcer 2	Oh... It's Okay	Declarative
Caller	But I always to listening Delta FM every week, this program	Declarative
.....



Example 2 (Taken from Datum 2)

Speakers	Utterances	Sentence Types
.....
Announcer 1	Well, actually we have the <i>True Love</i> , but.....from Elton John	Declarative
Caller	Oh, it's fine	Declarative
Announcer 1	Okay, so.... I hope that you enjoy that song	Declarative
Caller	Of course, I will	Declarative
.....

In some cases, the successive declarative sentences are performed by the same speaker. This happens when the speaker performs more than one sentence in his/her utterance, such as: explaining something to the hearer or giving additional information.

The following examples may support this statement:

Example 1 (Taken from Datum 2)

Speakers	Utterances	Sentence Types
.....
Caller	Your friends.	Declarative
	I'd like to say hello, I'd like to say thanks and sending them a song.	Declarative
.....

Example 2 (Taken from Datum 1)

Speakers	Utterances	Sentence Types
.....
Announcer 1	First October.	Declarative
	Okay, listeners! As usual, our program for today, there's a weekly news and followed by program "Talking Talking Not Just Talk" from English Service Pro2 FM Makassar.	Declarative
	Here is the weekly news for today in detail:	Declarative
	

Example 3 (Taken from Datum 8)

Speakers	Utterances	Sentence Types
.....
Announcer	Session, session of this program.	Declarative
	Ok, so the first session we start from ten o'clock, and now we are at the second session. Second session now	Declarative
.....

4.1.2 Interrogative Sentence

The second most frequent sentence type which appears in the whole data is interrogative. The interrogative sentences can be found in all data. It is generally known that interrogative sentences are formed when speakers ask questions. The writer finds that in one conversation, either the caller or announcers usually ask questions. In some cases, a speaker even asks more than one question before the hearer gives his/her response. Some examples of data below show the interrogative sentences appearing in English radio conversation programs:

Example 1 (Taken from Datum 3)

Speakers	Utterances	Sentence Types
.....
Caller	What?	<i>Interrogative</i>
Announcer 1	Are you a shopping-minded, Irene?	<i>Interrogative</i>
	Do you love shopping?	<i>Interrogative</i>
Caller	Pardon? I can't hear you	Declarative
Announcer 1	Do you love shopping?	<i>Interrogative</i>
	Buying something like clothes,	Declarative
.....

Example 2 (Taken from Datum 2)

Speakers	Utterances	Sentence Types
.....
Announcer 1	So, it seems that e... Piersen, you are a good friend hah?	Interrogative
	Who ask you to do this?	Interrogative
.....

Example 3 (Taken from Datum 8)

Speakers	Utterances	Sentence Types
.....
Announcer	Have you just took your bath?	<i>Interrogative</i>
	Or you just woke up?	<i>Interrogative</i>
Caller	Eech, apparently yes	Declarative
Announcer	Why apparently yes?	<i>Interrogative</i>
.....

Furthermore, the writer also finds that interrogative sentences may have various purposes depending on the speakers' intentions. Speakers do not always enquire answers of their questions. Some examples can be clearly seen in the data, like:

1. *"How you doing this morning, Irene?"* (Datum 3 line 6, see Appendix)

This utterance is definitely a question. The speaker is asking the hearer (i.e. Irene) how she was doing that morning. Of course the speaker has already known that the hearer must be alright because the hearer is able to make a phone call. So, by asking this question, the speaker is indirectly convincing himself/herself that the hearer is alright. Therefore, this question actually has two purposes. The speaker would like to ask the hearer, and at the same time he/she would like to convince himself/herself.

2. *"You don't know?"* (Datum 2 line 36, see Appendix)

This question shows vividly that the speaker is asking the hearer. However, the speaker is actually wondering why the hearer does not know about something. According to him/her, the hearer must have known about that thing, but on the contrary, the hearer says that he/she does not know. The speaker then asks this question to show his curiosity.

3. *"What song would you like to hear then?"* (Datum 6 line 17, see Appendix)

The interrogative sentence above carries two intentions of the speaker. The first one is to know the title of the song the hearer wants to hear, while the other one is to offer the hearer to request a song. So, by asking this question, the speaker not only wants



to know the title of the song, but also offers the hearer and gives him/her a chance to request a song.

4. *"And now we start our news for today?"* (Datum 1 line 9, see Appendix)

Some questions function as suggestions. This question of Datum 1 is a good example. We can see that the speaker is suggesting the hearer to start the news. The speaker does not directly use the expression like: *"I suggest you to start the news"*. Instead, he/she uses this question to express his/her suggestion more politely.

5. *"You are Irwan, right?"* (Datum 7 line 3, see Appendix)

This kind of question shows the speaker's doubt. He/she is not sure whether the hearer is Irwan or not. To make sure, the speaker asks this question to the hearer. But, the most important thing is that before the speaker asks the question, he/she was trying to guess who the hearer is. Finally, to find the correct answer, the speaker decides to ask this question.

6. *"So, what exactly so special about Bulukumba?"* (Datum 7 line 32, see App.)

The last type of speakers' further intentions which appears in data is repeating. Sometimes a speaker would like to repeat his/her question. This is to make sure that the hearer understands the question or still remembers the question. In this case (Datum 7 line 32), the speaker has actually asked the hearer what so special about Bulukumba, but to make sure that the hearer has understood the question, the speaker repeats his/her question.

4.1.3 Imperative Sentence

Another sentence type which can be seen from the data is imperative. This type of sentence does not appear in all data. Only particular data have imperative sentences from the utterances. This is because the imperative sentences are always in the form of orders. As has been stated, all data are recorded from radio programs. It means all conversations among callers and announcers are not carried out at one certain place. This is what we call long-distance communication. The speaker and the hearer do not meet face to face, that is why it will be very difficult to give an order. However, imperative sentences may also have other purposes, just like the interrogative ones. That is why the writer intends to present some data showing other purposes of imperative sentences, as follows:

1. *"Say hello to your family there"* (Datum 4 line 40, see Appendix)

This sentence is actually an order from the speaker to the hearer to say hello to the hearer's family. This is what we can see clearly. Beside an order, this sentence also carries another function, that is accosting. The speaker would like to accost the hearer's family by uttering this sentence. Although the speaker asks the hearer to say hello, the speaker at the same time directly accosts the hearer's family who may be listening to the radio at that time. So, this kind of sentence has two functions, that is to give an order and to directly accost.

2. "Keep up the good works" (Datum 2 line 51, see Appendix)

Another purpose of the imperative can be found in this sentence. The speaker gives an order to the hearer to do something, but in fact the speaker would like to give a compliment to the hearer. In this sentence, the speaker asks the hearer to keep up the good works. This means the speaker thinks that the hearer's works are good. That's why the speaker indirectly compliments the hearer. In English radio programs, this kind of purpose often occurs in many kinds of dialogues.

3. "Give me a break!" (Datum 8 line 12, see Appendix)

When we see this sentence, we will directly say that the speaker is asking the hearer to give him/her something. We may think like that because some other similar sentences have that meaning, such as: "Give me a book!" or 'Give me the money!'. In fact, the form and the structure of those sentences are the same. But, we also have to know that not all words or phrases in English carry the meaning exactly like the words themselves. There are many idiomatic expressions in English that we have to know well before deciding the meaning of a phrase or a sentence. Once we have known all idioms, we could say that a sentence has a literal meaning or and idiomatic meaning. In our case, the speaker says: "Give me a break!" It does not really mean that he/she needs a break at that time. This expression has an idiomatic meaning, that is to show that the speaker is surprised.

4. "Well, Chippy... .., Have a good Sunday!" (Datum 9 line 64, see Appendix)

This expression is exactly like other similar expressions, for example: "*Have a nice weekend!*" or "*Have a wonderful evening*" or "*Have a nice dream*". All these expressions have one purpose in common, that is to wish the hearer something good. That is why whenever we hear this kind of imperative sentence, we are definitely not asking to have something real, but on the contrary, something abstract that is going to happen. In radio conversations, we usually hear such expressions by the end of the conversation when one party would like to end a conversation.

5. "So... ..join us next week" (Datum10 line 41, see Appendix)

'It is really an order, just like any other orders'. Most people who see the sentence will agree with this statement. The writer, therefore, is interested in discussing this kind of imperative sentence. If we analyze further, we will find that the expression is not only an order but also an invitation. In our case, the speaker not only asks the hearer to join the program again the following week but also invites the hearer to join the program. This kind of imperative sentences always occur in radio programs to show that the announcers and all crew of a certain radio station are happy to talk to a caller.

4.2 The Direct Illocutionary Acts in the Data

It is already discussed above that an utterance or a sentence may have more than one purpose. Some of the purposes are vividly seen from the sentences themselves but some others are not. When a speaker is saying something, he/she is actually performing a speech act. In this speech act, we will learn that one utterance may have only one purpose, or more than one purpose. If one utterance carries another purpose of the speaker, it is said that this utterance has an indirect illocutionary act. However, in this part the writer will first discuss the direct purposes of the speakers in performing utterances. These direct purposes are known as direct illocutionary acts.

4.2.1 The Act of Asserting

This direct illocutionary act is the most frequent one appearing in all the data. Whenever a speaker makes a statement, he/she at the same time asserts something to the hearer. In any conversations, speakers and hearers often perform many statements in their utterances. That is why this kind of direct illocutionary act dominates every conversation in the writer's data.

The table below shows the frequency of the appearance of the act of asserting in every datum:

<i>Analyzed Data</i>	<i>Number of Sentences</i>	<i>Number of The Acts of Asserting</i>
Datum 1	17	11
Datum 2	52	27
Datum 3	61	33
Datum 4	36	19
Datum 5	45	22
Datum 6	33	22
Datum 7	44	19
Datum 8	65	25
Datum 9	57	25
Datum 10	42	16

From the table above, we can see that the act of asserting appears the most in Datum 3; and appears the least in Datum 1. By analyzing the table, we can conclude that the speakers involved in Datum 3 make more statements than the speakers in the other data do. The writer also finds that the number of the act of asserting in a conversation totally depends on the utterances performed by the speakers and the direct intentions of the speakers in carrying out those utterances. If the direct intention of the speaker is to assert something to the hearer, then the act of asserting is taking place.

4.2.2 The Act of Asking

The act of asking is one of the direct illocutionary acts appearing in the data. This kind of illocutionary act usually appears when a speaker is performing an interrogative sentence. Although the number of its appearances is not as many as the act of asserting, this kind of direct illocutionary acts can be found in every datum. This means it plays a quite important role in conversations, particularly in radio conversations. The following table displays the appearances of the acts of asking:

<i>Analyzed Data</i>	<i>Number of Sentences</i>	<i>Number of The Acts of Asking</i>
Datum 1	17	3
Datum 2	52	11
Datum 3	61	13
Datum 4	36	10
Datum 5	45	9
Datum 6	33	4
Datum 7	44	12
Datum 8	65	22
Datum 9	57	17
Datum 10	42	11

As it is seen in the table, the act of asking occurs the most in Datum 8. The number of sentences in Datum 8 gives more chances for the act of asking to take place than any other data. It means that the number of interrogative sentences in this datum is more than the other data. From the data, the writer also learns that the act of asking does not always

require an answer from the hearer. It may have other further purposes behind it. Those further purposes will be discussed later in the other part of this Chapter.

4.2.3 The Act of Ordering

The number of the act of ordering in the data depends on the number of imperative sentences. The writer finds in the data that the acts of ordering only appear in the data which have imperative sentences, like: Datum 2, 3, 4, 8, 9 and 10. From this analysis, the writer then makes a conclusion that all acts of ordering come from imperative sentences, not from other types of sentences. The number of the acts of ordering does not depend on the number of sentences in general, but on the number of imperative sentences. So, the more the number of imperative sentences the more the number of the acts of ordering. To make it clear, the writer provides the table below:

<i>Analyzed Data</i>	<i>Number of Sentences</i>	<i>Number of The Acts of Ordering</i>
Datum 1	17	--
Datum 2	52	2
Datum 3	61	3
Datum 4	36	1
Datum 5	45	--
Datum 6	33	--
Datum 7	44	--
Datum 8	65	2
Datum 9	57	1
Datum 10	42	4

With further analysis, the writer finds out that the imperative sentences carry not only the act of ordering but also various kinds of acts. Those acts are categorized as indirect illocutionary acts which will be discussed in the other part of this Chapter.

4.2.4 The Act of Greeting

As it is shown in the data, the act of greeting as a direct illocutionary act appears in all data although in a very few numbers. It appears once to three times (at the most) in one datum. From his analysis, the writer finds out that the acts of greeting are most seen at the beginning part of each conversation. This is, in the writer's opinion, because the participants in a conversation will greet each other when they engage in their conversation on the phone. So, the writer is really sure that the act of greeting will not appear in the last part of each conversation. The number of the acts of greeting in all data can be seen in the table below:

<i>Analyzed Data</i>	<i>Number of Sentences</i>	<i>Number of The Acts of Greeting</i>
Datum 1	17	1
Datum 2	52	2
Datum 3	61	2
Datum 4	36	3
Datum 5	45	3
Datum 6	33	2
Datum 7	44	2
Datum 8	65	3
Datum 9	57	2
Datum 10	42	2

4.2.5 The Act of Apologizing

The act of apologizing as a direct illocutionary act only occurs in one datum, that is in Datum 2. We can see the conversation in Datum 2 line 5 where there is a statement made spontaneously by the caller: "*Ups, sorry....*" This spontaneous expression shows vividly that the caller would like to apologize on what he/she has said. If we analyze the conversation in details, we will find that the caller makes such spontaneous expression because of a criticism from the announcer saying: "*You're not allowed to say that name*". So, the act of apologizing is performed by a speaker as a result of realizing his/her mistake.

4.2.6 The Act of Responding

This direct illocutionary act appears in almost all data. Only Datum 1 and Datum 4 do not have this kind of act. This fact proves that the act of responding also plays an important role in one conversation. Most of the acts of responding appear when a hearer is listening to a speaker's explanation to show that the hearer is with the speaker. From the writer's point of view, the act of responding can also be a sign that the communication between a caller and an announcer still runs well. What the writer means is that when a caller or an announcer does not give a response, there must be something wrong with the communication line (in this case, the phone line). Another possibility is that the hearer is not interested in what the speaker is saying. So, the act of responding

does play a very important role in a conversation, especially in a radio conversation. The table below shows the appearances of the acts of responding:

<i>Analyzed Data</i>	<i>Number of Sentences</i>	<i>Number of The Acts of Responding</i>
Datum 1	17	--
Datum 2	52	2
Datum 3	61	4
Datum 4	36	--
Datum 5	45	3
Datum 6	33	2
Datum 7	44	4
Datum 8	65	6
Datum 9	57	5
Datum 10	42	3

4.2.7 The Act of Repeating

One of direct illocutionary acts appearing in the data is the act of repeating. This kind of act usually takes place when a speaker is not sure that the hearer has listened to what he/she is saying. From the data, the writer learns that sometimes a speaker repeats what he/she has said when the hearer asks him/her to do it. But sometimes a speaker will also repeat what he/she has said if he/she thinks that the hearer does not get the idea

he/she wants to tell. So, the number of the act of repeating in one conversation also shows that the conversation is carried out smoothly or not. The following table shows the appearances of the acts of repeating:

<i>Analyzed Data</i>	<i>Number of Sentences</i>	<i>Number of The Acts of Repeating</i>
Datum 1	17	--
Datum 2	52	4
Datum 3	61	4
Datum 4	36	2
Datum 5	45	4
Datum 6	33	1
Datum 7	44	3
Datum 8	65	4
Datum 9	57	2
Datum 10	42	--

From the table above, we can see that the act of repeating does not take place in Datum 1 and Datum 10. It means the conversations in Datum 1 and Datum 10 are carried out smoothly. Both the speaker and the hearer in those data do not feel the need to repeat anything that they have said.



4.2.8 The Act of Answering

The act of answering is different from the act of responding. The act of answering is a result of the act of asking, whereas the act of responding is a result of any statements made by a speaker. On one hand, the act of answering only occurs when a hearer would like to give an answer to a speaker's question; on the other hand, the act of responding may occur any time it is needed as a response of what the speaker is saying. In the data, the writer finds out that the act of answering seldom appears. This is because the act of answering will only take place when there is a question. But, we should remember that not all questions need answers; sometimes a question could function as an invitation or a suggestion or many others. The acts of answering are found in some data as can be seen below:

<i>Analyzed Data</i>	<i>Number of Sentences</i>	<i>Number of The Acts of Answering</i>
Datum 1	17	--
Datum 2	52	1
Datum 3	61	--
Datum 4	36	1
Datum 5	45	3
Datum 6	33	--
Datum 7	44	3
Datum 8	65	2
Datum 9	57	1
Datum 10	42	3

The table shows that some data do not have the act of answering. It does not mean that there is no question at all in those data. In fact, all data have questions; but not all of them need answers. The writer then concludes that the number of the acts of answering does not depend on the number of questions.

4.2.9 The Act of Accosting

There are only two examples of the acts of accosting in the data. The first one is in Datum 3 line 57 which says: "*Well... ..Irene*"; and the second one is in Datum 6 line 26 which says: "*Hi, Salam! I'm waiting you in join us to Delta FM*". These two utterances have the same direct purpose, that is to accost someone. In the first example, the speaker would like to accost someone named Irene; while in the second example the speaker would like to accost someone named Salam. The act of accosting is not really important to take place in a conversation. It does not affect the conversation much. Actually, conversations (especially in radio programs) will still run well with or without the act of accosting. If a speaker thinks it is important to accost someone, then he/she will do. So, the act of accosting, in the writer's opinion, is just an art of communication.

4.2.10 The Act of Requesting

The act of requesting appears only once in the data. It is because the function of this act is almost the same as the function of the act of ordering, that is to ask the hearer

to do something. The difference between these two acts is that the act of requesting is more polite than the act of ordering. In an utterance carrying the act of requesting, it is usually found the word "*please*" to show politeness. We can see the utterance that carries the act of requesting in Datum 2 line 27 as the example. The speaker says: "*Ok, so....name the song, please*". By saying this utterance, the speaker is politely asking the hearer to mention the title of the song the hearer would like to listen. So, as the conclusion, we may say that the significance of the act of requesting is that it is more polite than any other acts.

4.3 The Indirect Illocutionary Acts in the Data

There are fifty kinds of indirect illocutionary acts the writer finds in the conversations carried out by participants in two radio programs. Some of them appear only once in the whole data, and some others appear more than once in the whole data. From Datum 1 until Datum 10, the writer finds out that the act of informing has the biggest number in appearance. On the contrary, there are some indirect illocutionary acts which only appear once in the whole data, such as: the act of confessing, the act of congratulating, the act of advising, the act of challenging, the act of ensuring, the act of forbidding, the act of reporting, the act of complaining, and the act of entertaining. To make his analysis simple, the writer makes the list of all indirect illocutionary acts appearing in his data. The list is arranged in alphabetical order to make it easier to study.

The writer also shows the number of appearances of each act in the whole data to supply a complete piece of information to the reader, so that the reader does not have to read all data to find out how many times each act appears in the whole data. Then, the writer also shows the place where a particular indirect illocutionary act can be found in the data.

Here is the table of indirect illocutionary acts in the writer's data:

No.	Types of Indirect Illocutionary Acts	Number of Appearances in the Whole Data	Places of Appearances: In Datum
1	Accosting	2	2 and 4
2	Addressing	4	2 and 6
3	Advising	1	10
4	Agreeing	14	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9
5	Answering	14	2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 8 and 10
6	Apologizing	3	3, 5 and 9
7	Asking	5	3 and 7
8	Being surprised	2	2 and 8
9	Betting	1	5
10	Challenging	1	2
11	Cheering	2	3 and 6
12	Complaining	1	7
13	Complimenting	9	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 and 8
14	Concluding	5	3 and 5
15	Confessing	1	7
16	Congratulating	1	1
17	Convincing	19	1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7 and 8
18	Correcting	5	1, 2 and 4
19	Criticizing	4	2 and 8
20	Disagreeing	1	3

21	Doubting	2	3 and 6
22	Ensuring	1	6
23	Entertaining	1	9
24	Explaining	23	3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9 and 10
25	Forbidding	1	2
26	Giving example	2	3 and 7
27	Giving opinion	3	4 and 9
28	Greeting	7	3, 6, 7, 8 and 9
29	Guessing	1	2
30	Informing	60	1-10 (all data)
31	Introducing	5	1, 3, 6, 8 and 10
32	Inviting	2	6 and 10
33	Joking	11	2, 3, 5, 9 and 10
34	Leavetaking	15	2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10
35	Offering	10	2, 6, 7, 9 and 10
36	Promising	3	2, 3 and 10
37	Protesting	1	3
38	Realizing	1	2
39	Regretting	3	5, 8 and 9
40	Rejecting	4	3, 5 and 8
41	Reminding	3	2, 5 and 9
42	Repeating	18	2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10
43	Reporting	1	1
44	Requesting	6	2, 3, 6, 7 and 10
45	Requiring a repetition	4	3, 8 and 9
46	Showing interest	1	7
47	Suggesting	6	1, 7, 8 and 10
48	Thanking	18	3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9
49	Wishing	2	2 and 9
50	Wondering	20	2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9 and 10

There are some utterances in the data which do not have indirect illocutionary acts. It means those utterances do not have further purposes beside the ones appearing in the direct illocutionary acts. We can see some examples of this kind of utterances below:

1. *"Good morning, listeners!"* (Datum 1 line 1, see Appendix)

This utterance only has a direct illocutionary act, that is the act of greeting. The speaker would just like to greet the hearer, not more than that. So, this utterance does not carry any further purposes of the speaker. That is why we can say that this utterance does not have any indirect illocutionary acts.

2. *"Do you love shopping?"* (Datum 3 line 19, see Appendix)

The speaker asks the hearer whether he/she loves shopping. The direct illocutionary act of this utterance is, therefore, the act of asking. The speaker only needs an answer from the hearer. So, the one and only purpose of the speaker by performing this utterance is to ask. He/she does not have any other purposes behind it. Therefore, this utterance does not have any indirect illocutionary acts.

3. *"Glad to hear that"* (Datum 6 line 9, see Appendix)

It is clearly seen that the direct illocutionary act of this utterance is the act of asserting. The speaker performs this utterance to assert that he/she is glad to know what he/she just heard. There is no other purpose this utterance carries, so we can simply say that the utterance has no indirect illocutionary act at all.

In some very rare cases in the writer's data, several utterances may have more than one indirect illocutionary act. Actually, the number of indirect illocutionary acts of an utterance depends on the hearer. The writer, in this case, will show some examples of utterances which he thinks may have more than one indirect illocutionary act. This does not mean that the indirect illocutionary acts of the relating utterances have to be like that. This is only the writer's point of view. Here are some of the examples:

Example 1 (*Taken from Datum 7*)

Utterances	Illocutionary Acts	
	Direct	Indirect
.....
Thank you very much for sharing with us....and.... because you are riding a car, be careful then	Asserting	Thanking, Warning
.....

In the table above, we can see that the utterance has two indirect illocutionary acts, that is the act of thanking and the act of warning. The speaker thanks the hearer for sharing an idea or a story. It is clearly shown in the part of the utterance: "*Thank you very much for sharing with us ...*". Not only thanking the hearer, the speaker also gives a warning to the hearer by continuing his/her utterance with: "*... because you are riding a car, be careful then*". So, the other purpose of the speaker in saying the utterance above is to warn the hearer.

Example 2 (Taken from Datum 9)

Utterances	Illocutionary Acts	
	Direct	Indirect
.....
No, I just don't like that song because it's Ina's favourite (<i>laughing</i>) I hate everything favourite of Ina	Asserting	Explaining, Joking
.....

Another example of an utterance which has two indirect illocutionary acts is displayed in the table above. The speaker explains why she does not like the song, but at the same time, she also makes a joke on her partner named Ina. Although the speaker says: "... *I hate everything favourite of Ina*"; she does not really mean it. Moreover, when saying the utterance, the speaker is laughing. That is why the utterance above is said to have two indirect illocutionary acts: the act of explaining and the act of joking.

Example 3 (Taken from Datum 10)

Utterances	Illocutionary Acts	
	Direct	Indirect
.....
Let me suggest you something Nousa..... there are some listeners, some callers actually when they joined this program, they feel so nervous but they try and try again, so finally it works.	Asserting	Suggesting, Informing, Explaining
.....



From the utterance above, we can directly find out that the speaker is suggesting something to the hearer by saying: *"Let me suggest you something...."*. That is the first indirect illocutionary act the utterance carries. Then, the second one occurs when the speaker continues her utterance with: *"... there are some listeners, some callers actually when they joined this program, they feel so nervous ..."*. This utterance produces an act of informing as its second indirect illocutionary act. The announcer would like to inform the caller that some other callers also felt nervous when they joined the program for the first time. Finally, the last part of her utterance saying: *"... but they try and try again, so finally it works"*, carries the third indirect illocutionary act: explaining. The announcer explains to the caller that some other callers succeeded in controlling their feeling of nervous. So, as the conclusion, this utterance has three indirect illocutionary acts: the act of suggesting, the act of informing, and the act of explaining.

4.4 Chapter Summary

As the conclusion of this chapter, we can say that there are three sentence types that appear in the whole data. The first one is declarative sentence, which is in the form of a statement. The second sentence type is interrogative, which is the one in the form of a question. They could be requests in some cases, or orders in other cases. The last sentence type appearing in the data is imperative, which is in the form of a command.

From those three sentence types, declarative appears the most in the whole data, whereas imperative the least.

The second thing we can conclude from this chapter is about the direct illocutionary acts in the data. In the writer's final analysis, he finds there are ten direct illocutionary acts that appear in the data. Those acts can be seen in the following table, together with the number of appearances of each act in the whole data:

No.	Direct Illocutionary Acts	Number of Appearances in the Whole Data
1	Accosting	2
2	Answering	14
3	Apologizing	1
4	Asking	112
5	Asserting	217
6	Greeting	22
7	Ordering	13
8	Repeating	24
9	Requesting	1
10	Responding	29

It is clearly seen in the table that the act of asserting appears the most, while the act of apologizing and requesting appear the least. All acts of asserting come from the declarative sentences; acts of asking from interrogative; and acts of ordering from

imperative. Related to the direct illocutionary acts, we can also see from the data that the act of greeting only appears at the beginning of every conversation.

The next conclusion of this chapter is about indirect illocutionary acts in the data. As stated in the previous part of this chapter, there are fifty acts found as indirect illocutionary acts. Some of them appear several times, either in the same conversation or in the different conversations, such as: the act of answering, complimenting, explaining, et cetera. Some others appear only once in the whole data, for example: the act of confessing, congratulating, protesting, et cetera. (see table on pages 46-47). Another thing the writer finds in his analysis of this chapter is that several utterances only have direct illocutionary acts and do not have indirect ones (see examples on page 48). In some other cases, particular utterances have more than one indirect illocutionary act at the time they are uttered (see examples on pages 49-50).

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTION

5.1 Conclusions

There are several points the writer would like to present as conclusions:

1. Utterances appearing in the conversations from the two radio programs can be classified into three sentence types, that is declarative, interrogative and imperative. From these three types of sentences, declarative sentences appear the most in the data (i.e. 324 times), whereas imperative sentences appear the least (i.e. 14 times). Then, interrogative sentences appear 113 times in the data. We can also see from the conversations that most declarative sentences are performed by telephone callers; while interrogative and imperative sentences are mostly performed by radio announcers.
2. By analyzing the data, the writer finds out that the conversations recorded from the two radio programs contain ten direct illocutionary acts. They are the act of asserting, asking, ordering, greeting, apologizing, responding, repeating, answering, accosting, and requesting. From these ten acts, the acts of asserting appear the most in the data (i.e. 217 times), while the act of apologizing and requesting appear only once from all conversations.

3. With further analysis, the writer finds out there are fifty indirect illocutionary acts performed by the participants in the two radio programs. Some examples of those indirect illocutionary acts are: the act of advising, complimenting, correcting, explaining, introducing, offering, informing, thanking, suggesting, and wondering. The complete list of indirect illocutionary acts in the data can be seen in the table on pages 46-47. The acts of informing appear the most, whereas several acts, such as: the act of advising, betting, challenging, confessing, congratulating, and some others, appear only once in the data.

5.2 Suggestion

The writer would like to suggest any students, who intend to conduct a research on illocutionary acts, that radio conversation programs are good sources. This is because of several reasons. Firstly, the conversations in the radio contain so many illocutionary acts, both direct and indirect. This large number of illocutionary acts will offer many choices to the students who are working on them. Secondly, the radio conversation programs are played *regularly* by certain radio channels. This will provide the unlimited data to analyze. Thirdly, all utterances in the radio conversations are spontaneously uttered by the participants. The sentences we are going to analyze will then be more natural. The last reason is that there are many different interesting topics found in the radio conversations. Therefore, the students will not get bored in analyzing their data.

They will be free to choose the conversations with topics they like. So, without any doubt, radio conversations are good choices if someone intends to analyze the illocutionary acts.

This thesis can also be a good reference for those who want to analyze the illocutionary acts. Many illocutionary acts can be found in this thesis and used as samples for other researches. The data in this thesis can be used not only to analyze illocutionary acts, but also to analyze other aspects of language such as: error analysis or grammatical analysis. However, any aspects a student would like to discuss will require sufficient knowledge of the topics.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Austin, J.L. 1975. *How to Do Things With Words*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- Brown, H. Douglas. 1994. *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*. Third Edition. San Francisco: Prentice Hall Regents
- , 2001. *Teaching by Principles: An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy*. Second Edition. New York: Longman Inc.
- Cole, Peter and Jerry L. Morgan. 1975. *Syntax and Semantics Volume 3: Speech Acts*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- Cook, Guy. 1989. *Discourse*. Oxford: Oxford University Press
- Coulthard, Malcolm. 1977. *An Introduction To Discourse Analysis*. London: Longman Group
- Hurford, James B. and Brendan Heasley. 1987. *Semantics: A Course Book*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- Kempson, Ruth M. 1989. *Semantics Theory*. Oxford: Clarendon Press
- Kentjono, Djoko. 1982. *Dasar-dasar Linguistik Umum*. Jakarta: Universitas Indonesia
- Leech, Geoffrey. 1987. *Semantics: the Study of Meaning*. London: Richard Clay
- Littlewood, William. 1984. *Foreign and Second Language Learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- Lyons, John. 1982. *Semantics*. 2 Volumes. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- McCarthy, Michael. 1991. *Discourse Analysis for Language Teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- Palmer, F.R. 1986. *Semantics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

Richard, Jack R. and Richard W. Schmidt 1984. *Language and Communication*. New York: Longman

Richards, Jack et al. 1985. *Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics*. Suffolk: Longman

Searle, John R. 1987. *Speech Acts*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

Stubbs, Michael. 1983. *Discourse Analysis*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell