CHAPTER II
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Review of Related Literature

This chapter presents the theory that will be used to analyze the statement of problems and to support the data analysis.

2.1.1 Language

Different conceptions of the nature of language arise in different contexts and in response to a variety of historical, social, political, scientific, and pedagogical needs. Chomsky’s view of language will be considered. In the first instance, this will be done by examining his focus on determining the precise rules of a transformational grammar by relying on the intuitions of idealized native speakers as to grammatical well-formedness. Chomsky’s claim that humans are born with an innate linguistic ability that constitutes a Universal Grammar will also be examined, along with the corresponding search for language universals. In the final part of the essay, the examination of language as a means of expressing identity and creativity will necessitate moving from cognitive theories of language to sociolinguistic conceptions that examine the impacts of community, context, and power relationships on language in use.

During the past 50 years, the work of Noam Chomsky has been indisputably influential in its conceptualization of language as “a set (finite or infinite) of sentences, each finite in length and constructed out of a finite set of
elements” (Chomsky, 1957, as cited in Lyons, 1981:7). As Lyons (1981:7) comments, this definition varied markedly from previous definitions of language in its silence about both the communicative function and the symbolic properties of language; it instead focused on the essential structure of language in a way that was mathematically precise.

In Syntactic Structures (1957), Chomsky established the notion of ‘generative grammar’ that uses explicit ‘generative’ formal description and ‘rewrite rules’ to describe the structure of language. As Cook and Newson (1996:2) explain, ‘kernel sentences’ were shown to undergo transformations so as to produce different forms, such as the negative, interrogative etc. In a later work, Chomsky continued examining how identical surface forms could express different meanings, for example (cited in Finch, 2000:121):

John is eager to please.

John is easy to please.

Chomsky’s solution was that underlying both sentences was a different ‘deep structure’, “an abstract level of structural organization in which all the elements determining structural interpretation are represented” (Yule, 2006, p.88). This abstract deep structure is subject to a series of rules or ‘transformations’ that ‘generate’ the surface structure.

Chomsky’s generative grammar frameworks have changed markedly over the years, but his view of the fundamental aim in the linguistic analysis of a language has remained, as Matthews (2001:98) paraphrases it:
‘to separate the grammatical sequences’…‘from the ungrammatical sequences’…‘The grammar’ of a language ‘will thus…be a device that generates all of the grammatical sequences of [the language] and none of the ungrammatical ones’.

Chomsky’s now famous sentence, Colourless green ideas sleep furiously (cited in Trask, p.294), exemplifies Chomsky’s view of linguistic competence as knowledge of syntactic rules independent of semantic meaning.

Unsurprisingly, many argue that this definition is deficient. Derewianka (2001, p.255) reports Halliday’s (1977) criticism of Chomsky for his “violent polemic” by which he sought to make the views of “language ‘as resource’” and “language ‘as rule’” “unnecessarily incompatible”. Halliday’s view of language as a social semiotic requires asking functional questions regarding what people do with language. This necessitates looking at real examples of language in use in a variety of settings. This can be contrasted with Chomsky’s explicit rejection of speakers’ spontaneous usage, their ‘performance’ (subsequently E-language), as the proper data for linguistic analysis. Instead, Chomsky proposed to rely on the intuitions as to grammatical well-formedness provided.

As Edward Sapir first approached the field of linguistics in the course of his anthropologist studies, his view on language is one that takes into account not only cultural studies but the whole range of human sciences, among them psychology, sociology, and philosophy. He treats language as a cultural product and considers linguistics to be a fruitful possibility of a
scientific study of society. In this paper I want to give an overview on his inquiries into the function and form of languages as arbitrary systems of symbolisms. Beginning with Sapir’s definition and characterization of language I want to carve out the function of language structure in connection with language change, its impact on world view, and finally Sapir’s conclusions concerning an artificial international language.

Sapir characterizes language as purely human and non-instinctive, consisting of a conventional system of arbitrary sound symbols that are produced voluntarily. Therefore not only communication systems of animals are excluded from his definition of language but also any human articulation that is not symbolic or voluntary, e.g., instinctive cries. A speech element can symbolize either a concept or relations within and between concepts. A concept is the abstracted sum of numerous individual experiences that are perceived as similar or even identical in their basic properties. For example, if we hear the word “house” we might have in mind a certain prototype, e.g., four stone walls, a wooden door, glass windows, and a tiled roof, but we do not think of a certain house we once saw, because “house” is a symbol for a concept, a category, consisting of very few basics: walls and a roof, suitable for people to live in. The same applies to abstract things like ideas, sensations, and emotions. As Sapir writes:

‘The world of our experiences must be enormously simplified and generalized before it is possible to make a symbolic inventory of all our experiences of things and relations and this inventory is imperative before we can convey ideas’ (Sapir 1921, 12).
And this is what language does for us. It conceptualizes our world and provides for us the categories we think in. As each language has a different structure, each language dictates its own classification of the world around. The differences can be anything from marginal to fundamental. Benjamin Whorf, a student of Sapir, compares the treatment of time and space in the Hopi language with its treatment in what he calls SAE (Standard Average European) languages. The SAE languages objectify time and space in the sense that they allow counting and measuring them while in Hopi ‘There is no objectification, as a region, an extent, a quantity, of the subjective duration-feeling. Nothing is suggested about time except the perpetual ‘getting later’ of it’ (Worf 1956:143) But we don’t even have to look at such abstract conceptions to realize that different linguistic categories are responsible for different perceptions of the world. If we take a simple term like chair and its German translation Stuhl and compare the concepts that are triggered off by them, we will find, that chair does not cover the same group of items as Stuhl. What is perceived as similar or identical in one language because it is called the same is perceived different in the other, because it is referred to by different terms. Each language has its own way of classifying reality and dividing the world into different categories. But the important thing is that

‘All languages are set to do all the symbolic and expressive work that language is good for, either actually or potentially. The formal technique of this work is the secret of each language’ (Sapir 1949:155)
2.1.2 Sociolinguistic

According to Holmes (1992:1) sociolinguistics is the study of the relation between language and society. It is learn how language and society related each other. Society can be separated, because society uses language to communicate each other. Trudgill write a good summary of some aspects of its coverage:

Whenever we speak, we cannot avoid giving our listeners clues about our origins and the sort of person we are. Our accent and our speech generally show where we come from, and what sort of background we have. We may even give some indication of certain of our ideas and attitudes, and all of this information can be used by the people we are speaking with to help them formulate an opinion about us.

These two aspects of language behavior are very important from a social point of view: first, the function of language in establishing social relationships; and the second, the role played by language in conveying information about the speaker. (Trudgill 2000:2)

Within sociolinguistics there is a division into macro and micro research. Microlinguistic studies ‘typically focus on very specific linguistic items or individual differences’ in language use and look for ‘wide-ranging linguistic and/or social implications (e.g. the distribution of singing and singin’)’ (Wardhaugh 2006:17)

According to Joshua Fishman in (https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190500001793) there are two branches of sociolinguistics which approach this issue in different ways. These two branches are interactionist and variationist sociolinguistics. Interactionist sociolinguistics is principally interested in what language use can tell us about social processes, and therefore a central concern is the social meaning of language use. Variationist sociolinguistics is interested in accounting for linguistic variation and change, at least partly as a product of the social distribution of language varieties. It is, therefore, less concerned with meaning.
as process, and more concerned with the interaction of linguistic and social system; in this view the significance of language is mainly symbolic.

Considerations other than grammatical correctness often govern speaker choices. For example, Sign this paper is a grammatically correct imperative sentence. However, a student approaching a teacher to obtain permission to drop a course, for reasons having nothing to do with grammar, will probably avoid the imperative — expressing the request instead as a statement or a question, such as I need to get your signature on this paper or Will you please sign this drop form?

Some social factors are attributes of the speaker — for example, age, gender, socio-economic class, ethnicity and educational level. Many studies have shown that these factors commonly correlate both with variation within the language itself (such as the pronunciation of final consonant clusters) and with variation in the use of language (such as the use of more or less formal vocabulary, depending on the audience). These findings match our everyday experience; most people are well aware that men and women use the language differently, that poor people often speak differently from rich people, and that educated people use language differently from uneducated people.

It is common knowledge that people also adjust the way they talk to their social situation. Socio-situational variation, sometimes called register, depends on the subject matter, the occasion and the relationship between
participants — in addition to the previously mentioned attributes of region, ethnicity, socioeconomic status, age and gender. Here are some examples.

Constraints on subject matter vary from culture to culture. In American English, it is fine to ask a child or a medical patient, “Have you had a bowel movement today?” However, the same question to an acquaintance might be coarse. Even a good friend would find it at the least peculiar. American English speakers must approach other subjects with care. They wouldn’t dare ask, for example, “Are you too fat for one plane seat?” “What’s your take-home pay?” “Are you sure you’re only 50?” “Do you have a personal relationship with Christ?”

Any of these questions posed at a cocktail party might draw a prompt “None of your business” — or something less polite. However, in other situations, between other participants, those same questions might be appropriate. A public-health official encouraging Americans to lose weight might well ask a general audience, “Are you too fat to fit in one plane seat?” A financial planner speaking to a client certainly should ask, “What is your take-home pay?”

Contact is an important concept in sociolinguistics — social contact and language contact. Language change spreads through networks of people who talk with one another. Tight-knit groups that keep to themselves tend not to promote change. Networks whose members also belong to other networks tend to promote change. People can live next door to one another and not participate
in the same network. In the segregated South, blacks and whites often lived on the same piece of land; blacks worked in the homes of whites. The physical distance was minimal, but the great social distance led to different varieties of American English.

Contact between languages brings about variation and change. Situations of language contact are usually socially complex, making them of interest to sociolinguists. When speakers of different languages come together, the results are determined in large part by the economic and political power of the speakers of each language. In the United States, English became the popular language from coast to coast, largely replacing colonial French and Spanish and the languages of Native Americans. In the Caribbean and perhaps in British North America where slavery was practiced, Africans learned the English of their masters as best they could, creating a language for immediate and limited communication called a pidgin. When Africans forgot or were forbidden to use.

2.1.3 Language Variation

An essential characteristic of language is variation. Sociolinguists stress that language varies not only in the sense that words can be combined together to form an infinite number of sentences or longer discourses, but also systematically, according to a range of factors such as age, sex, background of speakers, and the situation or social context where the language is used.
Language variation can be approached from a number of angles, including what the variation consists of, which groups display it, in which situations it occurs, and the approaches that can be taken to its analysis. The causes of variation are known as extra-linguistic variables and where there is a relationship between linguistic and extra-linguistic variables, this is sometimes referred to as co-variation.

We can identify three main types of extra-linguistic variable: speaker, group and situation. The sorts of speaker characteristic that are a backdrop to variation include age, gender, ethnic origin, social background, regional origin, level of education, occupation and religious persuasion. If variation exists between the language varieties of two or more groups, the sociolinguist needs to identify a pre-existing group membership. He/she might decide there are grounds for saying that these people belong to this group and as a result speak differently. Alternatively, there may be evidence that people belong to a group only by virtue of the fact that they speak differently.

The variability in language use found within a community of speakers and uncertainty about what constitutes ‘correct’ or acceptable usage often give clues to what aspects of language may change in the future.

Situational variables are observable where the same person speaks differently in different environments. Studying language from this angle often means thinking about the role or function that language is playing in a situation. This, in turn, means that we can gauge the status and mutual
familiarity of speakers and their reasons for needing to communicate, from the style or register that they use. Consider, for example, how a politician might speak to his parliamentary colleagues and to prospective voters. The linguistic variation might be seen in the manner of address, including the use of colloquialisms, jargon, and regionalisms, in the selection of topic and examples, and in the level of detail.

The concept of language variation is central in sociolinguistics. The English language varies on individual, regional, national and global levels. Unfortunately, some people are unaware of various social and regional dialects, and different varieties of English in the world. Understanding variation within a language is important for every member of our community, and especially for those who receive a college education. Sociolinguistics investigates all these language variations.

Different factors affect how a language is spoken within a country. They can be regional (geographical), ethnic (national and racial), and social (class, age, gender, socioeconomic status and education). All these factors are interconnected. They are reflected in every language variety’s pronunciation, vocabulary, grammatical constructions and syntax.

One of the common misunderstandings of speakers of any language is the question of standard and non-standard varieties of the language. The latter is often called a dialect, and people who speak it are considered to be inferior to the speakers of the standard variety.
It is erroneous to believe that the standard variety is the ‘correct’ one. Every language has dialects, and no dialect is substandard to other dialects. We all speak a dialect and we all have an accent.

All varieties of a language are systematic in their use, have a large number of speakers and thus have their right for existence. The term dialect refers to any variety of a language, and from the point of view of sociolinguistics, all dialects are equally correct, systematic, logical, and meaningful.

Besides all these variations, there are individual variations of language use that are called idiolects. We all have unique ways of speaking that reflect our personal identities. Through our linguistic choices we have an opportunity to express who we are and where we are from. Our language changes over time as it gets into contact with various idiolects of people who we interact with. It changes with our life experiences. There are no two speakers who speak exactly the same way.

However, people are often unaware of their own dialects/accents, and sometimes they negatively judge those whose ways of speaking differ from their own. Often, people who speak non-standard dialects are erroneously marked as being uneducated, not knowing English or having a speech pathology. This can lead to discrimination in professional and educational settings, and irreversible personal tragedies.
The issue of standard vs. non-standard variety of a language is not a linguistic one, but political. The standard dialect is associated with prestige in the society. That is why many people prefer it to other varieties. Some people feel pressured to use the standard dialect to conform to the rules of the society. However, some speakers of a non-standard dialect prefer to use it to demonstrate their sense of belonging to their community or social/ethnic group. These kinds of linguistic misperceptions are among the reasons why sociolinguistics is important to everyone in our society. People need to know more about how dialects work to avoid language prejudice.

The English language varies not only on individual and national levels but also even more on the global level. It is becoming the language of international communication and is acquiring the status of a global language. English is a major language because Great Britain and the United States have been powerful militarily, politically, and economically for the past two centuries. Crystal (2003:59) observed that English received its world status due to “the expansion of British colonial power […] and the emergence of the United States as the leading economic power of the twentieth century”. It is used worldwide in such areas as business, science, aviation, music, sport, and now the Internet. In spite of its popularity in the world, we need to remember that English is not superior to other languages, and the use of other languages should be respected.

Standard American and standard British English are just two of many varieties of the language. Many other varieties of English (so called Englishes)
can be found in countries across the world, as well as within each country where it is widely spoken.

Different varieties of English are used throughout the world. Kachru (1985) identified three concentric circles: (1) the Inner Circle, which includes countries where English is used as a primary language, such as the U.S. and Canada; (2) the Outer Circle, which consists of countries where English is used as a second or official language, such as India or Singapore; and (3) the Expanding Circle, which refers to countries where English is studied as a foreign language, such as Russia or China. According to Crystal (2003), non-native speakers of English outnumber native speakers of English. Therefore, it is important to understand that no variety is superior over another variety, and develop an increased tolerance for all varieties of English.

The study of sociolinguistics can build people’s awareness of different varieties of English and help us become more respectful to all other languages and their dialects.

2.1.4 Register

Register is one of language variations. Language varies according to the situation in which it is used, and these varieties of language can be referred to as registers. If we examine a text we can make guesses about the situation, on the other hand, if we are in a particular situation we make certain linguistic
choices based on that situation. In other words, the language we use needs to be appropriate to the situation in which we use it.

Wardhaugh (2006:52) stated that Registers are sets of language items associated with discrete occupational or social groups. Surgeons, airline pilots, bank managers, sales clerks, jazz fans, and pimps employ different registers. In Wardaugh (2006:52), Ferguson (1994: 20) says,

‘People participating in recurrent communication situations tend to develop similar vocabularies, similar features of intonation, and characteristic bits of syntax and phonology that they use in these situations.’ This kind of variety is a register.

For example the register in Harry Potter:

**Expelliarmus:** magic formula used to disarm the enemy's wound.

**Accio:** magic formula used to call something to come to us.

In one prominent model, Martin Joos (1961) in Wikipedia describes five styles in spoken English:

- **Frozen:** Also referred to as static register. Printed unchanging language, such as Biblical quotations, often contains archaisms. Examples are the Pledge of Allegiance of the United States of America and other "static" vocalizations that are recited in a ritualistic monotone. The wording is exactly the same every time it is spoken.

- **Formal:** One-way participation; no interruption; technical vocabulary or exact definitions are important; includes presentations or introductions between strangers.
• **Consultative:** Two-way participation; background information is provided – prior knowledge is not assumed. "Back-channel behavior" such as "uh huh", "I see", etc. is common. Interruptions are allowed. Examples include teacher/student, doctor/patient, expert/apprentice, etc.

• **Casual:** In-group friends and acquaintances; no background information provided; Ellipsis and slang common; interruptions common. This is common among friends in a social setting.

• **Intimate:** Non-public; intonation more important than wording or grammar; private vocabulary. Also includes non-verbal messages. This is most common among family members and close friends.

The linguist Michael Halliday divides the three variables that combine to form the register of the text into three categories ([ro.uow.edu.au](http://ro.uow.edu.au)):

- **Field:** what language is being used to talk about
- **Tenor:** who is talking
- **Mode:** how the talk is being conducted

The field includes:

The topic;

The interactants.

The topic of discourse can be:

Specialised/technical (e.g. talking about the environment etc.);

Everyday (e.g. talking about shopping etc.)

The interactants may have:

Specialised knowledge of the field (e.g. a scientist writing for an article for an academic journal);
Common knowledge of the field (e.g. the readers of a newspaper article).

The field determines the use of specialised language, for example whether technical terms or everyday terms are used. It is of course always important for a writer to think about his/her audience (who he/she is writing for), which may be specialist or wide-public. Look for example at these two examples, one from an academic journal and the other from a daily newspaper.

- **Tenor of discourse: the role relationships between the interactants**

  The relationships between the interactants vary according to:
  - Status (ranging from unequal as in the case of a boss/employee to equal as with friends);
  - Affective involvement (ranging from high as with friends/family members to low as with business clients);
  - Contact (ranging from frequent to occasional).

  The relationship between interactants influences the formality of the language.

- **Mode of discourse: the role language is playing in the interaction**

  Language can be:
  - Written;
  - Spoken;
  - Written to be spoken (e.g. a political speech).
Spontaneous (e.g. conversation);

Planned (e.g. a composition or article).

The level of **interactiveness** of language varies. There can be the possibility of having:

- Immediate feedback (e.g. conversation);
- Rapid feedback (e.g. emails);
- Delayed feedback (e.g. letters).

Language can:

- Accompany an action (e.g. saying *those* while pointing to something);
- Describe an experience (e.g. a news report).

In linguistics, one's register is a style or variety of language determined by such factors as social occasion, context, purpose, and audience, also called stylistic variation. Practically, the term refers to the degrees of formality with which populations use language; these formal variations are sometimes called codes.

Registers are marked by a variety of specialized vocabulary and turns of phrases, colloquialisms and the use of jargon, and a difference in intonation and pace; in "The Study of Language," Linguist George Yule describes the function of jargon as helping "to create and maintain connections among those who see themselves as 'insiders' in some way and to exclude 'outsiders.'"

To put it simply, a register can be considered a unique way a speaker uses language in different circumstances, from chatting at a fancy dinner party to
debating a topic in a classroom discussion. These differences help provide context to a conversation, adding flair to the art of discourse.

2.1.4.1. Language in Context

Linguistic registers primarily help a listener determine the context for the content of one's speech wherein the speaker's register is defined by the casualness or formality of tone, language, and grammar or the speech's intended use and audience.

Robert MacNeil describes the range of these registers to encompass everything from professional to intimate sounds couple makes in his book "Wordstruck: A Memoir." From the "very formal occasions, often requiring written English: the job application or the letter to the editor" to what MacNeil calls the "language with no clothes on; the talk of couples — murmurs, sighs, grunts," registers encompass all the ways in which humans communicate to one another in specific parameters.

Choosing which register to speak or write in is important in every attempt at communication. Harriet Joseph Ottenheimer states in "The Anthropology of Language: An Introduction to Linguistic Anthropology," that some registers may receive "more prestige than others, and some may be looked down on." As a result, it is pivotally important for a speaker to understand the audience before choosing a register to speak in.
2.1.4.2 Feature of Registers and Linguistic Style

Whether it is in writing, sign language, or verbal communication of any kind, a particular register is defined by certain lexical and grammatical characteristics as they compare to another localized language usage by a different population or in a different situation.

These characters include many linguistic classes, as Douglas Biber states in "Dimensions of Register Variation: A Cross-Linguistic Comparison." These include phonological features like pauses, intonation and speech patterns, tense and aspect markers, pronouns and pro-verbs, questions, nominal forms, passive constructions, dependent clauses, prepositional phrases, adjectives, adverbs, lexical classes, modals, reduced forms like contractions and that-deletions, coordination, negation and "grammatical devices for structuring information."

In order to form a complete understanding of a particular register, then, a linguist must consider what of these elements would constitute a truly "representative selection of linguistic features" wherein the analyses of these are "necessarily quantitative, because the associated register distinctions are based on differences in the relative distribution of linguistic features."

2.2 Review of Related Study

Phenomenon that occurs in Harry Potter movie is register. So, the writer use the theory of register in sociolinguistic to analyze the language that used by witchcraft in Harry Potter movie. So, to support my analysis, I read a thesis that
has the same problem and theory. The thesis is written by Umar Prahara Sakti in 2009 from Gadjah Mada University Yogyakarta. The title of the thesis is ‘Notation in Tekken Zaibatsu Internet Forum Register’. His first statement of problem is what are the use and meaning as well as the development of the notation that appears in Tekken Zaibatsu forum register. The second statement is significance of social factors in the occurrence of linguistic variations. To answer his statement of problem, he uses the theories of language variation, register, and social community. He collects the data research from 40 random posts from different members of taken from two different topics in the forum. He finds 38 different notation items from 32 posts. Those notations take the form of letters, numbers, and punctuation marks. Each of the items has its own distinct meaning. He also find several factors that are found to be relevant in the development of the register, such as Tekken Zaibatsu as informal community, Tekken as the participants’ shared interest and knowledge, and text as the form of utterances and Tekken Zaibatsu as internet forum. His thesis helps me to analyze the language that used by the witchcraft in Harry Potter movie using the theory of register in sociolinguistic.