

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Pragmatics

In communication requires to understand not only semantic meaning but also pragmatic meaning. Semantic is the literal meaning, as in dictionary and out of context (Cutting, 2002: 1). For pragmatic “This reflects the view that meaning is not something which is inherent in the words alone, nor is it produced by the speaker alone, nor by the hearer alone. Making meaning is a dynamic process, involving the negotiation of meaning between speaker and hearer, the context of utterance (physical, social and linguistic) and the meaning potential of an utterance” (Thomas, 2013: 22). It can simply say that the meaning in semantic is out of context, whereas the meaning in pragmatic is engaged with context, and other dynamic process.

In line with Grundy (2000: 19) “pragmatic study the way in which language is appropriate to the contexts in which it is used. Fortunately, language is under-determined enough to allow us to infer the way in which an utterance is to be understood in the context in which it occurs”. Supporting this idea, pragmatic as an approach to study language’s relation to the contextual background features (Cutting, 2002: 1). So that, we can sum up that in order to understand the meaning behind the utterance we need to understand the context in which it occur. This idea is supported by Cutting (2002) statement that emphasize the relation between language and contextual background features.

The assumption underlying this idea and, indeed, the whole discussion so far indicate that pragmatic as a meaning in context. Moreover, Mey (2001: 6) stated “pragmatics studies the use of language in human communication as determined by the conditions of society”. Furthermore, context in pragmatic defined by Mey (2001: 39) as a dynamic concept not a static concept; “it is to be understood as the continually changing surroundings, in the widest sense, that enable the participants in the communication process to interact, and in which the linguistic expressions of their interaction become intelligible”.

As stated above, that context in pragmatic is connected with the condition of society. Almost same with the idea of Verschueren (1999: 11) which present pragmatics as constituting a general functional (cognitive, social and cultural) perspective on language. So that, it is clear that context in pragmatic related to culture and society. Besides, Mey (2001) also points out that context in pragmatic is understood as a dynamic concept not a static concept.

Consequently, we can conclude the definition of pragmatic as a language approach to understand meaning of utterance that is influenced by the existence of dynamic context. In addition, in pragmatic there are some common topics such as Deixis, Implicature, and Speech Act. Speech act consider as a part of those topics because speech act examines the purpose of language in the social context (Cutting, 2002: 2)

2.2 Speech Act

2.2.1 Development of Speech Act

Discussing about speech act, it is always credited the philosopher from Oxford University which is called as 'father of pragmatics' that is Austin (1962: 94) with his statement that "By saying something, we are doing something". Besides, Yule (1996) acknowledged that by performing speech acts, people do not merely say something using the language out of the blue. Instead, they have intention and force behind the utterances they utter and those utterances may affect the behavior of the hearer. Moreover, "Speech acts are verbal action happening in the world" (Mey, 2001: 95). The main themes of Austin (1962) is the replacement of the original distinction between constative and performative by a general theory of speech act (Searle, 1968)

Austin divides utterance into two kinds that is Constative and Performative. Besides, Austin (1962) also states that constative can be judged as true or false condition. Then, for performative it can be judged as the happy and unhappy. Simply say, constative can be measured by the truth condition. Then, performative can be measured by the felicity condition or sincerity condition. Performative, later on become the pioneer for Speech Act term. It is supported by this statement "By means of the performative hypothesis Austin had been able to demonstrate that people do not use language just to make statements about the world; they also use language to perform actions, actions which affect or change the world in some way" (Thomas, 2013: 44). Nevertheless, "Speech act might be seen as a prototypically pragmatic

phenomenon in the sense that they challenge the notion that there is a one-to-one correspondence between a form and its function”(Grundy, 2000: 68)

Indeed, the definition of speech act related to pragmatic is still unclear according to Austin. Moreover, Austin (1962) mostly explains the development of term ‘speech act’ and how it becomes ‘speech act’. Austin more focus in defines what is actually speech act. But still, the definition of speech act, he still relates it with pragmatic. It is proven through how he tries to distinguish between performative and constative, there is device of ‘circumstances of utterance’. Actually, this term is related to context.

Constative, defines as the word that is assessed according to the fact or the truth condition. There is the term of proposition that is correspondence to the fact. Proposition as requirement of constative. Also, proposition is categorized as statement. Besides, a statement is an utterance which asserts the truth of or ascribes a purpose to a state of affairs. Obviously, the truth or falsity of the assertion, ascription, or reference can be determined by comparing the utterance to the original person, event, or activity talked about.(Lanigan, 1977)

Performative according to Austin (1962) has the condition such as a) they do not describe or report or constate anything at all, are not true or false, and b) the uttering of the sentence is, or is a part of, the doing of an action, which again would not normally be described as saying something(Austin, 1962: 5). Also, sometime it called as Imperative, this term is derived from perform the usual verb with the noun

action: “it indicates that the issuing of the utterance is the performing of an action – it is not normally thought of as just saying something”(Austin, 1962: 6) .

Bear in mind, Austin determines the requirement for performative act that is felicity condition. If performative cannot be judged as true or false it not mean that we cannot criticize performative. Bu still, we can criticize through felicity condition. So that, how we can determine performative as unhappy through infelicity condition. Besides, some of performative such as ‘ritual’ and ‘collaborative’ are fail because the requisite felicity condition do no exist (Thomas, 2013: 45)

Still from Austin (1962: 14–15), we can consider the utterance as the happy condition if they fullfilled one or all of this six condition. On the contrary, if it is not fullfilled so it will be recognized as the unhappy condition. These are:

- a. 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, and further,
- b. the particular persons and circumstances in a given case must be appropriate for the invocation of the particular procedure invoked.
- c. The procedure must be executed by all participants both correctly and
- d. completely.
- e. Where, as often, the procedure is designed for use by persons having certain thoughts or feelings, or for the inauguration of certain consequential conduct on the part of any participant, then a person participating in and so invoking

the procedure must in fact have those thoughts or feelings, and the participants must intend so to conduct themselves, and further

- f. must actually so conduct themselves subsequently

Those six procedures later on no longer appropriate as the procedure to distinguish between performative and constative. “Where the procedure was invoked in inappropriate circumstances; and where the procedure was faultily executed or incompletely executed.”(Austin, 1962: 39). However, the last rule of the types that is insincerities and infractions or breaches. Austin say that this type, the performance is not void although it is still unhappy. These are:

- a. Where, as often, the procedure is designed for use by persons having certain thoughts or feelings, or for the inauguration of certain consequential conduct on the part of any participant, then a person participating in and so invoking the procedure must in fact have those thoughts or feelings, and the participants must intend so to conduct themselves, and further
 - b. must actually so conduct themselves subsequently

Furthermore, according to Austin (1962: 40) from this type in (a) we can consider these three points:

- 1) Feelings

Examples of not having the requisite feelings are:

‘I congratulate you’, said when I did not feel at all pleased, perhaps even was annoyed.

'I condole with you', said when I did not really sympathize with you.

The circumstances here are in order to and the act is performed, not void, but it is actually insincere; I had no business to congratulate you or to condole with you, feeling as I did.

2) Thoughts

Examples of not having the requisite thoughts are:

'I advise you to', said when I do not think it would be the course most expedient for you.

'I find him not guilty – I acquire', said when I do believe that he was guilty.

These acts are not void. I do advise and bring a verdict, though insincerely. Here, there is an obvious parallel with one element in lying, in performing a speech-act of an assertive kind.

3) Intentions

Examples of not having the requisite intentions are:

'I promise', said when I do not intend to pay.

'I declare war', said when I do not intend to fight.

It is necessary to distinguish between constative and performative because both of them become overlap. In English, there is the difference marked by the use of non-continuous present in Performative formula. So that it will say that 'I am running' it can be judged true (constative), then 'I apologize' as the happiness (performative). However, it is appearance the distinction, if 'I apologize' is happy

then 'I am apologizing' is true. In Austin (1968: 47–48) Later on, to distinct both of saying and doing there are three ways:

1) Entails

'All men blush' entails 'some man blush' we cannot say 'All men blush but not any men blush' or 'the cat is under the mat and the cat is on top of the mat' or 'the cat is on the mat and the cat is not on the mat', since in each case the first clause entails the contradictory of the second.

2) Implies

My saying 'the cat is on the mat' implies that I believe it is, in a sense of 'implies' just noticed by G.E. Moore. We cannot say 'the cat is on the mat but I do not believe it is' (This is actually not the ordinary use of 'implies' : 'implies' is really weaker: as when we say 'He implied that I did not know it' or 'You implied you knew it (as distinct from believing it)').

3) Presupposes

'All Jack's children are bald' presupposes that Jack has some children. We cannot say that 'All Jack's children are bald but Jack has no children', or 'Jack has no children and all his children are bald'.

Furthermore, entails show the contradiction if A entails B, or if A contradict with not A. From this formula, somehow we can say that this formula to criticize whether the certain sentence is true or false. So we can say that this formula for constantive. Then implies in case of 'the cat is on the mat but I do not believe it is' this case show insincerity. In another word, the unhappinessis existed. It is the same

case with ‘ I promise’ without intend with to saying without believing. Meanwhile, for presupposes the case ‘All Jack’s children are all bald’ made when Jack has no children apparently “it is not false, because it is devoid of reference: the reference is necessary either truth or falsehood.”(Austin, 1962: 50).

However, the theory of Austin which try to distinguish between constative and performative is criticized by Searle. Searle (1968) stated that the distinction of Austin between constative and performative only show is collapses. Austin say that constative can be true or false and performative cannot be true or false but felicitous or infelicitous. Searle found that Austin research show certain performative can be true or false such as warning, and constative can assessed as felicitous or infelicitous, for example in sentence “All John’s children are asleep” is infelicitous if John has no children. So that, “Statements, descriptions, and so forth are only other classes of illocutionary acts on all fours, as illocutionary acts, with promises, commands, apologies, bets, and warnings” (Searle, 1968)

Therefore, from those ways, we can take the point that :

In order to explain what can go wrong with statements we cannot just concentrate on the proposition involved (whatever it is) as has been done traditionally. We must consider the total situation in which the utterance is issued- the total speech act- if we are to see the parallel between statements and performatives utterances, and how each can go wrong. Perhaps indeed there is no great distinction between statements and performative utterances.(Austin, 1962: 52)

In the previously Austin determines the way to distinguish performative is that it is use all with verbs in the first person singular present indicative active. Such

as ‘I name’, ‘I bet’, ‘I do’, ‘I give’. This is the way to distinguish use grammatical. Present for performative and present continuous for constative. In addition, we can distinguish it from the vocabulary. In performatives we can simply use ‘Turn right’ rather than ‘I order you to turn right’, ‘you are off-side’ rather than ‘ I pronounce you off-side’. The vocabulary such as ‘off-side’, ‘authorized’, ‘promise’, ‘dangerous’,. These words are used to a test of performative utterance. Later on, this way called as explicit performatives. These some of the device of explicit performatives:

1) Mood

In the beginning, we know the term of imperative mood. It makes the utterance of ‘command’. ‘shut in’ can in any contexts such as order, advice, permit, consent, and give permission.

2) The tone of voice, cadence, emphasis

This is the sophisticated device of using stage directions for instance ‘threateningly’. These spoken language features. The use of punctuation, italic, and word order may help.

‘It’s going to charge!’(a warning)

‘It’s going to charge?’(a question)

‘It’s going to charge!?’(a protest)

3) Adverbs and adverbial phrases

In written language even spoken a language not so depend on the adverb, adverbial phrases or turn on phrases. “Much could be said about the connexions here with the phenomena of evincing, intimating, insinuation,

innuendo, giving to understand, enabling to infer, conveying, 'expressing' all of it different though they involve the employment of very often the same or similar verbal devices and circumlocutions" (Austin, 1962)

4) Connecting particles

The using of connecting particle became very sophisticated. We may use particle 'still' with the force of 'I insist that'; we use 'therefore' with the force 'I conclude that', we use 'although with the force of 'I concede that'. Also, the use of 'whereas', 'hereby', and 'moreover'.

5) Accompaniments of the utterance

The importance of gesture such as winks, pointings, shruggings, frowns is obvious. Sometimes we use it to accompany our utterance or by ceremonial non-verbal actions.

6) The circumstances of the utterance

In here, we talk about context, the example to convey 'I shall die someday' we may say 'coming from him, I took it as an order, not as a request' or somehow 'I shall leave you my watch'.

Explicit performative, that is the performative with the use of verb 'I baptize' and 'I promise'. In here, the use of first-person singular person indicative active based on the requirement of Austin. Meanwhile, for implicit performatives or primary performatives are performative in which there is 'promise' behind the utterance such

as in sentence 'I'll go to Como'. In this utterance actually there is the meaning of promise (Verschueren, 1999: 25)

Furthermore, it is still difficult to distinguish performative from constative. Then, it appears the term of 'sense' and 'reference'. Austin defines 'sense' as a meaning in utterance. Actually this discussion is very important not only for philosopher but also for grammarian and phonetician. Austin made three rough distinctions between the phonetic act, the phatic act, and the rhetic act. "The phonetic act is merely the act of uttering certain noises. The phatic act is the uttering of certain vocables or words, i.e. noises of certain types, belonging to and as belonging to, a certain vocabulary, conforming to and as conforming to a certain grammar. The rhetic act is the performance of an act of using those vocables with a certain more-or-less definite sense and reference". Three of these are part of locutionary act. Besides, Speech act is structure of performance in which to say the action of a human agent whose intention to communicate with the use of language creates a situation at various levels of understanding. In here, the various levels of understanding are phones, phemes, rhemes. (Lanigan, 1977)

However, Searle (1968) replaces the term of rhetic in locutionary act with illocutionary act. It is because the consideration of "He told me to X" consists of command, request, advise which is illocutionary act. Furthermore, the term of proposition in constative which involves "correspondence to the facts" is categorized not merely as statement. Searle distinguishes proposition from illocutionary act. In here,

proposition as constative and illocutionary act as performative. Bear in mind “Austin's most important discoveries, the discovery that constatives are illocutionary acts as well as performatives, or, in short, the discovery that statements are speech acts”(Searle, 1968). So that, it indicates that because statement is true or false, every true or false is speech act. Therefore, there are two kinds of statements that is statement-acts are speech acts and statement objects (as well as proposition) are what can true or false.

Later, those case became the weaknesses of Austin’s theory of truth (Searle, 1968). The statement-acts are not true or false is illocutionary act. Then, the statement-object that is true or false is proposition. Moreover, the collapses of Austin theory also acknowledged by Thomas (2013: 44) “the notion that only performative verbs could be used to perform actions was untenable. Austin's performative hypothesis collapsed for a number of rather different sorts of reasons:(i) There is no formal (grammatical) way of distinguishing performative verbs from other sorts of verbs. (ii) The presence of a performative verb does not guarantee that the specified action is performed.(iii) There are ways of 'doing things with words' which do not involve using performative verbs”. Therefore, “When we try to categorize utterances in term of speech act we often find that there is an overlap, that one utterance can fall into more than one macro-class”(Cutting, 2002: 21).

Later on, Austin (1962: 101) introduces the term of :

- 1) Locutionary Act: “He said to me ‘Shoot her!’ meaning by ‘shoot’ shoots and referring by ‘her’ to her”.
- 2) Illocutionary Act: “He urged (advised or ordered) me to shoot her”.
- 3) Perlocutionary Act :“He persuade me to shoot her”,“He got me to (or made me to) shoot her”.

Still in line, Austin(1962)distinguish three of them, Locutionary act, which roughly equivalent to uttering a certain sentence with a certain sense and reference, which again is roughly equivalent to ‘meaning’ in the traditional sense. Then, Illocutionary act such as informing, ordering warning, undertaking, utterance which have a certain (conventional) force. Lastly, Perlocutionary act what we bring about or achieve by saying something, such as convincing, persuading, deterring and even, say, surprising or misleading.

Moreover Austin (1962: 120) states that “ we distinguished the locutionary act (and within in the phonetic, the phatic, and the rhetic acts) which has a meaning; the illocutionary act which has a certain force in saying something;theperlocutionary act which is the achieving of certain effects by saying something”. In the other side, Searle (1968) states that the distinction between locutionary and illocutionary are not general, it is because some locutionary acts are illocutionary acts. ThoughtSearle (1968) not too certain that Austin was successful in characterizing the distinction between locutionary and illocutionary act. But still, there is the real distinction which underlie his effort as in his statement “the distinction between what a sentence means

and what the speaker may mean in uttering it, with the special case of serious literal utterance where the meaning of the sentence uttered does not completely exhaust the illocutionary intentions of the speaker in making the utterance”.

Consequently, we can conclude that the development of speech act is pioneered by term of ‘performative’. According to Austin (1962) start from performative and constative, then how to distinguish it. Finally, appear the term of locutionary, illocutionary, and perlocutionary. Illocutionary become the term of speech act. It is supported by Thomas(2013: 51)in his statement. “Today the term 'speech act' is used to mean the same as 'illocutionary act' — in fact, you will find the terms speech act, illocutionary act, illocutionary force, pragmatic force or just force, all used to mean the same thing — although the use of one rather than another may imply different theoretical positions”. Besides, “ illocutionary force is what has occupied speech act theorists most”(Mey, 2001: 96)

2.2.2 Speech Act Classification

The classification of speech act is firstly started with the appearance of three major terms locutionary, illocutionary, and perlocutionary act. These are three main points in the development of speech act which firstly introduced by Austin (1968). According to Thomas (2013) locution means the actual words uttered, illocution means the force or intention behind the words, and perlocution means the effect of the illocution on the hearer. Apparently, some of Austin theory become collapses in any case especially the inconsistency of locutionary and illocutionary distinction.

Therefore, Searle(1968) gives some clear distinctions between illocutionary acts and propositional acts through involves some philosophical issues such as the nature of statement, the way truth and falsehood relate to statement, and the way what sentences mean relates to what speakers mean when they utter sentences. Furthermore, illocutionary acts become the main pioneer of speech act term.

Moreover, Austin (1968) introduces the taxonomy of illocutionary acts. However its found some of confusing and overlapping between illocutionary acts and illocutionary verbs (Searle, 1976). They are Verdictives, Exercitives, Commissive, Expositives, and Behabitives. The weakness of Austin Taxonomy is that there is no clear distinction between illocutionary acts and illocutionary verbs. For instance the word 'announce'. Actually 'announce' is not illocutionary acts but illocutionary verbs. Illocutionary verbs is the way some illocutionary acts is performed (Searle, 1976). Illocutionary acts such as ordering, promising, reporting. We can involve all of those illocutionary acts while announcing. We can simply say in announcement including reporting, promising, and ordering. So that, Searle brought new taxonomy considering illocutionary point, and its corollaries, direction of fit and expressed sincerity conditions, as the basis for constructing a classification.

These are some classification of illocutionary acts according to Searle(1976).

a. Representatives

The purpose of representatives is to commit the speaker to something's being the case to the truth of the expressed proposition. All of the members of representaives are accessible with dimension of assessment

including true or false. So that the test to prove representatives is ‘can you literally characterize it as true or false?’. The psychological state expressed is ‘belief’. Representatives will emphasize word ‘belief’ and ‘commitment’. Representatives contain most of Austin’s expositives and many of verdictives. Moreover, According to Cutting (2002)“ these are acts in which the words state what the speakers believe to be the case, such as describing, claiming, hypothesizing, insisting, and predicting”. Besides, Lanigan(1977) states that this class includes statements, assertions, explanations, descriptions, and characterizations.

b. Directives

The propositional content is always that the hearer H does some future action A. The verbs of directives such as order, command, request, beg, plead, pray, entreat, invite, permit, and advice. Austin list as behabitives such as defy and challenge are in this class. Austin’s exercitives in this class as well. The sincerity or psychological state expressed are want or (wish or desire). Directives are acts in which the words are aimed to ask the hearer to do something including commanding, requesting, inviting, forbidding, suggesting (Cutting, 2002)

c. Commissives

The purpose of commissives are to commit the speaker to some future course of action. The psychological state expressed is intention. Both of

directive and commissive are members of the same category. Both of them are obligative, but for commissives the obligation is created in the speaker not in the hearer (Mey, 2001). The verbs such as promise and request. Commissives are acts in which the words commit the speaker to future action for instance promising, offering, threatening, refusing, vowing, and volunteering (Cutting, 2002). Besides, this words including pledges, contracts, guarantees (Lanigan, 1977)

d. Expressives

The purpose of expressives are to express the psychological state specified in the sincerity condition about state of affairs specified in the propositional content. Expressives verbs are thank, congratulate, apologize, condole, deplore and welcome. Expressives are acts which the words state what speaker feels such as apologizing, praising, congratulating, deploring, and regretting. (Cutting, 2002). Moreover, in according to Lanigan (1977) the paradigm of expressives are thanks, condolences, welcomes, greetings, and applause.

e. Declaratives

Declarations means successful performance of one its members ring about the correspondence between the propositional content and reality, successful performance guarantees that the propositional content correspond to the world. In declarations is needed to involve extralinguistic institutions such as church, the law, private property, the state and a special position of

speaker and hearer within these institutions that one can excommunicate, appoint, give, and bequeath one's possessions or declare war. Moreover, Cutting (2002) determine that Declarations are words and expression that change the world with their very utterance such as 'I bet', 'I declare', 'I resign', 'I baptize' and so on. Lanigan(1977) support Austin previous statement "Examples are declaring war, pronouncing someone man and wife, adjourning a meeting, excommunicating, christening, appointing, resigning and nominating. It is a general feature of Declarations that they require an extralinguistic institution for their performance".

In this research the researcher use the classification of speech act of Searle. So that, in this research there are five types of speech act that is commissive, assertive, directive, expressive, and declarative. In addition, in radio many of Phatic acts, so that the researcher also use Phatic coming from Kreidler(1998). In Kreidler(1998) Phatic is necessarily expression of deep feeling on the part of speaker such as 'nice to meet you', 'you're welcome', 'excuse me', even include all sorts of comments on the weather, asking about someone's health, and whatever is usual, and therefore expected, in a particular society. Phatic also include phrases for conveying good wishes for someone starting eat meal, beginning a voyage, undertaking a new venture, or celebrating a personal or society holiday.

2.3 English Voice as Informal Learning Program

According to Schugurensky(2000)“In the concept of 'informal learning' it is important to note that we are deliberately using the word 'learning' and not 'education', because in the processes of informal learning there are not educational institutions, institutionally authorized instructors or prescribed curricula. It is also pertinent to note that we are saying 'outside the curricula of educational institutions' and not 'outside educational institutions', because informal learning can also take place inside formal and non-formal educational institutions. In that case, however, the learnings occur independently (and sometimes against) the intended goals of the explicit curriculum”.

Different with formal and non-formal which is involve the curricula informal learning is not. If we say no-formal learning as the residual category in which anything that is not formal education. However, informal learning is residual category of residual category in which anything that is neither formal nor non-formal. However, it is in this sphere, so disregarded and so under-researched, where most of the significant learnings that we apply to our everyday lives are learned. (Schugurensky, 2000)

On the other hand “People are learning all the time, in varied settings and often most effectively in the context of work itself. ‘Training’—formal learning of all kinds—channels some important learning but doesn’t carry the heaviest load. The workhorse of the knowledge economy has been, and continues to be, informal learning.”(Cross, 2007)

Furthermore Schugurensky(2000) suggest two main categories that is intentionality and consciousness. It is possible to develop a taxonomy which identifies three forms of informal learning : self-directed learning, incidental learning, and socialization. What follows is a brief conceptualization of each one of the three forms of informal learning, and five examples to illustrate each form.

1. Self-directed learning

Self-directed learning refers to 'learning projects' undertaken by individuals (alone or as part of a group) without the assistance of an 'educator' (teacher, instructor, facilitator), but it can include the presence of a 'resource person' who does not regard herself or himself as an educator. It is both intentional and conscious. It is intentional because the individual has the purpose of learning something even before the learning process begins, and it is conscious, in the sense that the individual is aware that she or he has learned something.

Examples:

- a) A toddler decides that she wants to start putting her socks on by herself, and after many attempts finally succeeds.
- b) A group of high school students enrolled in a conservative school and living under a military regime organize themselves in a clandestine study group to learn about political economy, and meet regularly to discuss readings.
- c) A person wants to learn more about a historical event, and to do so reads books and archival documents, watches movies and videos, goes to museums and talks to people who participated or witnessed those events.

- d) A group of friends wants to make a special dish for dinner, and then looks for a recipe in a cookbook or on the internet, and calls the grandmother of one of them to clarify a doubt.
- e) A group of neighbours wants to get their street paved, and then set out to learn collectively the different steps that they must take to influence municipal decision.

The Forms of Informal Learning:

Making, reading documents, talking with councillors, meeting with leaders of other neighbourhoods, etc.

2. Incidental learning

Incidental learning refers to learning experiences that occur when the learner did not have any previous intention of learning something out of that experience, but after the experience she or he becomes aware that some learning has taken place. Thus, it is unintentional but conscious.

Examples:

- a) A toddler touches a hot iron and immediately learns that it is not wise to do it again.
- b) A teacher coming from a traditional teacher training program starts working in a progressive school and after enough exposure to this environment begins to challenge some of the initial assumptions about teaching, learning and the curriculum.

- c) A person is watching the news and there is a documentary about the unfair treatment that ethnic group received during a particular period, a historical fact that the viewer was unaware of before.
- d) A group of friends are at a party and a child is choking. One of the parents applies first aids and child stops choking. Members of the group ask some questions about the procedure and the physiological reasons behind it. They become immediately aware that they learned something new that they could apply if required.
- e) A group of neighbours participate in local democracy, and through this process they learn about municipal politics; although they didn't join the process with a learning objective in mind, they realize that they have gained new skills and knowledge that allow them to participate more effectively in democratic deliberation and decision-making.

3. Socialization

Socialization (also referred to as tacit learning) refers to the internalization of values, attitudes, behaviors, skills, etc. that occur during everyday life. Not only we have no a priori intention of acquiring them, but we are not aware that we learned something.

Examples:

- a) A toddler learns to speak a first language, or child acquires eating habits (e.g. not to eat insects), without being aware that those were learning processes in which imitation played an important role.

- b) An elementary school teacher has different expectations of male and female students, and treats them differently, and neither the teacher nor the students are aware of the impact of the hidden curriculum in gender role socialization.
- c) A group of friends meet regularly to play a particular sport or game, and after many years become particularly skilful, without noticing that it was a long learning process.
- d) Residents attend regular neighbourhood meetings in which the professional politician listens to demands and promises favors in exchange for votes; after many years of these practices, the culture of clientelism is rooted in both politicians and residents, but it is so ingrained in everyday practice that people assume that such is the only natural way to do politics.

Therefore, Schugurensky(2000) emphasizes that it is pertinent to note that although learning through socialization is usually an unconscious process, we can become aware of that learning later on through a process of retrospective recognition, which could be internal and/or external. For instance, by being exposed to a different social environment, a person can be prompted to recognize that she or he has certain prejudices and biases that were the product of primary socialization. Likewise, some people may not be aware that they have learned something in a particular experience until they have a conversation with a person who asks questions about their learnings, eliciting retrospective recognition.

Schugurensky(2000) also says that " Learners can use a variety of sources for their learning, including books, newspapers, TV, Radio, the internet, museums,

schools, universities, friends, relatives, their own experience, etc.”In Schugurensky(2000) previous statement, he stated that Radio include in a source of learning. So that, it is clear that English voice program that is radio program is appropriate with the characteristic of informal learning.In addition, based on preliminary research english voice program has the characteristic such as incidental learning, it is because the learning project is undertaken by the learner itself without any guidance from educator. Besides, the hearer will listen program based on their necessary and intention. It shows the characteristic of self-directed as well, hearer can learn something from this everyday life as socialization characteristic. Consequently, we can say that english voice program is categorized as informal learning program.

Moreover, Cuinen, et al.(2015: 34) In the features of informal learning, learning content should be practical knowledge, individual/implicit knowledge, and daily/pragmatic knowledge.In previous statement informal learning should has the features of content daily/pragmatic knowledge. So that, the speech act that is part of pragmatic can be considered as the part of those content. Therefore, we can say that speech act as content of features in informal learning (English voice program). Subsequently, we can categorize English voice program as informal learning. Hence,we, in here analyze speech act in the context of English voice program in which informal learning.