The Analysis of Implicatures Found In Conversation Between Lecturers and Students from Youtube

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Abstract: *The purposes of this study were to investigate types of implicatures and conversational implicatures that occurred in selected videos. Qualitative research methodology was employed in this study. The participants were two lecturers and two students from two different videos. This study was considered as interaction analysis since it analyzed interaction between addresser and addressee. The results of identification indicate that conventional implicatures are more dominant compare to conversational implicatures. For types of conversational implicature, generalized conversational implicatures are more dominant than particularized conversational implicatures.*
Keywords: *implicatures, conversational implicatures, conventional implicatures*

I. Introduction

Communication plays a very crucial role in human life. It is the basis of all events, daily interactions, and social affairs. It helps human to share the information each other and also build a good relationship between humans. Communication is usually defined as conversation, namely for sending and receiving message. Precisely, it may be intentional or unintentional, may involve conventional or unconventional signals, may take linguistic or non-linguistic forms, and may occur through spoken or other modes (Ayunon, 2018). People are said to be in communication when they discuss some matter, or when they talk on telephone, or when they exchange information through letters. The exchange of thoughts and ideas can be had by gestures, signs, signals, speech or writing. In fact, communication is sharing information, whether in writing or orally.

Communication can occur instantaneously in closed, intimate settings or over great periods of time in large public forums, like the Internet. However, all forms of communication require the same basic elements: a speaker or sender of information, a message, and an audience or recipient; although, the receiver does not have to be present or aware of the sender's intent to communicate at the time of communication. Thus, communication can occur across vast distances in time and space (Velentzas & Broni, 2010).

Hence, during the communication it indirectly requires the listener to comprehend the implicit meaning that is produced by the speaker. It is common what person says or writes is not always what he or she actually means. Sometimes statements or writings mean much more than what they actually literally say or write. According to Speaks (2008) what a speaker says, means, asserts, or conveys by an utterance of a sentence can go beyond what the sentence means (semantically expresses) in a context. Context is the responsibility of the hearer who accesses the information in order to process an utterance, on the assumption that has made by the speaker (Black, 2006). In pragmatics, phenomenon when the speaker utters implicit meaning is defined as implicature. The term "implicature" is derived from the word "implicate" whose primitive meaning was "intervene, entangle, involve", other than the literal meaning, implicature described the implicit meaning or the meaning implied (Wang, 2011).

On top of that, implicature is under discussion of cooperative principles which is assumed as the result of violation of maxim typically maxim of quantity, maxim of quality, maxim of relevance, and maxim of manner. However, Grice in Ayunon (2018) clearly pointed out that not all people observe the maxims. When people fail to observe the maxims, it might lead to the creation of an implicature. Implicature therefore arises as a result of non-observance of the maxims. In this case, speakers choose not to observe one or more maxims with the deliberate intention of creating an implicature. When violating the cooperative maxims, the speaker so innately desires his/her recipient to understand and uncover the hidden meaning behind the utterances. This means that when a speaker violates the maxims, he/she is not trying to mislead, deceive or be uncooperative but rather prompting the listener to look for meaning beyond the semantic level.

There are several types of implicature in Pragmatics. Yule (1996) wrote that implicature has some types: conversational implicatures and conventional implicatures. Conversational implicatures are what a speaker means by an utterance can be divided into what the speaker "says" and what the speaker thereby "implicates (Grice in Igwedibia, 2018). Conversational implicatures has two kinds: generalized conversational implicatures

and particularized conversational implicatures. Generalized conversational implicatures arises when utterances produced by the speaker give implied meaning based on context. A number of other generalized conversational implicatures are commonly communicated on the basis of a scale of values and are consequently known as scalar implicatures. On the other hand, particularized conversational implicatures depend on knowing certain context in which conversation occurs. On the contrary, conventional implicatures are associated with specific words typically conjunctions (*but, and, so, therefore, even*) and result in additional conveyed meanings when those words are used. Based on the explanation above, analyzing and discussing about implicatures and its types are interesting to be done since implicatures often arise in formal or informal conversation additionally each participant in conversation has to have ability to extract implicatures; nevertheless, this would give them a better understanding of whatever meaning is expressed in the conversations they are engaged in.

Conversations allow the exchange of information between a speaker and a hearer. When one engages in a conversation, he or she is expected to respond by giving the needed information in order to make a meaningful conversation. The major aim of communication is considered the exchange of information. The cooperation extended by speakers and hearers in a communication process may be attributed to their need to convey their intentions and implicit import of their utterances. Therefore, it can be said that things being equal, conversations are cooperative attempts based on a common ground and pursuing a shared purpose. Thus, the main reason that triggers this current study to focus on analyzing implicatures and its types is the probability of occurrence of implicatures in conversation are high yet no research has explored conversations between lecturers and students that are posted on YouTube. YouTube has been widely considered as a media which let many people to get information, useful content, and entertainment or share their experience. It provides several videos which can be accessed freely and through this application, some videos which focus on conversations between lecturers and students are found and those videos are interesting to be explored in terms of implicatures. This is done in order to find types of implicatures and uncover hidden meaning furthermore to enrich data in pragmatics study.

II.   Literature Review

This part explains several concepts of implicatures, its types, and context in order to give insight to the readers and for better understanding as follows:

a.   Implicature

Implicature is implicit meaning of an utterance that is produced by the speaker. Implicature occurs when the sender wants to convey something in an implicit or indirect way in a conversation. Implicatures are divided into two distinct categories: conversational implicature and conventional implicature.

-   Conversational Implicatures

What a speaker means by an utterance can be divided into what the speaker "says" and what the speaker thereby "implicates." This result in what Grice (1967) calls Conversational Implicature. To conversationally implicate something, is to mean something that goes beyond what one says in such a way that it must be inferred from non-linguistic features of a conversational situation together with general principles of communication and cooperation. A conversational implicature is therefore something which is implied in conversation and something left implicit in actual language use.

Conversational implicature could be tested by calculability, cancellability, non-detachability, and non-conventionality. First of all, calculability means we can calculate the implicature from the utterance. We get across the meaning of sentence through not only the semantic meaning but also the implied meaning, namely, hearer could infer the speaker's intention although there seems no direct connection between the conversations. Then, cancellability is also known as defeasibility. We know that the occurrence of a conversational implicature depends on many factors: the conventional meaning of words used, the Cooperative Principle, the situational and linguistic context, etc. Therefore, if one of them changes, the implicature will also vary. Additionally, non-detachability means that a conversational implicature is related to the semantic content of what is said and the context, not to the linguistic form. Therefore, if we use the synonyms to replace a few words, the implicature will be unchanged. In other words, an implicature will not be lost or get away from the utterance completely, even if the specific words may be changed. Last, non-conventionality, contrast to the conventional meaning, is varied according to the context. It is an implied meaning and sometimes accord with the convention, while sometimes totally opposites the other. There are two types of conversational implicatures: generalized conversational implicatures and particularized conversational implicatures.

1)   Generalized Conversational Implicatures

Generalized conversational implicatures arise when utterances produced by the speaker give implied meaning based on context. However, it occurs without reference to any particular features of the context (Levin-

son, 1983). In other words, special background knowledge or inferences are not required in calculating the additional conveyed meaning. The application of a certain form of words in an utterance (in the absence of special circumstances) would normally carry such implicature or type of implicature and it is characteristic of generalized conversational implicatures (Grice, 1989).

According to Levinson (2000) generalized conversational implicatures are divided into three heuristics: Q-implicature, I-implicature, and M-implicature which the classification is based on Grice's maxims. The first heuristic ("What isn't said, isn't") is more or less transparently related to Grice's first Maxim of Quantity, QI: Make your contribution as informative as is required. Grice's QI maxim is the one normally held to be responsible for the classic scalar implicatures. A number of other generalized conversational implicature are commonly communicated on the basis of a scale of values and are consequently known as scalar implicature. The basis of scalar implicature is that, when any form in a scale is asserted, the negative of all forms higher on the scale is implicated. It is expressed the quantity such as; *all, most, some, few, always, often, sometimes*. Some classic examples of scales include numerals (…three, two, one), modals (necessarily, possibly, must, should, may), adverbs (always, often, sometimes), and degree adjectives (hot, warm), degree adjectives (hot, warm) and verbs of ranking (know, believe, love, like) or completion (start, finish (Papafrogu & Musolino, 2003). The second heuristic ("What is expressed simply is stereotypically exemplified") may be related directly to Grice's second Maxim of Quantity, Q2: Do not make your contribution more informative than is required. The underlying idea is, of course, that one need not say what can be taken for granted. One common example involves any phrases with an indefinite article of the type 'a/an X' and any phrase with it is typically interpreted according to the generalized conversational implicature that: a/an X +> not speaker's X. The third heuristic ("What's said in an abnormal way isn't normal") can be related directly to Grice's maxim of Manner ("Be perspicuous"), specifically to his first submaxim "avoid obscurity of expression" and his fourth "avoid prolixity."

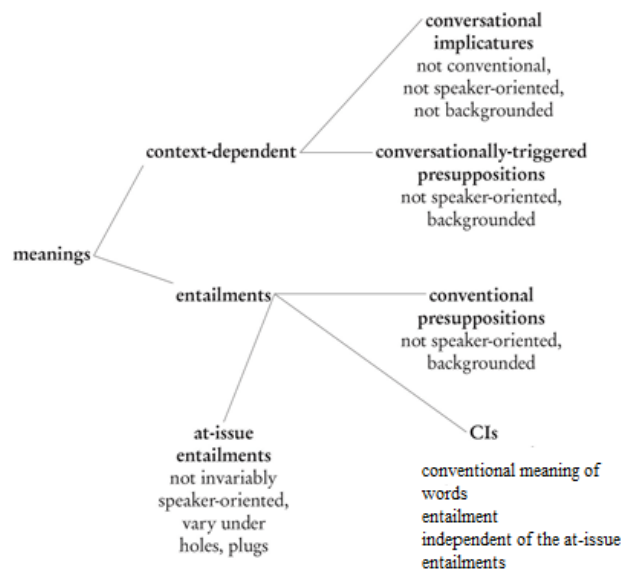## 2)   Particularized Conversational Implicatures

Particularized conversational implicature is strongly tied to the particular features of the context. In this specific context, locally recognized inferences are assumed. Such inferences are required to work out the conveyed meanings that result from particularized conversational implicatures. In conclusion, particularized conversational implicature is a kind of conversational implicature that depends on special or local knowledge in very specific context in conversation. As a component of a speaker's meaning that constitutes an aspect of what is meant in an utterance, particularized conversational implicature is not part of what is said. A particularized conversational implicature is connected to a speaker's deliberate violation of a maxim, with the supposition that this speaker is rational in his communication (Grice, 1989).

A particularized conversational implicature can be derived by a retrieving interpretation through a process of reasoning in the face of an apparent violation of the maxims. It is exposed to be the final step of the process of interpreting an utterance that leads to a purpose. It is an inference due to mental discern of what is intended to be conveyed and it relies on speaker's self-commitment to facilitate the transferring of his message, hearer's deduction of the message conveyed and the conventionality of the message.

Grice in Slocum (2016) distinguishes between generalized conversational implicatures and particularized conversational implicatures in which a particularized conversational implicature is a conversational implicature that is carried by a saying of a proposition *p* in particular contexts. Meanwhile, a generalized conversational implicature is a conversational implicature that is carried by a saying of a proposition *p* in most ordinary contexts of utterance. Moreover, some characteristics of particularized conversational implicatures are an inference which arises from considerations involving (i) what the sentence actually says (i.e., truth conditions); (ii) the particular situation in which it is uttered, and (iii) gricean maxims of conversational interaction. On the contrary, what makes it a generalized conversational implicature is that the inference in question is not dependent on characteristics peculiar only to certain context of utterance (Kartunen and Peters, 1978).
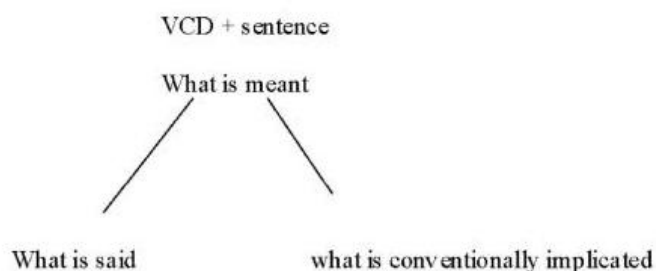
-   Conventional Implicatures

Conventional implicatures are associated with specific words and result in additional conveyed meanings when those words are used. It depends on the conventional meaning of a sentence, not on any maxim (Grice, 1989:41) or on the context of utterance. According to Potts (2005) conventional implicatures arise by a combination of two narrowly semantic aspects of the grammar: lexical meanings and novel ways of combining them with other meanings in the grammar. Some properties of conventional implicatures are (1) Conventional implicatures (CIs) are part of the conventional meaning of words (2) CIs are commitments, and thus give rise to entailments (3) these commitments are made by the speaker of the utterance "by virtue of the meaning of" the words he chooses (4) CIs are logically and compositionally independent of what is "said (in the favored sense)", i.e., independent of the at-issue entailments. Further, Potts (2005) distinguishes between conversational implicatures and conventional implicatures as follows:

conversational
implicatures
not conventional,
not speaker-oriented,
not backgrounded

context-dependent

conversationally-triggered
presuppositions
not speaker-oriented,
backgrounded

meanings

entailments

conventional
presuppositions
not speaker-oriented,
backgrounded

at-issue
entailments
not invariably
speaker-oriented,
vary under
holes, plugs

CIs
conventional meaning of
words
entailment
independent of the at-issue
entailments

The differences (figure) have a common source: conversational implicatures exist in virtue of the maxims and the cooperative principle, whereas conventional implicatures (CIs) are idiosyncratic properties of the grammar. Then, conversational implicatures are not inherently linguistic, whereas CIs are inherently linguistic. In this case, conventional implicatures has strong relationship with entailment which is something that logically follows from what is asserted in the utterance. In short, conventional implicatures are context-independent for their interpretation and independent from the principle of cooperative conversation which this type is different from conversational implicatures and its types.

These conjunctions (*but, or, yet, therefore, however, and, even,* and the like*)* are used in conventional implicature to explain the implicit meaning from particular lexical items or expression. Vallee (2008) called these conjunctions as View on Content Devices (VCDs) and calling them VCDs is intended to suggest that they qualify content without being part of it. VCDs are assumed not to alter the truth conditions of sentences or utterances. For example, it is taken (1) *Joan loves Paul* is a sentence and (2) *even Joan loves Paul* is a new sentence, and both have the same truth conditions, or express the same content. Grice in Vallee (2008) differentiates, between what is meant by a VCD sentence, what is centrally said and what is conventionally implicated by that sentence.

VCD + sentence

What is meant

What is said   what is conventionally implicated

Grice proposes a picture of the semantics of VCDs assuming them to carry conventional implicatures and a conventional implicature is a proposition carried by the meaning of the VCD (View of Content Device) sentence. For example, an utterance from the previous example *"even Joan loves Paul"* would be true if and only if Joan loves Paul –this is what is said –and the VCD would conventionally implicate, or suggest, in addition to what is said that it is surprising that Joan loves Paul or, according to Karttunen and Peters (1979) that other people beside Joan loves Paul. Sentence *Joan loves Paul* and *even Joan loves Paul* say the same thing, but they do not mean the same thing because of the conventional implicature carried by "even". Thus, What is said can be true, and the conventional implicature false (Grice,1975). For instance, it might be true that Joan loves Paul, and false that it is surprising that Joan loves Paul. Hence, Grice proposes another proposition as he writes:

If I say (smugly), ''He is an Englishman; he is, therefore, brave'', I have certainly committed myself, by virtue of the meaning of my words, to its being the case that his being brave is a consequence (or follows from) his being an Englishman. But while I have said that he is an Englishman, and said that he is brave, I do not want to say that I have said (in the favored sense) that it follows from his being an Englishman that he is brave, though I have certainly indicated, and so implicated, that it is so.

In diagrammatic form, he specifies,

"He is an Englishman; he is, therefore, brave"

He is an Englishman; he is brave   it follows from his being an Englishman that he is brave
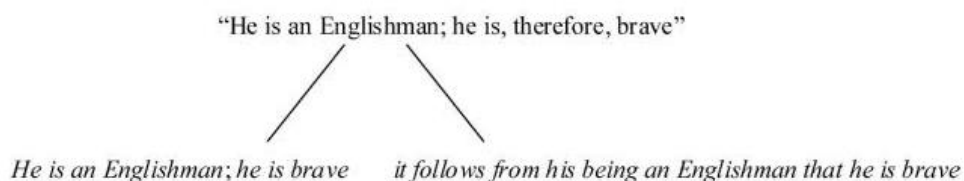
From that example, "He is an Englishman; he is, therefore, brave" conventionally implicates that his being brave is a consequence of his being English. what is conventionally implicated is true or false. Nevertheless, strictly speaking, on that theory the view on content device is truth conditionally relevant, contributing an implicated truth valuable proposition different from what is said.

In short, conventional implicatures cannot be attributed to general conversational principles with the peculiarities common to certain contexts of utterance: they simply arise from the presence of view of content device.

b.   Context

In pragmatics, context plays an important in influencing the meaning of utterance in which a context changes, meaning perhaps changes as well. Malinowski in Indrawati (2009) stated four kinds of context: (1) Participants or speaker and hearer with their status and roles; (2) Acts or all actions they perform, verbally and non-verbally; (3) Relevant characteristics including surrounding events having connection with the course of present action; and (4) The impacts the speech acts give on interlocutors or the changes of events as the consequence of speech acts. In later years, this concept inspires Hymes to introduce the context in speech situation, comprising of eight components acronimally called SPEAKING, they are: (1) S stands for Setting and Scene; (2) P stands for Participants; (3) E stands for Ends; (4) A stands for Act sequences; (5) K stands for Key; (6) I stands for Instrumentalities, (7) N stands for Norms and (8) G stands for Genres. Additionally, context is related to contextual meaning as the meaning of linguistic form in a context, or the meaning of sentence in a particular paragraph and contextual meaning arises as the result of relationship between speech and context.

In fact, context has strong relationship with implicature particularly conversational implicatures since they are context-dependent. In the case of implicature, an utterance can implicate proposition not as part of related utterance. An utterance produced by a hearer in response to the speaker's utterance is based on context. As there is no semantic relation between an utterance and the one being implicated, an utterance may elicit a large number of implicatures, depending on context or mutual background understanding between the speaker and the hearer.

III.   Methods

The present paper employed qualitative research methodology in analyzing the utterances found in the videos. This study was considered as interaction analysis (Nunan, 1992) since it analyzed interaction between addresser and addressee. The data of this research are utterances which contain implicature found in videos. Gauker (2001) stressed that the number of data depends on the researcher's goals, resources and the kinds of claims the researcher is hoping to be able to make. In fact, there were four participants that were involved in this research since the goal and claim restricted to implicatures and its types only. Miles and Huberman's interactive data analysis (1994) was applied in this study in analyzing the data which consisted of data collection, data re-duction, data display, and conclusion. In data collection, the research collected the data based on the statement of objectives. The data were taken from two videos. In data reduction, the data were selected and reduced by classifying them into types of implicature. Nevertheless, the data that were not appropriate or did not belong to implicature were omitted. The next process is data display where the writer explained more the data in discussion based on the types of implicature and the types of conversational implicature. The last process is drawing conclusion/verification. The conclusion was explained based on the result of the data analysis.

The writer investigated implicatures and its types that occurred in conversations between lecturers and students. The conversations were from two videos which were taken from YouTube and each video differed in duration yet the duration was almost similar.

Table 3.1 Table of Conversation Videos

No	Participants	Setting	Videos Title	Topic of conversation	Duration
1.	Professor Westcott and Janice	Place: in an empty classroom Time: break time (afternoon)	Conversation between a Professor and his Student 20	Comment on the last essay and how to narrow the topic	4:48
2.	Professor and Quinn	Place: Professor's office Time:break time	A Conversation between a University Professor and a Student in the Professor's Office	Quinn's article on Bull Shark	3:40
Total	4 participants				8 minute 28 seconds

In this case, coding was used in analyzing the transcriptions of conversations between lecturers and students as seen in the table below and it was done in order to identify information, to search, to retrieve data (Cohen, Manion, and Morisson, 2011).

Table 3.2 Coding scheme

Conversational Implicatures	Conventional Implicatures
Bold = Generalized Conversational Implicature (GCI)	<u>Underlined</u> = Conventional Implicatures (CI)
Italic = Particularized Conversational Implicature (PCI)	

This research applied the coding scheme as presented in the table above in marking utterances which were types of implicatures and types of conversational implicatures. Each themes would be used to mark implicatures and its types.

IV. Findings And Discussions

The researcher collected utterances indicating implicature found in videos. The utterances were classified based on the types of implicature first and also types of conversational implicature. The researcher used some tables in displaying the data. The data firstly classified into types of implicature: conversational implicature and conventional implicature and then they were classified into types of conversational implicature: generalized conversational implicature and particularized conversational implicature as proposed by Yule (1996). The data can be seen from the tables below.

Table 3.3 Types of Implicatures

No	Types	Frequency
1.	Conversational Implicature	44
2.	Conventional Implicature	52
	Total	96

As presented from the table above, conversational implicatures and conventional implicature are found in the videos. Conversational implicatures appeared 44 times in total, 30 entries from the first video and 14 entries from the second video. Meanwhile, conventional implicatures appeared 52 times, 33 entries from the first video and 19 entries from the second video. In fact, conventional implicatures are more dominant compare to conversational implicatures. The example of conversational implicature is presented and discussed below:

Janice: What do you have **a minute**? Could I just ask you about the comment you wrote on my last essay?

Prof. Westcott: Yes I have **few minutes** now what did I write on it?

Conversational implicatures often are communicated on the basis of scales and indefinite article. Hence, the basis of scalar implicature is that, when any form in a scale is asserted, the negative of all forms higher on the scale is implicated (Papafrogu and Musolino, 2003). It is expressed the quantity such as; *all, most, some, few, always, often, sometimes* and here '**few minutes**' is used by Prof. Westcott. By using this scale, the speaker creates an implicature (+> not all) which means that he only has few minutes of his time to talk to her and it would not be more than that. Additionally, an indefinite article of the type 'a/an' is used to express conversational implicatures since this type represents that an X is not speaker's X (Yule, 1996). The implicature in "What do you have **a minute**?" is not about speaker's time and she was asking whether the addressee has time even it is just for a minute.

On the other hand, conventional implicatures are associated with specific words and result in additional conveyed meanings when those words are used. The example of conventional implicature which is found in the videos can be seen below:

Quinn: All right, is there.. um.. something wrong with it?

Professor: well yes and no.. first it was well researched <u>and</u> I can tell you put a lot of time in on it. This part for example is informative <u>and</u> well-written, they are found cruising the shallow warm waters of all the world's

oceans fast agile predators. They will eat almost anything they see including fish dolphins <u>and even</u> other sharks. Humans are not per se on their menu <u>however</u> they frequent the turbid waters of estuaries and Bay's <u>and</u> often attack people inadvertently or out of curiosity.

The implicature from the example is carried by the use of VCD (View of Content Device) such as '*and & however*'. 'And' is agreed conventionally by the user of English language to have the meaning of 'addition' or 'plus'. Thus, it conventionally implicates that first it was well researched *plus* I can tell you put a lot of time in on it. Another implied meaning of the utterance is they frequent the turbid waters of estuaries and Bay's *plus* often attack people inadvertently or out of curiosity. Meanwhile 'however' is handled either as adverbs 'to whatever extent *or* in whatever way*'* or as sentence connectives. The implied meaning of the utterance is that humans are not per se on their menu *in whatever way* they frequent the turbid waters of estuaries and Bay. VCDs are assumed not to alter the truth conditions of sentences or utterances. The use of VCD there creates a new sentence which is independent and both sentences are the same truth conditions, or express the same content (the content here is about sharks and their behavior).

The finding is relevant with previous studies (Rosyiidah, 2020, Endry and Safnil, 2016, and Victory 2010). Those previous studies mentioned that additional conveyed meaning in conventional implicature is related to specific words and those words carry additional meaning when they are used.

On the contrary, the main finding which conventional implicature is more dominant compare to conversational implicature contradicts to previous studies (Rosyiidah, 2020, Endry and Safnil, 2016, and Victory 2010). Those previous studies identified that conversational implicatures become the most frequent type of implicatures found in movies and informal conversation. Moreover, according to Endry and Safnil (2016) that conventional implicatures do not usually occur in the conversation and cause this type less to be found. This current finding indicates that conventional implicatures occur in two conversations.

Another finding from this current study is generalized conversational implicatures and conventional implicatures use specific words to carry the additional meaning. Thus, this finding is relevant with Levinson (2000) that both generalized conversational implicatures and conventional implicatures are defined as being part of the lexicon, and are not the result of any particular contextual device.

The second objective focuses on finding the types of conversational implicatures that are found in the videos. The results of the analysis of conversational implicatures are described below:

Table 3.4 Types of Conversational Implicatures

No	Types of Implicatures	Frequency
1	Generalized conversational implicature	40
2	Particularized conversational implicature	4
	Total	43

From the data finding, generalized conversational implicatures become the most frequent type of conversational implicature than particularized conversational implicatures. Generalized conversational implicature appeared 40 times in total, 28 entries from the first video and 12 entries from the second video. On the contrary, particularized conversational implicatures appeared 4 times in total, 2 entries from the first video and 2 entries from the second video.

Prof: I'm well, thanks and thank you for coming in. I'll try not to take too **much** of your time.

Quinn: That's okay… ah thanks. Why..aaa.. why did you.. um…

Prof: It's okay I won't bite. I need to talk with you for a **few minutes** about the paper you submitted last week on bull sharks.

Generalized conversational implicatures frequently works together with scalar implicatures, the basis value of scales. Scalar implicature is an alternative way to represent quantity besides using numerical data. It also enables the speaker to express an intended number or amount without mentioning it due to his reluctance or limitation to the information (Papafrogu and Musolino, 2003). Both Professor and Quinn create generalized conversational implicatures via scalar implicatures. Certain information is communicated by choosing a word which expresses one value from a scale of values and from the utterances, generalized conversational implicatures are expressed by words 'much' and 'few minutes'. 'Not to take too much' and 'few minutes' from the utterance implies that Professor would not take all of Quinn's time. Additionally, the basis of scalar implicature is that, when any form in a scale is asserted, the negative of all forms higher on the scale is implicated. In this case, the implied meaning from the utterance 'not too much and few minutes' means not *all*.

Nevertheless, particularized conversational implicature is strongly tied to the particular features of the context and locally recognized inferences are assumed. Such inferences are required to work out the conveyed meanings that result from this type of implicatures (Grice, 1989). Furthermore, a particularized conversational implicature is connected to a speaker's deliberate violation of a maxim, with the supposition that this speaker is rational in his communication. In short, this type of implicature arises when the speaker violates maxim of cooperative principle. The example of particularized conversational implicature can be seen below.

Quinn: That's okay… ah thanks. Why..aaa.. why did you.. um…

Prof: It's okay I won't bite. I need to talk with you for a **few minutes** about the paper you submitted last week on bull sharks.

The professor' answer seems not relevant to Quinn's question and it does not appear to follow maxim of relevance. In fact, Quinn should assume that the Professor still cooperates in conversation and is till rational. Referring to the situation from the conversation, Quinn is afraid of being called by the Professor and it can be inferred from her answer which there is so many pauses in her utterance. In some cases, being called by the lecturer means that the addressee (student) might do something wrong which violates school's policy and this opinion scares Quinn. Nevertheless, Professor realized her fear and said "I won't bite" in order to reduce her fear. 'I won't bite' there implies that Quinn should not be frightened of being called by him since in his opinion; Quinn did not violate school's policy or do something bad. This finding supports the theory from Yule (1996) that particularized conversational implicatures is strongly tied to particular features of the context. Moreover, this type of implicature is connected to a speaker's deliberate violation of a maxim and special or local background knowledge of the context is required to infer the additional meaning.

In summary, this current research found out the types of implicatures and types of conversational implicatures that occur in the videos: 1) conversational implicatures (generalized conversational implicature and particularized conversational implicatures) and 2) conventional implicatures.

V. Conclusion

The frequently used type of implicature has been analyzed and discussed in the term finding and discussion. Some reasons also have been discussed. The study shows types of implicatures and types of conversational implicatures that occur in the videos. However, the finding of the study indicates that conventional implicatures are more dominant than conversational implicature. Hence, another finding of this paper indicates that generalized conversational implicatures become the most frequent type of conversational implicatures found in two videos. Conventional implicatures and generalized conversational implicatures are considered as context independent and do not need background knowledge or inference of the context to interpret the additional meaning. This might facilitate the readers or interlocutors to interpret the additional conveyed meaning; thus, the communication can flow smoothly.

The central aims of this paper are to open individual's eyes to implicatures and to comprehend the significance of implicatures in communication. In future studies, the next researchers may focus on the implicatures and its types found in another media or setting with different focus. It can be in WhatsApp, Facebook, or Line and the focus may lie on the conversation between student and student or teacher and teacher.

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