

## **CHAPTER II**

### **REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE**

This sub chapter focuses on language, conversation, conversation analysis, and some aspects of conversation analysis related with this thesis.

Language is a media we need to make a conversation with another people. Conversation itself is an activity between two person or more in purpose to share an idea, experience, etc. Conversation analysis is the study of recorded, naturally occurring talk-in-interaction. In conversation, there are some things we need to analyze. Not only the meaning of conversation itself, but also what occurred within the conversation, that is what we called aspect of conversation. In this subchapter, the researcher explained the definition of language, conversation, conversation analysis, and some aspects of conversation analysis. For brief explanation of the theory are given in the following sub chapter.

#### **2.1 Language**

Language has been studied for many years and from different perspectives. Ancient Greek philosophers elaborated on its proper use and purpose, modern scholars analyzed how it is produced and perceived. Everything that has so far been said about language can be ascribed to a certain general conception of talking about this issue. There are four such different approaches to talking about language: treating it as a social fact, as natural behavior, as a mental organ, or as an abstract object.

Language as a social phenomenon was first described by Ferdinand de Saussure who claimed that providing only historical description of languages (as it was done at his time) should not be the only approach to this complex entity. He maintained that crucial information about language can be obtained from its common users, who in most cases do not possess practically any theoretical knowledge about their native tongue and yet are competent speakers. Moreover, as Saussure assumed language use reflects the contemporary structure which should enable synchronic language analysis (language used at a given point in time) in addition to diachronic analysis concerned with the past linguistic forms. The social aspect of using language, or speech was called *parole* by Saussure, while the underlying knowledge of linguistic structure was known as *langue*.

Another view on language, mainly language as behavior partially derived from the behaviorist psychology and philosophy. Linguists representing this attitude focused on different languages used by various people rather than on linguistic universals, as they assumed that linguistic data is best gathered by observation of human behavior and interaction. Apart from that, it was assumed that meaning of sentences is not observable, thus it must be analyzed referring to introspective judgments. What follows this assumption is the definition of language provided by linguists who represent this approach. They maintain that language is: the totality of utterances that can be made in a speech community.

The third group is constituted by scholars who claim that language is an abstract object as it does not occupy any space or time. Thus this view is in opposition to Chomsky's ideas, but linguists who agree with it emphasize that the

analysis of the best abstract models of language can bring helpful effects of the entire area of study.

According to the last approach to language started by Noam Chomsky language is a mental organ. Having noticed certain similarities among languages Chomsky expressed the view that they cannot be explained by environmental factors or is accidental and there needs to be a special mental ability embedded in human brains. He defined language by means of generative grammar a finite set of rules which would enable users to make an unlimited number of expressions. Representatives of this approach support the view that it is not particular languages that should be analyzed, but the Universal Grammar, or the mental organ that allows human to speak and sozIALIZED. In socializing, people use language to convers among one another.

## **2.2 Conversation**

As one of a skill in English, conversation is an important skill that has to be mastered. Based on Wright (1936: 85) the English word, conversation, is made up of a combination of two Latin roots, 'con,' and 'vers.' 'Con' means with, together. 'Vers' mean to turn about in a given direction. Thus, to engage in conversation literally means to turn about with others.

According to Ciccourel as cited in Deborah Schiffrin (1994:232), conversation is a source of much of our sense of social order, e.g. it produces many of typifications underlying our notions of social role. Conversation also exhibits its own order and manifests its own sense of structure.

Conversation is more than merely the exchange of information because through conversation it can be decided whether the message is received by the hearer or not. Therefore it will promote not only a message but also favorable response of the hearer. Besides that, conversation is determined to build a social relationship or even to make decisions

Conversation is discourse mutually constructed and negotiated in time between speakers; it is usually informal and unplanned. Cook (1989:51) says that talk may be classed as conversation when:

1. It is not primarily necessitated by a practical task
2. The number of the participants is partially suspended
3. Talk is primarily for the participants not for an outside audience

Fairclough (2001:9) states “conversation is systematically structured, and that there is evidence of the orientation of participants to these structures in the way in which they design their own conversational turns and react to those of others.” Conversation consists of two or more participants taking turns and only one participants speaking at any time.

Conversations are the ideal form of communication in some respects, since they allow people with different views on a topic to learn from each other. A speech on the other hand, is an oral presentation by one person directed at a group. For a successful conversation, the partners must achieve a workable balance of contributions. A successful conversation includes mutually interesting connections between the speakers or things that the speakers know.

Conversation is often classified into formal and casual conversation. Eggins and Slade (1997:19-20) classify conversation based on:

1. Pragmatic purpose : whether a conversation has a clear pragmatic purpose or not
2. Number of interact-ants involved : whether multilogue or dialogue
3. Degree of formality : whether a conversation employs colloquial expressions and humor or conducted in serious tone involving various expression of politeness

By those criteria, pragmatics conversation refers to pragmatically oriented interactions. It is motivated by pragmatics purpose such as the purpose of getting or asking for information.

The two approaches of casual conversation proposed by Halliday and G. Plum (1985:19) are as follow:

1. The structural potential. It indicates some elements that must be present in the conversation. The elements are generalized in a schematic structure as: (Gr)+(Ph. Com)+(inf.Ex)+(Ly). Greeting, phatic communion, information exchange, opinion exchange, leave taking.
2. Casual conversation as a type of person-oriented dialogue in which certain norms are suspended, or perhaps rather neutralized. There are topics, but not topic control, there are interactants, but no status relations, and there are turns but no turn assignment.

Ordinary conversation is the most basic form of talk and the main way in which people come together, exchange information, and maintain social relations. A fundamental position in conversation is that speakers follow what typically occurs in particular interactions. These typical characteristics, therefore provide a framework and set of expectations for speakers to follow in spoken communication.

Conversations are generally divided up into three main stages. As Burns and Joyce in Paltridge (2000:85) suggest, these are typically: Opening Stage, Middle Stage, and Closing Stage.

1. **Opening stages** : Beginnings (e.g. salutations and greetings such as 'hello, how are you?')
2. **Middle stages** : Development of range of topics using conversational strategies for turn taking, turn allocation, and keeping a turn, adjacency pairs, preferred and dispreferred responses, ways of giving back, changing a topic, asking for clarification, correcting what was said, etc.
3. **Closing stages** : Pre closing exchanges which signal the ending of the conversation (e.g. discourse markers and formulaic expressions, such as: 'anyway, well, I'd better be off', 'thanks for calling', falling intonation). Closing (e.g. formulaic expressions such as 'bye, and see you').

Conversation is a spoken interaction among one to another, and the analysis of spoken interaction known as Conversation Analysis.

### **2.3 Conversation Analysis**

**Conversation Analysis (CA)** developed from work carried out by Harvey Sacks, Gail Jefferson and Emanuel Schegloff in the early 1960s at the University of California.

Conversation analysis examines the patterns that occur in dialogue, and how speakers use talk to create orderly social interaction. It is the study of talk in interaction. Conversation analysis generally attempts to describe the orderliness, structure and sequential patterns of interaction, whether this is institutional or casual conversation. Thus, use of the term conversation to label this disciplinary movement is misleading if read in colloquial sense, as may have.

Conversation Analysis originated in the field of sociology and started with the examination of telephone calls made to the Los Angeles Suicide Prevention Centre. This work then continued with the examination of more ordinary telephone calls and conversations.

Conversation analysis is the study of recorded, naturally occurring talk-in-interaction. But what is the aim of studying these interactions? Principally, it to discover how participants understand and respond to one another in their turns at talk, with a central focus on how sequences of action are generated." (Ian Hutchby and Robin Wooffitt, *Conversation Analysis*. Polity, 2008)

The focus of conversation analysis on conversation, for example, arises out of the ethno methodological distrust of idealizations in social only a vague and indeterminate relationship with a specific set of events. Conversation analysis focuses upon the details of actual events that occur without researcher prompting.

In Conversation Analysis, particular attention is given to everyday spoken interaction such as: interview, interaction in courtroom or in classroom between teacher and student. Hucby and Woffitt (1998:135) said that conversation analysis (CA) concerns with the problem of social order and how language is created by social context. Conversation analysis is an analysis of some aspects of conversation when the speaker follows in a particular interaction.

## **2.4 Aspects of Conversation**

### **2.4.1 Opening and Closing**

Opening and closing is an important part of conversation. It plays a big role which determines how the conversation will be started and finished, and how the conversation will be going on. Another reason why it is very important is that each culture in this world uses that method of conversation to sign the relation between one another. The way to open and close a conversation is also different depending on where the conversation takes places.

According to Paltridge (2000: 86), “openings and closings in conversations are often carried out in typical ways.” They are also context and speech-event-specific. For example, how we open a conversation at the bus stop is very different from how we do it on the telephone.



Openings and closings often make use of pairs of utterances (adjacency pairs), such as: *'Hi'*, *'How are you'* and *'Bye'*, *'See you later'*, which are often not meant to be taken literally. Closings are often preceded by pre-closings, such as: *'Okay'*, *'Good'*, statements such as *'Well, it's been nice talking to you'* or *'Anyway, I've got to go now'*, and an accompanying fall in intonation.

These kinds of conversational ritual vary, however, from culture to culture to culture, just because someone is able to open and close a conversation in their first language does not mean that they will necessarily know how to do this in a second language and culture

#### **2.4.2 Adjacency Pairs**

An adjacency pair is a unit of conversation that contains an exchange of one turn each by two speakers. The turns are functionally related to each other in such a fashion that the first turn requires a certain type or range of types of second turn.

One way in which meanings are communicated and interpreted in a conversation is through use of adjacency pairs. It consists of contiguous pairs of utterances produced by different speakers that are appropriately matched.

An adjacency pair used in conversation analysis is a pair of conversational turns by two different speakers such that the production of the first turn (called a first pair part) makes a response (a second-pair part) of a particular kind relevant. For example, a question, such as "What's your name?", requires the addressee to provide an answer in the next conversational turn. A failure to give

an immediate response is noticeable and accountable. Many actions in conversation are accomplished through adjacency pairs sequences.

Adjacency pairs are the basic structural units in conversation. They are used for opening and closing conversation. The basic rule for adjacency pairs is that when a speaker produces a first part, they should stop talking and allow the other speaker to produce a second pair part. When the second speaker does not do this, this is often commented on, such as when someone says ‘*You didn’t answer my question*’, or continues with variations on the first pair part until he gets an appropriate response

<b>First Part</b>	<b>Second Parts Preferred</b>	<b>Dispreferred</b>
Request	Acceptance	Refusal
Offer/invite	Acceptance	Refusal
Assessment	Agreement	Disagreement
Question	Expected answer	Unexpected answer or non-answer
Compliment	Acceptance	rejection

Source: Chimombo and Rosberry in Paltridge (2009:91)

From the table above, it can be explained:

#### 1. Requesting

Requesting is asking someone to do something which can be responded with acceptance or refusal.

e.g.:

A: “*Would you mind to close the window?*”

B: “*Of course.*” (Acceptance) or “*sorry, I’m busy*” (refusal)

## 2. Offer/ invite

Giving something to someone, it may be in the form of goods or services. It can be responded into acceptance or refusal, or generally called granting.

e.g.:

A: *"Will you come to my house tomorrow?"*

B: *"Yes, I will."* (Acceptance) or *"never"* (refusal)

## 3. Assessment

Assessment can be formed into opinion seek or comment, which is asking another's opinion or agreement. It is responded with agreement or called opinion provide.

e.g.:

A: *"What do you think about my barbie?"*

B: *"So cute."* (Agreement) or *"disgusting"* (disagreement)

## 4. Question

Question can be formed into information seek, clarification seek, etc. It is about asking something to someone. It is responded with information provide, clarification provide, etc.

e.g.:

A: *"Where were you born?"*

B: *"I was born in Jakarta."*(Expected answer) or *"is it important"*  
(unexpected answer)

## 5. Compliment

Compliment is the way of praising another person about something he or she has. It is responded with acceptance.

e.g.:

A: “*What a nice jacket?*”

B: “*Oh, thanks.*” (Acceptance) or “*are you kidding*” (rejection)

### 2.4.3 Topic Management

Topic management is one of the important aspects of conversation. In doing the conversation, how the speaker maintain the topic is related to the social culture where the speaker appears. The speaker should not talk about topic thought as a taboo by the society. There is an effort to maintain the topic so it won't change easily before another speaker follows the previous topic.

“Topic management also includes an awareness of how speakers deal with changes in a topic, how they maintain a topic, and how they repair the interaction when a misunderstanding occurs”, (Burns and Joyce in Paltridge (2000:94).

As Nalasco and Arthur in Paltridge (2000: 94) point out “Different cultures talk about different things in their everyday lives. Native speakers are very aware of what they should and should not talk about with specific categories of people in their own language, but the rules may be different in a foreign language. Both teachers and students need to develop a sense of ‘taboo’ subjects if they are to avoid offence”

Moreover, there are often culture-specific rules for who initiates a topic and how it is done, and who develops the topic and how it is developed. That is, there are often culture specific strategies that people use to introduce, develop, or change topics in a conversation. Equally, there are conventions and constraint on the choice of topic in particular conversational contexts, depending on the genre, or speech event, situation, and culture in which they occur.

An initial question is what sorts of thing can form topics in conversation. “Some topics are not relevant to particular conversations because it is a general rule about conversation that it is your business not to tell people what you can suppose they know” (Malcolm, 1971: 79), and the suitability of other topics depends on the person one is talking to.

#### **2.4.4 Turn Taking**

In conversation, there is a situation when a speaker takes the chance to speak that is turn. Turn-taking gives a chance for speakers to do conversation smoothly, so there won't be a dominant speaker in the conversation. First speaker utters something which is then followed by another speaker. It may make a simultaneous conversation.

Cooperation in conversation is managed by all participants through it. In most cultures, generally speaking, only one person speaks at time; speakers take turns, first one talking, and then another. All cultures have their own preferences as to how long a speaker can take the floor, when a new speaker can start, whether

the new speaker can overlap and interrupt, when speakers can pause and for how long

Turn taking gives a chance for a speaker to speak, so there won't a dominant speaker in a conversation. Malcolm (1985: 59) suggests that "there is an underlying rule in American English conversation: at least and not more than one party talk at a time." This is not an empirical fact because there are obviously many instances of short pauses and short overlaps, but rather a normative or observably oriented to feature of conversation; in other words, it is a rule used by conversationalists themselves.

There are norms for who talks, when, and for how long. The basic rule in English is that one person speaks at a time, after which they may nominate another speaker or another speaker may take up the turn without being nominated. There are a number of ways in which we can signal that we have come to the end of a turn, such as the completion of a syntactic unit followed by a pause.

A point in a conversation where a change of turn is possible is called a Transition Relevance Place or TRP. Next speaker cannot be sure that the current speakers turn is complete, but they will usually take the end of a sentence to indicate that turn is possibly complete. When speakers do not want to wait until TRP, this is called an interruption. In the following example, adapted from Gumperz (1982;175), the moment when the interruption begins is indicated with a//.

We can also use falling intonation and signals such as ‘mhm’, ‘yeah’, ‘so’, ‘or’, ‘anyway’ to do this. We may also signal the end of a turn through eye contact, body position and movement, or pitch and loudness. For example low pitch may indicate we are willing to give up our turn whereas maintained pitch may indicate we wish to hold it. Dalton and Seidlhofer in Paltridge (2000:92).

Turn taking is one of the fundamental organization. According to conversational analysis, the turn taking system consist of two components, they are:

1. The turn constructial component describes units of which turns are fashioned. These basic units are known as turn constructial units or TCUs. Unit types include: lexical, clausal, phrasal, and sentential. These are grammatically and pragmatically complete units, meaning that in a particular context they accomplish recognizable social actions.
2. The turn allocational component describes how turns are allocated among participants in a conversations. The three order options are: current speakers selects next speaker; next speaker self-selects next; or current speaker continues.

Native speakers normally find it relatively easy and natural to know who is to speak, when, and for how long. This skill is not, however, automatically transferred to a second language. Indeed, many second language learners have great difficulty in getting into a conversation. Knowing when to give up their turn to others, knowing when they are expected to take a turn, and in knowing how to close a conversation in English.

### 2.4.5 Preference Organization

Preference organization is a pair which gives freedom in responding to some first pair part, whether it is preferred or dispreferred one.

As stated by Pomerantz in retrieved from Wikipedia (2007), preference organization is the way through which different types of social actions ('preferred' vs 'dispreferred') are carried out sequentially.

There is, however, a certain amount of freedom in responding to some first pair parts, such as in:

A: *That's a nice shirt.* Compliment

B: *Oh thanks.* Accept

or

*Actually...I don't really like it; got it for Christmas.* Reject

Thus, some second pair parts may be *preferred* and others may be *dispreferred*, for example: an invitation may be followed by an acceptance (the preferred second pair part) or a rejection (the dispreferred second pair part). When this happens, the dispreferred second pair part is often preceded by a delay, a preface, and/or an account, for example:

A: *Would you like to come to the movies on Friday?* Invitation

B: *Uhhh...* Delay

*I don't know for sure* Preface

*I think I might be have something on that night* Account

*Can we make it another time* Rejection



### 2.4.6 Feedback

Feedback shows how the listener responds to what is talking about by the speaker. Feedback can be done both verbally or non-verbally which signaling response. Feedback also varies cross-culturally. For example, a common feedback token in Japanese is 'hi' which, taken literally, means 'yes'. However, in Japanese interactions the use of this feedback token does not necessarily mean agreement as 'yes' might in English, but rather, simply, '*I am listening to what you are saying*', much as '*uh huh*' might in English.

### 2.4.7 Repair

An important strategy speakers use in spoken interaction is repair, that is, the way speakers correct things that have been said in a conversation. Repair organization addresses problems in speaking, hearing, or understanding in conversation.

According to Scalegoff, Jefferson and Sacks in retrieved Wikipedia (2007), states that repair is the mechanism through which certain 'troubles' in interaction are deal with.

Repair is a correction to what have been said by the speaker. There are two types of repair, self repairs and other repairs. Self repair is repair done by speaker about what has been said before.

For example, we might correct what we have said (self repair) as in:

A : *I'm going to the movies tomorrow...I mean the opera*

Or the other person might repair what we have said (other repair):

*A : I'm going to that restaurant we went to last week. You know the Italian one in Brunswick Street?*

*B : You mean Lygon Street, don't you?*

*A : Yeah. That's right Lygon Street.*

Repair organization describes how parties in conversation deal with problems in speaking, hearing, or understanding. Repair is classified by who initiates repair (self or other) and by who resolves the problem (self or other) as well as by how it unfolds within a turn or a sequence of turns.