CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1. Theoretical Framework

This chapter presents the review of research and literature related with the topic: linguistic features in giving direction of lecturers in Faculty of letters and Humanities UIN Sunan Ampel Surabaya. Literally, this chapter supports the concepts and backgrounds in the previous chapter. There are some point of sub chapter here, the first is about Discourse analysis, it discusses about the conversation analysis on certain speech that focus on direction giving in conversation, the second sub chapter is about scotten and Bernsten’s categorization on linguistic feature of direction giving in conversation (1988) as well as the influence of gender in language. Then for the next sub chapter is previews studies about direction giving conversation, it helps the reader to have the clear image of direction giving in conversation by reviewing related research.

2.1.1 Discourse Analysis

Discourse Analysis focus on knowledge about language beyond the word, clause, phrase and sentence that is needed for successful communication (Brian paltridge, 2006). It looks at patterns of language across text and considers the relationship between language and the social and cultural contexts in which it is used.
Discourse analysis takes a significant role in human communication since it is not only focuses on the language and the meaning but deeply to the some elements in communication, such as how, who, what, and when the language is used. It is in line with Brown and Yule (1983:1) who argued that Discourse analysis is committed to an investigation of what and how that language is used for. Discourse Analysis also considers the way that the use of language present different views of the world and different understanding.

The term of Discourse Analysis was first introduced by Zelling Haris in 1952, as a way of analysis connected speech and writing (Brian paltridge, 2006). Harris had two main interests: the examination of language beyond the level of the sentence and the relationship between linguistic and non–linguistic behavior. He examined a way for describing how language features are distributed within texts and the ways in which they are combined in particular kinds and style of text. In Harris, 1952:3 State that.

“Connected discourse occurs within a particular situation, whether of a person speaking or of a conversation, or of someone sitting down occasionally over the period of months the writer a particular kind of book in particular literary or scientific tradition”

He argues that it is not only share particular meaning, but it also has characteristic linguistic features associated with them, what these meaning are, and how they are realized in language is a central interest to the area of discourse analysis. (Fasold 2006:192) argued that all approaches to Discourse analysis address
the function of language, the structure of texts and the relationship between text and context.

By considering the scope and definition of discourse analysis, the writer included her study as one of the study of discourse analysis especially the conversational analysis on certain speech event, that is, the direction-giving in conversation.

2.1.2 Influence of Gender in Language

Gender is a term of the three classes based on sex, which is used to describe the socially constructed categories. Those are feminine, masculine and neuter; and the terms that most often used are male (masculine) and female (feminine) (Coates, 1986). The theories on gender in language are used to find the possible factors that underlie the use of language by men and women. According to Trudgill (1974:80), men and women do not speak different language; rather, they speak different varieties of the same language. This fact actually is more or less affected by the social role that they have in society. (Holmes 1992) believes that in all speech community they use different linguistic forms. Although they may share the same particular linguistic form, there are differences in quantities and frequencies of using those forms by both sexes. There are some different between man and women in using language

a) At the discourse level

Man use many more commands to get things than women: For instances, "Shut the door please”, Contrary to man, women also use
commands, but they are more polite by use interrogative, such as, "Would you mind shutting the door". (Coates 1986:34-35) argue that women talk more than men do. Women are more conservative and sensitive to the matter of correctness and also ask more questions and use linguistic form associated with politeness.

b) At the lexical grammatical level

According to Lakoff (in Poynton, 1989:71) said that women tend to use tag questions such as “It's a nice day, isn't it?” to show non-assertive behavior and ask agreement. In addition women often use, “Probably”, “Possibly”, “I think”, “I suppose” and Etc. in her speech. It is different with man that man tend to used slang than women.

From the definition above, it is important for the researcher to know the different qualifies and styles between male and female in using their language in the direction giving in conversation.


Scotton and Bernsten generated a natural conversation model for the direction-giving in conversation. The data were collected by observing the service encounter between native speakers of English on a university in Midwestern U.S. site. After they collected the data, they categorized the responses of the direction givers in each unit of direction-giving in conversation that are Opening, main body, pre-closing and Closing.
The *Opening* unit consists of opening move. According to *Scotton* and *Bernsten* (1998), an opening (Move) is "a type of insertion sequence occurring in the direction-giver's initial turn and containing other semantic material than the immediate propositional answer to the request for directions" (Pearson and Lee, 1992:116). Their categories of opening include

a. *Interjection*: Words or phrase used as an exclamation which indicates an emotional state or attitude such as delight, surprise, shock, disgust, but which has no referential meaning (Richards, 1985:145). Examples: “Oh, gosh!”, "Good God", "Damn!"

b. *Question repeat*: An utterance which repeats the requested site asked by the direction seeker. In this case, the direction giver begins their response with a part of the question (Pearson and Lee, 1992:120). Example: "Gammage Auditorium?"

c. *A different question*: The question that is produced by the direction giver after the direction giver asks the location. In this case, the direction giver does not give the answer directly; rather, she or he asks the direction seeker with the other question (Pearson and Lee, 1992). Example: "James Taylor tickets, is that what you're going for?"

d. *Summary-like statement*: The direct answer of requested site's direction. In this case, the direction giver only gives a short answer. Usually, it consists of the crucial landmarks around the requested site. (Pearson and Lee, 1992). Example: "Gammage Auditorium is way back there"
e. **Comments:** "Let's see..."

f. *pauses* of one second or longer; It is usually defined as silent pause (Richards, 1985:210), that is, gaps breaks between utterance for one second or longer. People who speak slowly often use more pauses than people who speak quickly.

g. **Fillers:** It is usually defined as filled pause (Richards, 1985:210 Examples: "Uh," "umm/" or "well.

The directions in the *main body* unit are composed of four main directive types:

a. Bald imperative is a type of directive that begins with verb directive and that uses verb in imperative sentence (Crystal, 1980). An example of a bald imperative is "Take that to the next mall."

b. Indirect directives. Indirect directives comprise three subtypes: those begin with.

1. A conditional clause is a clause begins with *If* or conjunctions with similar meaning, where a state or situation in one clause is dependent on something that may or will happen and which is described in another clause (Richards, 1985:51) such as, "*If you go down here and go straight, you'll...*"
2. An extra position clause, a clause that is moved to a position in a sentence which is different from the position it usually has (Richards, 1985:101) such as, "What you can do is go all the way to this mall".

3. Imply a more direct directive, such as, "It should be a little to your left".

c. You + auxiliary verb + main verb directives (you + aux) is a type of directive that also begins with address term. However, it is followed with auxiliary verb first, such as, will or need before using main directive verb. Examples "You've got to turn around" or "You will need to go more toward the right".

d. You + verb directives (you + verb) is a type of directive that begins with address term you then is directly followed with verb directive For example "You head down here to this crosswalk".

In the main body we also find main body exchange, there are three points in main body exchange that are:

1. Parenthetical remarks are comments pertaining to the directions, such as: ‘it will take you a while’ or ‘it has a big parking lot’

2. Orientation checks are questions which the direction giver asks in order to check the seeker’s understanding of crucial landmarks along the route. For example: Do you know where the fountain is?

3. Comprehension checks are any expressions by a NS designed to establish whether that speaker’s preceding utterance has been
understood by the interlocutor. For example: do you understand what I am saying?

In the *pre-closing* unit, there is synthesize, synthesize is Giving directions by uniting the explanation into one-line utterance or more (*Scotton* and *Bernsten*, 1988) for Example: "So all the way up there and to your right".

The *closing* unit usually use, "Thank you". There are two types of closings:

a. *Informal* such as "Yup" or "Mmhmm," “so on” and Etc.

b. *Formal* such as “You're welcome”.

The writer used this categorization to categorize the response of the direction giver to identify which type of linguistic features that are mostly produced by male and female lecturers in each unit of direction-giving in conversation.

2.2. Related Studies

The researcher finds journal and other thesis that have related with direction-giving in conversation, such as:

2.2.1. Pearson and Lee's Study on Direction-Giving in Conversation (1992)

In this research, Pearson and Lee tested the effects of native and nonnative English-speaker status and gender on the structure of directions produced by native speakers of English. They tried to investigate the
degree of uniformity in structure and in content of the direction-giving in conversation.

The study was conducted on the Arizona State University campus. Four graduate students posed as typical student direction seekers. Two were nonnative speakers (one Chinese and one Japanese native speaker), who were essentially fluent in English, although they spoke with discernible foreign accents, and two were native speakers, a male and a female in each grouping, all the direction seekers gave a request for directions at a single location at similar times to a sample of 200 U.S. (native-speaking) university students, 100 males and 100 females.

Pearson and Lee also used Scotton and Bernsten's categorization on linguistic features to classify the direction-givers' responses. In order to test uniformity in structure and content, they counted how many subjects included the four parts and other subparts of the conversation; what combinations of directive types they used; and how similar they were on fluency measures: pause, filler, and hedges. In order to test for gender influence on directness, they counted the length of the conversation, indirect directive types, parenthetical remark, pause, filler, and hedges. To measure for gender influence on synthesis, they counted summary-like statement in opening section.

After analyzing, Pearson and Lee concluded that Female direction givers paused more than males and produced more comprehension
checks and male givers used more indirect directive. However female
direction seeker received more opening combination, more directive
types, greater complexity of vocabulary and more parenthetical remarks.

2.2.2. Liberty Carolina lasut, linguistic features of direction-giving
conversation of male and female students of Petra Christian University
(2001)

This study investigates the type of linguistic feature of male and
female student of Petra Christian University, the researcher realize that
this thesis has same point with this research but it has different object, In
this thesis used female direction seeker. And found that both male and
female student mostly used the same linguistic features in each unit of the
direction-giving conversation, that is, summary-like statement, bald
imperative, parenthetical remark, and informal closing. While, the gender
differences only effected the production of summary-like statement in the
opening unit, you + verb directive, indirect directives, and parenthetical
remark in the main body unit, and informal response in the closing unit.
So here the researcher makes this thesis becomes the main reference to
help the researcher finish this research.