



**GRAMMATICAL FEATURES OF CONVERSATION TEXTS
IN “BAHASA INGGRIS” A TEXTBOOK PUBLISHED BY
THE INDONESIAN MINISTRY OF EDUCATION**

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in English

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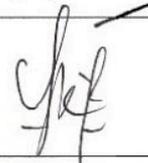
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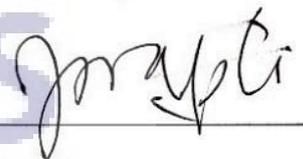
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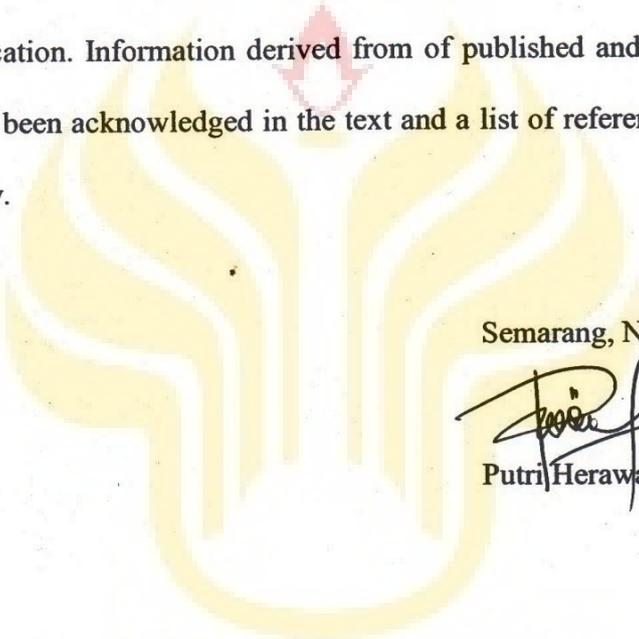
DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

I Putri Herawati hereby declare that this final project entitled *Grammatical Features of Conversation Texts in “Bahasa Inggris” A Textbook Published by the Indonesian Ministry of Education* is my own work and has not been submitted in any form or another degree or diploma at any university or other institute of tertiary education. Information derived from of published and unpublished work of other has been acknowledged in the text and a list of references is given in the bibliography.

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“Rejoice in hope, be patient in tribulation, and be constant in prayer.”

(Romans 12:12)



To:
my parents and
all of people in my surroundings

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ABSTRACT

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Keywords: grammatical features, conversation texts, naturally-occurring conversation, textbook

This study is an effort to analyze grammatical features of conversation models in an English textbook. Conversations in many school textbooks written by non-native speakers have the risk to be lack of naturalness of real-life communication. “Bahasa Inggris” was written by three Indonesian writers. Since conversations have specific features that differ from written language, this study aimed to find out the answer to the questions: how do conversation models in “Bahasa Inggris” share common features of naturally-occurring conversations?; how are non-clausal units as constructional principles of spoken grammar realized?; and what gambits are used?

This research is descriptive qualitative. The data were collected from 16 conversation texts found in “Bahasa Inggris” for grade XII. The analyses of the data were done based on two criteria: analyzing grammatical features based on Biber et al.’s theory (1999), including spoken grammatical features, inserts, and syntactic non-clausal units, and analyzing conversation gambits based on Keller and Warner’s theory (1988), including kinds of gambits and gambits of four speech acts.

The result of analyses showed that all conversation models in “Bahasa Inggris” share some common features of naturally-occurring conversation. However, some important features in informal conversation such as pauses, hesitations, repeats, expletives, and non-standard features did not appear. The nonexistence of those features made them lack naturalness of real-life communication. Inserts were found in 14 conversation texts and syntactic non-clausal units were found in 10 conversation texts. Opening, linking, and responding gambits were used based on the speech acts required in Curriculum 2013. Yet, the proportion use of six expressions of four speech acts was not equal.

From the findings, it is suggested that the English teachers choose textbooks which provide conversation texts that represent naturally-occurring conversations, for example, the ones that are written by native speakers. Therefore, the students will be able to learn the real form of spoken language, not only learn a language through speaking.

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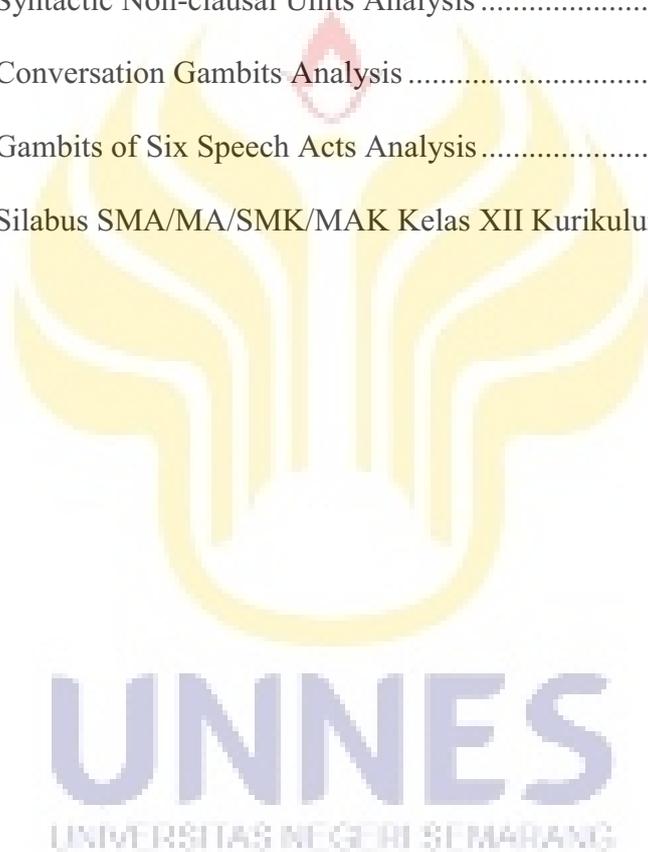
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, I present the introduction of this study which consists of background, reasons for choosing the topic, statement of the problem, objective of the study, significance of the study, and outline of the research report.

1.1. Background

People use language to communicate with others. Through language people can tell their ideas, give information, demand information, and express their emotions. People have to use language effectively and efficiently in order to make others understand what they mean; therefore the purpose of communication can be achieved.

English is used as an international language. In Indonesia, English stands as foreign language, and it is taught as one of the subjects at schools. One goal of English language teaching is that students are able to achieve communicative competence. Celce-murcia et al. (1995:9) say that the ability to use language effectively to communicate is called communicative competence. Learning English as a foreign/second language is not as simple we think. As a result, learners process communication strategies that can help them make effective use of their second language (Ellis, 1997:5). Ellis (1997:43) says that learners acquire the rules and the nature of language development in communication that inform native speakers use. At schools, the students are commonly taught how to produce sentences based on some rules, or we call it as grammatical competence.

However, the concept of communicative competence is different from the grammatical competence.

Grammatical competence refers to the knowledge we have of a language that accounts for our ability to produce sentences in a language. It refers to knowledge of the building blocks of sentences (e.g., parts of speech, tenses, phrases, clauses, sentence patterns) and how sentences are formed (Rihards, 2006:3). Even people can master the rules of sentence formation in a language, it cannot guarantee that they will be very successful at being able to use the language for meaningful communication. As a result, teachers need to know how to make students be able to achieve not only grammatical competence but also communicative competence.

There are two types of text in communication that people create, written and spoken text (Halliday, 1994:81). He claims that “written language represents phenomena as product,” and “spoken language represents phenomena as a process.” Written language is pre-planned, well-organized and transactional. While spoken mode is relatively unplanned, less structured and interactive; it is simple and shorter using non-standard grammar. A written text is identified as a text which is constructed when a person convey their ideas through written form, such as newsletter, short story, novel, etc. When people convey their ideas through oral communication, it is identified as spoken text, for example conversation.

It is true that written language is very different from spoken language. Written language is not simply speech written down. Halliday (1989) in Kern

(2000:25-26) claims that spoken language tends to be less lexically dense (it has fewer proportion of content words) and more grammatically intricate (it has more clauses per stretch of language) than written language; writing tends to involve a greater degree of syntactic embedding (for example the use of relative clause), when speech tends to involve a greater degree of syntactic coordinator (series of clauses linked with conjunctions). As the example quoted in Sokic (2012:1), the clause complex of spoken text *“If people smoke more, it is clear that more of them will die of cancer.”* is comprised of 3 clauses and 5 content words of 15 words. In the written mode, the clause *“Lung cancer death rates are clearly associated with increased smoking.”* which is in a single clause has lexical density 8/10.

Conversation can be divided into two kinds. Eggins and Slade (1997:19) suggest that those are transactional conversation or pragmatic conversation and interpersonal conversation or casual conversation. According to them, transactional conversation happens when people exchanges information, goods, or services. Some examples of doing transactional conversation are buying or selling something, making appointments, finding out information, getting job, and asking someone to do something. Different from transactional conversation, Eggins and Slade (1997:19) view that interpersonal conversation focuses primarily on the social needs of the speaker. Its purpose is to establish and maintain social relations. For example, when we get together with our friends over coffee or dinner, we just have a chat.

While doing conversation, the speakers tend to sustain the conversation; the way speakers relate to one another. The way speakers sustain conversation can be seen from spoken grammatical features they use. Conversation has specific grammatical features that differentiate it with the other texts. There are some major grammatical features that conversation has (Biber et al. 1999: 989). Sustaining conversation is difficult due to the time given to the speakers to think what they have just heard or what they will say is limited. This may lead to the false starts, spontaneous response words, limited vocabulary, grammatical inaccuracies, or silence when they are thinking (Hughes, 2011:77).

The grammar of spoken discourse has suggested that there are a number of constructions regularly used, one of them is ellipsis, for example *Nice day* as opposed to *It is nice day*. There are also phenomena, where the grammar will have little or nothing to say. Certain discourse markers such as *oh, ah, hey, uhuh* etc., are a case in point. These are the examples of non-clausal units (Biber et al. 1999: 1069). Non-clausal units are free standing constructions that are found in spoken language. They can be given a syntactic description, but are not part of a clausal unit structure.

It is also not easy for people delivering their thought because they need to show their speech acts clearly. Here, there are gambits that play significant roles in conversation. Gambits become down-grader and up-grader for the head of speech acts. Gambits help speakers to express what we are trying to say (Keller and Warner, 1988:4). A speaker who knows how to use them skilfully may gain time to think of what to say next. These constructional principles of

spoken grammar build the crucial difference for the products of spoken and written language.

The rules between spoken and written text make learning and practicing English at schools is not a simple thing, especially in speaking because interaction in speaking is done by two or more participants. In order to deal with this problem, teachers and students are facilitated by some kinds of English textbooks to help them teaching and learning English. However, Carter and McCarthy in Anthony (n.d.) stated “the forms of spoken English proposed in textbooks and practiced in the classroom still appear to be rooted in models that owe their origin and shape to the written language”. This study underlies argument that the spoken forms modelled in the classroom are representative of the standard-English which is equated with the grammar of written language.

In line with Carter and McCarthy, a survey of 24 general EFL textbooks by Cullen and Kuo (2007), as cited in Soruc and Griffiths (2015:33), found that the coverage of the features of spoken grammar was patchy or inadequate. Gilmore (2004) also finds that a range of typical features of naturally occurring conversation, such as false starts, repetitions, pauses, latching, terminal overlap, back-channels and hesitation devices, appear in extremely few instances in textbook conversation. Although it is suggested that English textbooks should expose learners to language in authentic use, artificiality can still be identified throughout teaching and learning materials used in the English classroom (Lin, 2012:106). Artificiality here means not all conversation texts in school textbooks represent real language use.

Soruc and Griffiths (2015:32) argue that learners should be made aware of how spoken language differs from written forms in order that they can exercise choices rather than taking a prescriptive approach to what is correct based on models of written language. According to Anthony (n.d.), conversation in particular is generally more spontaneous, is arguably more complex in its turn-taking patterns, and features more shortened, non-verbal, and vague language forms. For example, in conversation, there are words outside clauses which carry little or no meaning in their own right but signal something to the listener about the structure or organisation of the talk, such as “*right*”, “*well*”, or “*wow*” in English. Because learners are usually taught a form of the language which is strongly influenced by written mode, spoken discourse markers are not given high prominence in a syllabus, they are not taught explicitly at all (Hughes, 2011:41). This situation brings to a question, whether a teacher engaged in teaching the spoken form of language, or teaching a language through speaking.

One of the textbooks published in Indonesia recent years is an English textbook entitled “Bahasa Inggris” for Grade XII Senior High School. The textbook was published by Indonesian Ministry of Education and Culture in 2015 to support Curriculum 2013. Since this new curriculum being implemented, allocated time for teaching and learning English in the classrooms is reduced. Twelfth graders only get two hours in one meeting every week. Therefore, the students are lack of opportunities to actually practice speaking English in the classrooms. Due to the fact, it is very important that the textbook should provide good models, the ones that represent naturally occurring conversations.

I tried to look one conversation text from the textbook “Bahasa Inggris” for grade XII, page 38.

You are walking home with a friend one day. You see a boy falls off his bike. You and your friend think that you need to help him.

You : Oh no! Look at the boy, he fell off his bike.

You friend : I think we should go there and help him.

You : Okay, let's go!

Based on this above conversation text, there are some points how I found the conversation does not sound natural. When we take a look at the structure of the utterances, it seems that the line “*I think we should go there and help him.*” tends to emphasize the grammatically-formed utterances, like in the written text. Moreover, viewed from the context of situation, the conversation occurs among friends who seeing an accident; a boy falls off his bike. Therefore, the language used should be informal and spontaneous.

Conrnbleet and Carter (2001:26) argue that most everyday conversation is spontaneous, unplanned and unrehearsed. The writer of the conversation chooses to use quite formal language and emphasize the gambit of giving opinion to like “*I think we should...*” It is unnatural. This kind of gambit does not need to be used in this situation. Commonly, when we see an accident and want to help, we will give spontaneous response and simple words, for example “*Come quick! or “Let’s help him!”*” rather than saying formal and complete sentence, delivering the opinion of should or not should help.

We can look a conversation from Widdowson (1978) as cited in Kern (2000:81).

A: That's the telephone. (Can you answer it, please?)

B: (No, I can't answer it because) I'm in the bath.

A: O.K. (I'll answer it)

The conversation above has implicit communication functions of A's and B's utterances as a sequence of request, refusal, and acknowledgement of refusal in a particular cultural context. Biber et al (1999:1044) say, spoken texts avoid elaboration or specification of meaning. Spoken texts are always informationally incomplete. There is no relationship between "*That's the telephone*" and the respond "*I'm in the bath*" if the participants cannot interpret each other. And when we look at A's answer "*O.K.*", it seems to be grammatically incomplete. However, an utterance is grammatically complete if it could be interpreted as a complete clause in its discourse context. It can be a word or a phrase (*O.K.*), which belongs to non-clausal units. As the conversation above, A does not wait B to continue whether B will answer the telephone or not. The interactants understand each other without telling their complete thought because speaking in full sentence is certainly not considered as natural conversation.

Based on that finding, I decided to conduct a research on conversation models in the English textbook "*Bahasa Inggris*" for Senior High School Grade XII. I intend to investigate whether other conversation models in "*Bahasa Inggris*" have grammatical-formed utterances like in the written texts or spoken text; how the conversation models in "*Bahasa Inggris*" share common features of naturally occurring conversations.

1.2. Reasons for Choosing the Topic

I have several reasons to investigate the conversation texts in “Bahasa Inggris” textbook. The first reason is, “Bahasa Inggris” is one of the English textbooks provided for senior high school students grade XII. This textbook is considered by the Indonesian Ministry of Education and Culture as reliable textbook to be used in teaching learning process in implementing Curriculum 2013. There must be something special with "Bahasa Inggris" so that the Indonesian Ministry of Education and Culture recommended this textbook. It is my interest to know and find out whether being published by our government guarantee that a textbook displays good materials that is suitable for teaching and learning process.

I investigate grammatical features of conversation texts in “Bahasa Inggris” since the students learn how to speak in their real life. Due to the fact, a textbook should display models of conversation which represent natural conversations. My second reason why I choose this topic is that the textbooks written by non-native teachers sometimes present unnatural language; made up conversation models are especially written to provide teaching points of grammar and are often not representative of real language use.

The third one is that textbook evaluation can be very useful in teachers’ development and professional growth. Hence, such activities also permit teachers to make optimum use of their strong points and strengthen the weaker areas by adapting and substituting materials from other books. It will help teachers to

choose conversation texts as materials that are suitable for students' communicative competence.

Since I found one conversation text that has grammatically-formed utterances, like in written text, I intend to investigate whether the other conversation models in “Bahasa Inggris” have grammatical-formed utterances like in the written texts or spoken text. It is important to investigate the conversation texts since the textbook may be used as major source of contact the learners have with the language. A textbook should display good models of conversations that share common features of naturally occurring conversations.

1.3. Statement of the Problem

In this study, the problem that will be discussed is stated in the following question:

- (1) How do conversation models in “Bahasa Inggris” share common features of naturally occurring conversations?
- (2) How are non-clausal units as constructional principles of spoken grammar realized in the conversation models in “Bahasa Inggris”?
- (3) What gambits are used in the conversation models in “Bahasa Inggris”?

1.4. Objective of the Study

The objective of the study is:

- (1) to analyze how conversation models in “Bahasa Inggris” share common features of naturally occurring conversations.

- (2) to show how non-clausal units as constructional principles of spoken grammar are realized in the conversation models in “Bahasa Inggris”.
- (3) to describe what gambits are used in the conversation models of “Bahasa Inggris”.

1.5. Significance of the Study

By conducting this study, I hope that:

(1) Theoretically

This study will provide us with some insight regarding the effectiveness of conversational grammar theory, especially grammatical features in order to investigate the conversation models that represent naturally occurring conversations.

(2) Practically

The results of this study will be a model of analyzing conversation texts in school textbooks, especially the grammatical features which reflect the real life situation. Moreover, as students of English Education Department, we are supposed to be English teachers. It is expected that by reading this study, we will be able to choose conversation texts as materials that are suitable for students' communicative competence.

(3) Pedagogically

The result will give us fundamental knowledge that can be implemented in writing learning materials of conversations.

1.6. Outline of the Research Report

This study is developed into five chapters.

Chapter one presents introduction. It consists of background, reasons for choosing the topic, statement of the problem, objective of the study, significance of the study, and outline of the research report.

Chapter two presents the review of related literature, which discusses review of previous studies, theoretical background, and theoretical framework.

Chapter three discusses research design, role of the researcher, type of data, data collection, data analysis, framework of analysis, and report of results.

Chapter four is the result and discussion. This chapter provides the overall analysis leading and the discussion about it.

The last chapter, chapter five, gives the conclusion and suggestion of the study.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter presents review of related literature of the study which discusses the review of previous study and theoretical background.

2.1 Review of Previous Studies

Review of the previous study consists of some relevance research that has been done before. There are some previous studies which can be used as references dealing with the quality of spoken texts in some textbooks as model texts.

Many textbooks use made-up conversations rather than authentic materials. Gilmore (2004) studied the discourse features of seven dialogues published in course books with comparable authentic interactions. The result showed that textbook dialogues differed considerably from their authentic equivalent across a range of discourse features: length and turn-taking patterns, pausing, false starts and repetitions, lexical density, frequency of terminal overlap, also the use of hesitation devices and back-channelling. The implications of the inclusion or absence of these features in textbooks were discussed with reference to materials writers, teachers, and learners. Those results were contrasted with figures from more recent course books which suggested that contrived dialogues were beginning to incorporate more natural discourse features.

Grammar in spoken language has different characteristic with written language. The next research is about extending the lexicogrammar towards a more

comprehensive account of extra clausal, partially clausal and non-clausal expressions in spoken discourse from Tucker (2005). He explored the possibility of revising the lexicogrammatical framework in order to incorporate phenomena when certain elements may be considered to lie outside of the purview of the clause as the principal unit of lexicogrammatical organisation. By using Biber et al.'s theory, Tucker proposed a clause-based approach to (a) clause prefaces and tags, (b) independent, non-clausal expressions, and (c) formulaic speech act realisations, and discuss the implications of such an approach for a systemic functional model of language that prioritises the lexicogrammar.

Conversations in a good textbook should be arranged based on spoken grammar. Lin (2012) wrote a paper on an investigation into the spoken grammar in three recent series of EFL textbooks used in junior high schools in Taiwan, and contrasts them with face-to-face intercultural communication among Taiwanese and British adolescents. The analysis included lexical features (vague expressions, approximation, hedging), discourse features (discourse markers, pausing and repeating), and syntactical features (ellipsis, headers and tails). The research findings identify specific gaps between textbook conversation and authentic intercultural discourse and I draw further implications regarding how teachers can bridge the gaps and support learners for better spoken communication.

People communicate with others by using conversation. As a result, rules in conversation should be fulfilled to reach its communicative purposes. Asriyama (2012) investigated the compatibility of interpersonal conversation text in school textbook with the communicative purpose. He used qualitative descriptive

research in this study. The analyses of the data were done in two ways. First, the data were analyzed by Eggins and Slade's theory of analyzing negotiation in conversation. Second, the analysis is about the spoken grammatical features in conversation following Biber et al's. The result of analyses shows that 50.13 % of the negotiations belong to interpersonal negotiation and 49.87 % fall into logico-semantic negotiation. They have a balance distribution of negotiations and share common spoken grammatical features of naturally conversation.

The use of grammatical features in naturally-occurring conversations should be appropriate with interpersonal relations between the speakers. Prastyanti (2016) conducted a research to examine the naturalness of conversation models in an electronic book published by the ministry of education. This research is descriptive qualitative. She investigated the interpersonal relations (tenor) of the interactants in the conversation texts as well as the appropriateness of their realization in the given contexts and also the spoken grammatical features in the conversation texts. The findings proved that all conversation models share some common features of naturally occurring conversation.

Another way to make conversations sound natural is by using gambits. Gambits smoothen someone's speaking. Maesaroh (2013) analyzed the use of gambits in the conversations in school textbook "Look Ahead 2". This qualitative study aiming at finding out what speech acts and gambits found in the conversation models of "Look Ahead 2". It was conducted in line with the important roles of gambits in spoken communication. The study showed that

gambits found in the conversations were used appropriately based on Keller's classifications including opening, responding, and linking gambit.

2.2 Review of Theoretical Studies

This section presents some related literatures which are taken from some books, articles, and journals. It consist of review of language as communication, communicative competence, spoken and written language, conversation as spoken text, structure in conversation, the grammar of conversation, grammatical features in conversation, and "Bahasa Inggris" for grade XII school textbook.

2.2.1 *Language as Communication*

In communication, we use language to give and receive messages between ourselves. According to communicationtheory.org, human being as socialized individual, communicate with others because of some purposes. The first is people communicate to persuade someone to do or not to do something. The second is people communicate to give information so that they can achieve new knowledge. The third reason is people communicate in order to seek information and gain knowledge about the world. The last reason is people communicate to express our emotions such as courage or fear, joy or sorrow, satisfaction or disappointment with appropriate gestures and words. Communication does not just happen; there is a competence in using language so that we can gain the purposes of it.

2.2.2 *Communicative Competence*

People use language to communicate with others. They have to use the language effectively and efficiently so that the purpose of communication can be achieved. The ability to use language effectively to communicate is called communicative competence Celce-Murcia et al. (1995:8). Celce-Murcia et al. (1995:10) suggest model of communicative competence as a circle surrounded by another cycle, and it was revised at 2007.

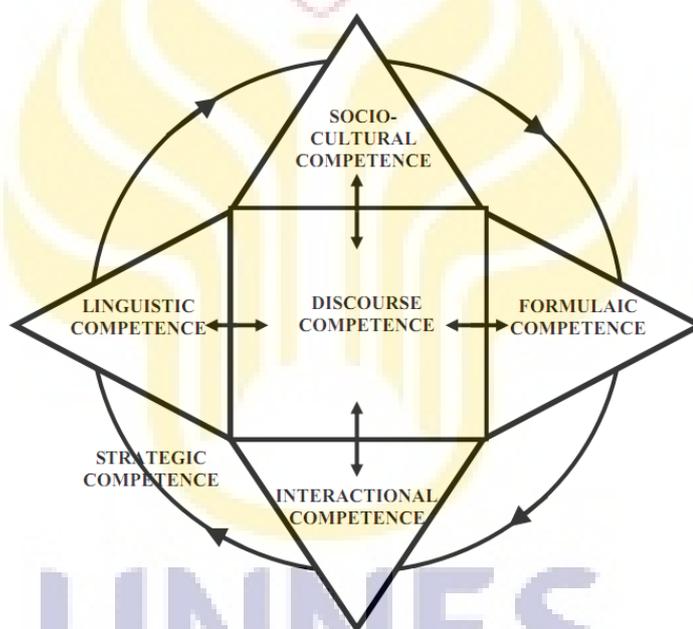


Figure 2.1 Schematic Representation of Communication Competence
(Celce-Murcia, 2007:45)

This most recent model maintains the central role of discourse competence in any construct of communicative competence. According to Celce-Murcia (2007:46), discourse competence can be defined as the selection, classification, and arrangement of words, structures, and utterances to achieve a unified spoken message. This is where the top-down communicative intent

and sociocultural knowledge intersect with the lexical and grammatical resources to express messages and attitudes and to create coherent texts.

Sociocultural competence refers to the speaker's pragmatic knowledge, for example, how to express messages appropriately within the overall social and cultural context of communication. This includes knowledge of language variation with reference to sociocultural norms of the target language (Celce-Murcia 2007:46).

The left and right triangles of Figure 2.1 refer to linguistic competence and formulaic competence. Formulaic competence is the counterbalance to linguistic competence. Linguistic competence entails the recursive, open-ended systems of phonological, lexical, morphological, and syntactic. Formulaic competence refers to the fixed and prefabricated chunks of language that speakers use very often in everyday interactions (Celce-Murcia 2007:47).

The bottom-up counterpart to the more global top-down socio-cultural competence is the hands-on component of interactional competence. Interactional competence has at least three sub-components relevant to the current model (Celce-Murcia 2007:48-49): actional competence, knowledge of how to perform common speech acts and speech act sets in the target language; conversational competence, inherent to the turn-taking system in conversation; and non-verbal/paralinguistic competence.

The cycle surrounds the triangle represents strategic competence which is defined as specific behaviors or thought processes, include learning strategies or communication strategies, that students use to enhance their own

second language learning (Celce-Murcia 2007:50). Learners who can make effective use of strategies (i.e. who have strategic competence) tend to learn languages better and faster than those who are strategically inept.

Discourse competence is the main competence in the communicative competence. It enables speakers build the others competencies to make unified spoken or written text. There are many sub-areas that contribute to discourse competence: cohesion, deixis, coherence, generic structure, and the conversational structure (Celce-murcia et al., 1995:16). Since conversation is the most fundamental means of conducting human affairs, among all of discourse competence sub-areas, the one that highly relevant for communicative competence and language teaching is conversational structure. This is due to by turn taking system in oral conversation, people deal how to open and reopen conversation, establish and change topics, collaborate, and perform pre-closing and closing.

2.2.3 *Written and Spoken Language*

In using language for communication, we have two ways of doing it. The first one is written language and the second one is spoken language. It is true that written language is very different from spoken language. They have different register, functions, and context.

2.2.3.1 Written Language

Written language is used when a person is conveying his idea through written channel such as newsletter, short story, novel, etc. Halliday (1994:81)

claims “written language represents phenomena as product”. Language is used as reflections of phenomena among us. A piece of writing is an object, so what is represented by written language is also given the form of object. We are surrounded by written language, started from public sign on road and station, newspaper and magazine, menus and bills, until the education books, thesis, and dissertation.

Cornbleet and Carter (2001:10-12) state that writing is permanent, it can survive for centuries because it provides concrete proof that we can refer back to again and again; writing is distant, we can write to someone next door or on the other side of the world; writing is planned, we can think of each word before we write it and then we can always go back, correct it or alter it, until we're satisfied; writing is formal, writing tends to convey important messages and therefore we probably usually write in quite a formal way; writing is linear, we start writing on the left-hand side of the page, and move in a straight line to the right; and the last, writing is a process, we may write a word, re-read it, correct a slip, go on, stop, re-read to check the sense and decide on the best way to proceed and so on.

Paltridge (2006:13-19) has classified the differences between written and spoken English into eight important aspects, namely grammatical intricacy, lexical density, nominalization, explicitness, contextualization, spontaneity, repetition- hesitation and redundancy, and continuum view. Paltridge (2006:14) says that written mode is more complex and has lots of elaborations; it has more clauses per stretch of language. Content words have a tendency to be

extended over different clauses in spoken form, but in written language, they are packed tightly into individual clauses, here content words have a higher frequency than grammatical words. This means that written language is lexically denser than spoken form (Paltridge, 2006:14). By nominalization, Paltridge (2006:15) means the actions or events that are presented in the form of nouns instead of verbs. Nominalization has a low frequency in spoken language and also they have shorter noun groups while written discourse contains longer noun groups. According to Paltridge (2006:16), when speaking or writing, individuals may say something directly or they may infer it; they can decide how much they say something directly or indirectly. Depending on what the speakers want their hearers to understand, both of written and spoken can be explicit. However, written mode is more explicit because it is more pre-planned. Paltridge (2006:17) claims that written form is more decontextualized than spoken one. But in some occasions such as personal letters, writing is more dependent on a shared background than some spoken genres as academic lectures. Spoken form is produced spontaneously, so we can see its process of production as the person is speaking. But, writing is more grammatical and has a well-formed organization. It cannot be interrupted, because the audiences can see it when the product is finished and printed (Paltridge, 2006:17). Because spoken language is produced in real time, it uses considerably higher amounts of repetition, hesitation and redundancy. It uses more pauses and fillers such as *ummm, ahh, you know*. Based on Paltridge (2006:18) the differences between speech and writing are not simply one-dimensional, but they are regarded as a

scale or continuum from some texts like casual conversations that are more involved interpersonally to some other texts as written public notices that are more separated. Some written forms in English may be more explicit than spoken forms. Also, some writings like prepared academic lectures or academic writings which are published may be more tightly organized. Consequently, by considering a scale of differences, one can prevent people from having oversimplified views towards the differences between the two modes of discourse.

2.2.3.1 Spoken Language

Spoken language is considered when a person is conveying his idea through spoken channel. According to Halliday (1994:81) “spoken language represents phenomena as a process.” Here, language works accompanying action. When we talk, we represent by talking that something happens or something was done. There are types of spoken language (Hughes, 2011; Pridham, 2001).

Table 2.1 Types of Spoken Language

	Face-to-face	Non-face-to-face
Interaction (dialog)	Conversation	Phone talk
Non-interaction (monolog)	Live speech	TV news

One type of spoken language is conversation. It occurs in face-to-face situation and belongs to interaction spoken language because it is done by two or more participants. Conversation in particular is generally more spontaneous, is arguably more complex in its turn-taking patterns, and features more shortened,

non-verbal, and vague language forms (Anthony n.d.). Additionally, conversation is more dependent on context and the relationship of the participants engaged in the discourse.

2.2.4 Conversation

The most common kind of spoken text is conversation. It happens when a speaker communicates through speaking to another person or persons. Elizabeth (2003:66) states that conversation is an exchange of thoughts and feelings in an informal setting in real time. Conversation is marked by an exchange of comments, information, and feelings, thus the participants have the equal portion to tell their thought. The exchange happens at least in two turns, as cited in Coulthard (1997:70) conversation needs at least two people to carry it out. Some turns are more closely related than others.

There are two types of conversation, transactional conversation and interpersonal conversation according to Eggins and Slade (1997:20-23).

2.2.4.1 Transactional Conversation

According to Eggins and Slade (1997:20), transactional conversation has clear communicative/pragmatic structure which involves complementarities. It means when doing transactional conversation, the interactants have a pragmatic goal to be achieved. In every transactional conversation, the interactant demands goods, services, or information and the other gives them. We often do transactional conversations when we buy or sell something, make appointments, find out information, pass on knowledge, get job, or ask someone to do

something. In Eggins and Slade's view, transactional conversation has synoptic structure, which means that every transactional conversation is done in such structure: opening-transaction-closing.

2.2.4.1 Interpersonal Conversation

Eggins and Slade (1997:23) state that interpersonal conversation has no communicative or pragmatic purpose. It focuses primarily on the social needs of the speaker. Its purpose is to establish and maintain social relations. As example of this is when we get together with our friends over coffee or dinner and just "have a chat". Moreover, they suggest interpersonal conversation has a dynamic structure. There is no certain pattern like in transactional conversation since the participants are doing the conversation 'just' for having a chat.

2.2.5 *Structure in Conversation*

Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson (1974) in Pridham (2001:23) argue that conversation has its own dynamic structure and rules, and looks at the methods used by speakers to structure conversation efficiently. They look at the way people take turns, such as adjacency pairs and at discourse markers which indicate openings, closures and links between utterances.

2.2.5.1 Adjacency Pairs

Schegloff and Sacks (1973) in Warren (2006:121) identify a fundamental unit of conversational organization which they term adjacency pairs. Adjacency pairs can be described as automatic sequences consisting of a first part and a

second part (Pohaker 1998: 15). These parts are produced by different speakers. After uttering the first part, the speaker expects their conversational partner to produce a second part of the same pair at once. Typical examples of adjacency pairs are question/answer, greeting/greeting, offer/acceptance and so on. Pridham (2001:27) argues that adjacency pairs have strong in-built expectations as an accepted part of conversational structure. Questions are answered, statements are acknowledged, complaints are replied and greetings are exchanged. If the rules are ignored and these patterns are broken, this immediately creates a response.

2.2.5.2 Exchange Structure

Adjacency pairs can also be extended into adjacency triplets. Identified by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) in Pridham (2001:28), in their analysis of classroom conversations, and more commonly known as exchanges, they consist of three moves known as initiation (I), response (R) and follow-up (F) or feedback.

2.2.5.3 Discourse Markers

Discourse markers are also called utterance indicators, because it signposts the structure of the conversation for the listener, is also doing its part to help the audience understand what is being said. Stubbs (1983) in Pridham (2001:30) tells us that the function of a discourse marker is to relate utterances to each other or to mark a boundary in the discourse.

2.2.6 *The Grammar of Conversation*

Biber et al. (1999:989) assume that grammar is not just a study of abstract classes and structures, but of particular words and their particular functions within those classes and functions. Linguistic variation in spoken registers is different from written registers in the use of a wide range of lexical and grammatical features. For example, verbal and clausal features are common in spoken registers and relatively rare in written registers; in contrast, complex noun phrase features are common in written form, and vice versa (Hughes 2011:13).

Conversation has some grammatical features that especially characterize conversational language. Biber et al. (1999:1042-1050) suggest that conversation takes place in shared context, avoids elaboration or specification of meaning, is interactive, expresses stance, takes place in real time, and employs a vernacular range of expression.

2.2.6.1 Conversation takes place in shared context

Conversation is typically carried out in face-to-face interaction with others, with whom we share a great deal of contextual background (Biber et al., 1999:1042). It can be said that we share a large amount of specific social, cultural, and institutional knowledge. Conversation is marked grammatically by a very high frequency of pronouns but a very low frequency of nouns to keep sharing knowledge (Biber et al., 1999). The user of personal pronouns normally believes that we share knowledge of the intended reference of *you, she, it*, etc.

Pronoun reference represents only the most common variety of grammatical reduction that typifies conversation, others being use of ellipsis and

of substitute pro-forms (e.g. *one/ones* substituting for a nominal and *do it/that* substituting for a verb or verb phrase) (Biber et al., 1999:1042). Reduction means the simplification of grammatical structure, thus the reduction of the number of words uttered, by reliance on implicit meaning or reference, as supplied by mutual knowledge (Biber et al., 1999:1043). Another type of reliance on situational reference is through the use of deictic items (*this, that, these, those, there, then, now*, etc), most of which are particularly frequent in conversation. The more private the conversation, the more the understanding of it tends to convey on such deictic identification of reference.

Another type of grammatical reduction is the use of non-clausal or grammatically fragmentary components in speech (Biber et al, 1999:1043). Although such material can be seen in written language (e.g. in headlines and lists), it is far more pervasive and various in speech. These stand-alone words rely heavily for their interpretation on situational factors, which may be expressed through language or other means.

2.2.6.2 Conversation avoids elaboration or specification of meaning

Biber et al. (1999:1044) suggest that in drawing implicit meaning, conversation forgoes the need for the lexical and syntactic elaboration generally found in written expository registers. They state that conversation has remarkably low lexical density in comparison with other written registers. Biber et al. (1999:1062) define lexical density as the proportion of the text made up of lexical word tokens (nouns, lexical verbs, adjectives, and adverbs). Biber et al

(1999:1044) also say that conversation also has extremely low degree of grammatical elaboration, as is shown by a mean phrase length much lower than that of news and academic writing. In practice, this variability of syntactic elaboration is strongly related with the noun phrase. In particular, participants in conversation make the most use of pronouns that characteristically decrease the noun phrase to a simple monosyllable (Biber et al., 1999:1044).

In conversation, people also tend to avoid being specific about quantity and quality, as is shown by speakers' tendency towards vagueness which has been noted, and often censured, by critics of the slovenliness of conversation (Biber et al., 1999:1045). The frequent, actually compulsive, use of general conversational hedges such as *kind of*, *sort of*, and *like*. Other is the use of vague coordination tags such as *or something*, *or something like that*, *and stuff*, and *and things like that*. Vagueness is relational language that is currently used by speakers to convey information that is softened in some way so the utterances do not appear explicitly direct or improperly authoritative and assertive (Carter & McCarthy, 2006; Mumford, 2009; O'Keeffe et al, 1999 in Lin, 2012:107).

2.2.6.3 Conversation is interactive

Biber et al. (1999:1045) explain that conversation is co-constructed by two or more interlocutors, actively adapting their expression to the ongoing exchange. The to-and-from movement of conversation between speaker and listener is evident in the occurrence of utterances which by their nature, either form a response or elicit a response. In conversation analysis, these utterance-response

sequences are called adjacency pairs (Biber et al., 1999:1045), that may be either symmetric, as in the case of one greeting echoing another, or asymmetric, such as a sequence of question followed by answer.

Questions and imperatives, the sentence types that typically elicit a response, are more common in conversation than in written language. Another way to show the interactivity of conversation is by using inserts. These inserts often have a stereotyped initiating or responding function inside adjacency pairs framework, for example greetings like *hi*, farewells like *bye*, backchannels like *uhhuh*, response elicitors like *okay* (Biber et al., 1999:1046). There are also high frequencies of questions which are not full clauses like non-clausal fragments or tags (Biber et al., 1999:1046).

2.2.6.4 Conversation expresses politeness, emotion and attitude

According to Biber et al. (1999:1047), the interactive nature of conversation extends to the use of polite or respectful language in exchanges such as requests, greetings, offers, and apologies. Here certain inserts have a formulaic role in marking polite speech acts, for example, *thanks* and *thank you*, *please*, *bye*, and *sorry*. Vocatives such as *Sir* and *Madam* also have a respectful role. More typical of English is the use of stereotypic polite openings such as the interrogative forms *would you* and *could you*.

It must not be supposed that conversation preserves polite norms all of the time. Vocatives are remarkably versatile in conveying a varied and highly coloured range of speaker-hearer attitudes. Endearments (e.g. *honey*) and

laconically familiar appellatives we will call familiarizers (e.g. *man*) are far more characteristic of conversation than honorific forms such as *sir* and *madam* (Biber et al., 1999:1047). At the less restrained end of the emotional spectrum are frequently occurring interjections such as *oh*, *ah*, and *wow* and, much less commonly, exclamatives such as *what a rip-off* (Biber et al., 1999:1047).

2.2.6.5 Conversation takes place in real time

Cornbleet and Carter (2001:26) argue that most everyday conversation is spontaneous, unplanned and unrehearsed. Conversation is characterized by something called normal dysfluency (Biber et al., 1999:1048). It is quite natural for a speaker's flow to be distracted by pauses, hesitations (*err*, *um*), and repetitions where the need to keep talking threatens to go ahead of mental planning, and the planning needs to catch up.

Biber et al., (1999:1048) also say when many of the words to be uttered are predictable, devices for reducing the length of utterances are likely to be routinely employed. In phonological terms, informal speech is often marked by effort-reducing features such as elision and assimilation. Other usual effort-saving devices in conversation, and commonly in spoken language, are the use of contractions and ellipsis (Cornbleet and Carter, 2001 and Biber et al., 1999). Contraction means reducing enclitic forms of the verb (e.g. *it's*, *we'll*) and of the negative particle (e.g. *isn't*, *can't*); where ellipsis means taking the form of the omission of words of low information value (e.g. *doesn't matter* from *it doesn't matter*, *no problem* from *there's no problem*).

2.2.6.6 Conversation has a restricted and repetitive repertoire

Biber et al. (1999:1049) say there is local repetition in conversation; it means that speakers often repeat partially or precisely what has just been said. It can be seen in an example as follows:

David : *Let's serve this damn chilli.*

Michael : *Okay, let's serve the chilli.*

However, conversation is repetitive in a more global sense, it relies more on stereotyped, prefabricated sequences of words, which are called lexical bundles (e.g. *can I have, I don't know what, , going to have, do you want to*).

According to Biber et al. (1999:10950), the evidence for stereotyped verbal repertoire in conversation is the low type-token ratio of conversation compared with written registers. For example, the particularly high frequency of modal auxiliaries in conversation is largely due to the extremely common use of the modals *will, can, would, and could*. Likewise in the list of verbs taking *that*-clauses as complements, a very small number of such verbs, particularly *think, say, and know*, are massively more common than the other verbs in conversation.

2.2.6.7 Conversation employs a vernacular range of expression

From Biber et al. opinion (1999:1050), conversation commonly takes place privately between people who know one another, in many cases intimately. Hence, the style of conversation is informal, and it is shown by the use of informal lexical choice. As for example of the informal lexical choices that

commonly used are *get*, *damn*, *cute*. Informal language also characterize by the use of contractions (*it's*, *don't*) and regional dialect forms like *y'all* from southern USA (Biber et al. (1999:1050).

Moreover, in some conversational material we find morphological forms which tend to be regarded as outside the citadel of standard English (Biber et al., 1999:1050), such as *ain't*, or *aren't* in *aren't I*. Most conversational speakers also show little or no inhibition about using the non-standard *me and Ann* construction in place of the more polite and more prestigious construction *Ann and I*, or the prefer use of *who* instead of *whom*.

2.2.7 *Non-clausal Units in Spoken Grammar*

A clausal unit is a structure consisting of an independent clause together with any dependent clauses embedded within it (Biber et al., 1999:1069). For example:

|| *I think [you'll find [it counts towards your income]].* ||

We might try to analyze the syntax of speech by segmenting a conversation into clausal units, as above. However, we would not progress very far without coming across segments which are not clausal units nor part of clausal units. The following example shows how a conversation can consist mainly or entirely of non-clausal units (Biber et al., 1999:1069).

A: || **No**, || *I would even give you that chair in there.* ||

B: || **Mm.** ||

A: || *It came from Boston, by covered wagon.* ||

B: || *That's such a neat,* || *it's so nice to know the history behind it.* ||

A: || **Yeah**, || **yeah.** ||

B: || *So this was your mother's?* ||
 A: || *No,* || ***my father's.*** ||

Non-clausal units can be broadly divided into two categories: single words known as inserts and syntactic non-clausal units.

2.2.7.1 Inserts

Biber et al. (1999:1082) define inserts as a class of words, stand-alone words, which are characterized in general by their inability to enter into syntactic relation with other structure. Biber et al. (1999:1082-1095) explain that inserts signal relations between speaker, hearer, and discourse. They occur either as 'stand alone' elements or loosely attached to a clause or non-clausal structure, in which case they occur mainly in an initial position. The class of insert will be described as follow:

a. Interjections

“Interjections are words which have exclamatory function,” said Biber et al. (1999:1083). They usually express an emotive reaction to something that has been said, or has happened. For example: *oh, ah, wow, oops, ow, ouch* and, *argh*.

b. Greetings/farewells (*Morning* and *Bye*)

Greetings/farewells signal the beginning and end of conversation respectively. They usually occur in symmetrical exchanges as in:

A: <i>Morning</i>	A: <i>Bye, Butch</i>
B: <i>Morning</i>	B: <i>Bye, Marc</i>

c. Discourse markers

Discourse markers tend to occur at the beginning of a turn or utterance. Biber et al. (1999:1086) claim that they signal a transition in the evolving progress of conversation and an interactive relationship between speaker, hearer, and message. For example: *well, right, and now*.

d. Attention signals

Biber et al. (1999:1088) claim that attention getters have main function of claiming a hearer's attention, or for making a negative comment about someone's behaviour, and tends to be abrupt, and sometimes impolite. For example: *Hey, Yo, and Say*.

e. Response elicitors

For example: *huh?, eh?, right?, see?, and okay?*.

f. Response forms

Biber et al., (1999:1089) define "response forms are inserts used as brief and routinized responses to a previous remark by a different speaker". For example: *yes, no, okay, uh, hmm, and I see*.

g. Polite Formulas

Polite formulas are used in conversation to express thanking, apologizing, requesting, and congratulating (Biber et al. 1999:1093). For example: *Pardon?, Sorry? Excuse me?, Thank you, You're welcome, no problem, Good luck, and Congratulation*.

h. Expletives

“The term expletive is used for taboo expression (swearword) or semi-taboo expressions used as exclamations, especially in reaction to some strongly negative experience,” stated Biber et al. (1999:1094). For example: *my God, Oh hell, Bloody, God, Damn, My gosh, Geez, Gee, Heavens, Good grief, God Lord, and Heck.*

i. Hesitators

Biber et al. (1999: 1095) define hesitators “as a period of silence when the speaker appears to plan what to say next”. Hesitators’ core function is to enable the speaker to hesitate, i.e to pause in the middle of a message, while signaling the wish to continue speaking.

2.2.7.2 Syntactic Non-clausal Unit

Syntactic non-clausal units differ from inserts in that they can be given a syntactic description in terms of the structures and categories of sentence grammar. They may be characterized in terms of units which are capable of entering into syntactic relations with others for forming larger units such as clausal units (Bieber et al., 1999:1082). These units are often classifiable according to standard phrase categories, such as noun phrases, adjective phrases, adverb phrases, or prepositional phrases (Bieber et al., 1999:1099). There are some types of syntactic non-clausal unit based on Biber et al. (1999):

a. Elliptic replies

It is natural for speaker to build on the content of what a previous speaker has said, and to avoid unnecessary repetition (Bieber et al., 1999:1099).

A: *Where did you guys park?*

B: **Right over here.** (We park right over there.)

A: *Well I personally think it's too cold to snow tonight.*

B: **Too cold?** (Is it too cold to snow tonight?)

b. Condensed questions

Two conventionalized types of condensed questions are ones which begin *How about* and *What about* (Bieber et al., 1999:1100).

How about your wife?

Now **what about** a concert this Friday?

c. Echo questions

Echo questions are questions which request confirmation of what has already been said, by repeating part of its content (Bieber et al., 1999:1101).

A: *I don't see nothing in San Francisco.*

B: *Oh, did you say San Francisco?*

d. Elliptic question-and-answer sequences

In conversation, we can see the tendency of speakers to answer their own questions, or rather to proffer an answer to their own questions, in the form of another interrogative.

A: *Oh, I don't want to go on tour trip I mean uh a boat.*

B: **Why not,** do you get seasick?

e. Condensed directives

Condensed or elliptical directives have the force of command usually addressed to children or pets.

No crying!

Head down! Come on, head down.

Up the stairs, now.

Down! Down the stair please!

f. Condensed assertions

Non clausal units with assertive force often consist of a noun phrase or an adjective phrase.

Very special. Prawns in it and all sort.

No wonder this house is full of dirt!

g. Elliptic exclamatives

How cool!

What e joker, eh?

Oh this is lovely, isn't it? What a nice wide street.

h. Other exclamations(including insults)

Ah! That boy!

Timmy! Sit down! Good boy!

Oh dear me!

i. Various polite speech acts

Happy birthday to you.

Glad you could make it.

Thanks a lot, sorry about that.

j. Vocatives

Vocatives n constitute a ‘lone’ non-clausal unit, with or without accompanying insert: *Darling! Hey Martin.*

*Yes I’m coming in a moment **darling.***

2.2.8 *Speech Acts*

Speech Acts Theory was originated by John Austin. He gave a series of lectures, the William James Lectures at Harvard, which were published posthumously as a book entitled “*How to Do Things with Words*” (Oishi, 2006:1). Austin presented a new picture of analyzing meaning; meaning is described in a relation among linguistic conventions correlated with words/sentences, the situation where the speaker actually says something to the hearer, and associated intentions of the speaker (Oishi, 2006:1).

2.2.8.1 Classification of Speech Acts

Searle (1969), as cited in Dylgjeri (2017:21), improves on Austin’s Speech Act theory (1962) by classifying it into five classes:

(1) Assertive/representatives

These are statements that describe speaker’s belief of affairs in the world which could be true or false. They compel a speaker to the truth of the expressed proposition, for example averring.

(2) Directives

These are statements that require or make another person’s action fit the propositional element. It occurs when the speaker expects the listener to do

something as a response. For example, the speaker may ask a question, make a request, command, advice, entreaties, or issue an invitation.

(3) Commissive

These statements commit the speaker to certain future of action. In common conversation, it could be in the form of promises or threats.

(4) Expressive

In conversation, an expressive speech act occurs when a speaker expresses his or her psychological state to the listener. The function of expressive statements is to express sincerity of the speech act like excuses, sympathy, gratitude, and apologizes.

(5) Declaratives

These statements are used to say something and make it so, bring about a change in status or condition to an object by virtue of the statement itself. For example, a statement declaring war or a statement that someone is fired, baptized, or married).

Richard and Schmidt (1983:38-40) give further explanation about Searle's classification. Different with Searle, Richard and Schmidt classify speech acts into four. They group assertive and declaratives into representatives, and also call evaluative instead of expressive but the meaning is same.

a. Representatives

Speaker expresses belief that the propositional content is true and:

- indicates the belief in his own opinion (affirm, allege, assert, aver, claim, declare, maintain, say, forecast, predict, prophesy, report, recount)

- indicates the belief rests with some verifiable knowledge (advice, announce, apprise, disclose, inform, insist, notify, point out, report, reveal, tell, testify)
- indicates the belief rest with some truth-seeking procedure (appraise, assess, certify, conclude, confirm, corroborate, find, judge, substantiate, validate, verify)
- indicates the belief contrary with the previous belief (acknowledge, admit, agree, allow, assent, concede, concur, confer, grant)
- indicates the belief is no longer held by him (correct, disavow, disclaim, renounce, retract, deny)
- indicates the belief is that another person (accept, agree, assent, concur)
- indicates the belief is not that of another person (differ, disagree, dissent, reject)
- indicates the belief is tentative (conjecture, guess, hypothesize, speculate, suggest)
- indicates the belief worth consideration (assume, hypothesize, postulate, stipulate, suppose, theorize)
- indicates the belief is not shared by all (demur, dispute, object, protest, question)
- indicates the belief accurately characterize some object (appraise, assess, call, categorize, characterize, classify, date, describe, diagnose, evaluate, grade, identify, rank)

b. Directives

Speaker expresses a desire regarding the action specified in the propositional content:

- indicates the hearer to carry out the action (ask, beg, beseech, implore, invite, petition, plead, request, solicit, summon, urge, inquire, question, bid, charge, command, dictate, direct, enjoin, instruct, order, proscribe, require)
- indicates the hearer not to carry out the action indicating that the hearer not to do so in virtue of the authority of the speaker over the hearer (enjoin, forbid, prohibit, proscribe, restrict)
- indicates the hearer is to believe that the hearer is now entitled to carry out the action in virtue of the speaker's authority over the hearer (agree, allow, authorize, bless, consent to dismiss, excuse, exempt, forgive, sanction, pardon)
- indicates the hearer that the hearer is to consider the merits of taking the action in virtue of the speaker's believe that there is sufficient reason for the hearer to act (advise, admonish, caution, counsel, propose, recommended, suggest, urge, warn)

c. Commissive

Speaker intends that his utterance obligates him to carry out the action specified in the propositional content:

- without any further preconditions (promise, swear, guarantee, vow)
- subject to a favorable response by the hearer (offer, propose, bet, volunteer, bid)

d. Expressive

Speaker expresses:

- regret for a prior action for the hearer; feels responsible (apologize)
- sympathy for the hearer having suffered (condole, commiserate)
- gladness for the hearer having performed some action (complement, congratulate)
- pleasure at having encountered the hearer (greet)

2.2.8.2 Functions of Speech Acts

Ek and Trim (1998:28-47) have identified six major functions of speech acts in communication. The followings are:

a. Imparting/seeking factual information:

identifying; reporting, describing and narrating; correcting; asking and answering question.

b. Expressing and finding out attitudes:

expressing and enquiring agreement and disagreement; denying statements; stating and enquiring whether one knows or does not know a person, thing, or fact; stating and enquiring whether one remembers or has forgotten a person, thing or action; expressing and enquiring degree of probability; expressing and enquiring necessity; expressing and enquiring degree of certainty; expressing and enquiring obligation; expressing and enquiring ability or inability; expressing and enquiring that something is or is not permitted; expressing and enquiring desires; expressing and enquiring intentions; expressing and enquiring preference;

expressing and enquiring pleasure; expressing and enquiring like or dislike; expressing and enquiring satisfaction or dissatisfaction; expressing and inquiring interest; expressing surprise; expressing hope; expressing disappointment; expressing fear; giving reassurance, expressing gratitude; offering and accepting apology; expressing obligation; expressing approval and disapproval; expressing regret and sympathy.

c. Deciding on course of action:

suggesting and agreeing suggestion; requesting; advising; warning; encouraging; instructing; requesting and offering assistance; inviting; accepting or declining invitation; asking for something.

d. Socializing:

attracting attention; greeting and replying a greeting; addressing a friend or acquaintance; addressing a stranger; addressing a customer; introducing someone; congratulating; proposing a toast; taking leave.

e. Structuring discourse:

opening; hesitating; correcting oneself; introducing or changing a theme; expressing and asking opinion; enumerating; exemplifying; emphasizing; summarizing; showing that one is following a person discourse; interrupting, giving over the floor; asking someone to be silent; indicating a wish to continue.

f. Communication repair:

signaling non-understanding; asking for repetition, confirmation, clarification; expressing ignorance; appealing for assistance; paraphrasing; repeating; asking if you have been understood; spelling out a word or expression.

These lists have become the basis in designing language teaching syllabus. In Indonesia too, English language teaching syllabus (the term curriculum is preferred) has set teaching in speech act functions besides the genres.

2.2.9 *Conversation Gambits*

Matei (2010:120) states that gambits are elements that appear in initial position and which can be part of the textual theme. Here, gambits are words used to start a conversation. While Lee et al. (2004:179) calls gambits as 'discourse markers'. They divide them into two categories: those that mark ideational structure, such as connectives and temporal adverbials (*and, meanwhile, now*) and those which mark pragmatic structure (*oh, alright, well*).

Keller and Warner (1988:4) define gambits as a word or phrase which help us to express what we intend to say. They argue that conversation gambits do not express an opinion, may only introduce the opinion, but they play significant roles in conversation. Gambits smoothen one's speaking. If someone never uses gambits in conversation, others will think he/she is very straight, abrupt, and even rude. There are three kinds of conversation gambits.

2.2.9.1 Opening Gambits

According to Keller and Warner (1988:5) opening gambits are used to help speaker introduce ideas into the conversation. Opening gambits is not only used to start conversation, but also to introduce new ideas during a conversation. Keller and Warner give 24 examples of opening gambits, which are gambits for asking for information, breaking in, interrupting game, getting

information on the phone, actions in order, telling a story, listing excuses, the main thing, the main problem, a surprising fact, surprising news, the hidden truth, changing the subject, current affairs, an unpleasant thought, guessing a conviction, personal opinions, sharing a confidence, how something affects you, how to get money, offering a suggestion, the great escape, and counter-plan. For example, speaker may wish to get someone's attention by saying *excuse me*, introduce a surprising news with *you won't believe it*, or deliver an opinion with *I think*.

2.2.9.2 Linking Gambits

“The main reason for using linking gambits is that the listeners will be more prepared for speaker's arguments and views,” stated Warner and Keller (1988:35). Linking gambits are used to tie into what has just been said. They will know from speaker's links whether (s)he is going to agree or disagree.. If speaker uses links, (s)he will be more easily understood. According to Keller and Warner, there are 23 examples of linking gambits, which are gambits include thinking about a problem, emphasizing a point, adding things, giving a reason, getting a new reason, thinking ahead, popular misconceptions, we take it for granted, saying 'no' tactfully, door-to-door salespeople, correcting yourself, putting the record straight, arguments and counter-arguments, demanding explanations, expressing your reservations, taking things into consideration, seeing the good side, generalizing, exceptions, the generalization game, illustrating your point, what you really mean, and finishing your story. We use linking gambits for

example when we want to correct ourselves by using *What I mean is...* or demand explanation like *I don't understand why...*

2.2.9.3 Responding Gambits

In conversation, speakers expect other people to respond them. Responding gambits are used to give our conversation partners some feedback about what they say. How listeners respond will show how the next speaker will develop what they are going to say next. Responding gambits allow speakers to agree or disagree at different levels, to show surprise, disbelief, or polite interest, right or wrong, crowd reactions, getting to know someone, the love test, analyzing your handwriting, inkblots, being sympathetic, the interview, showing interest, communication problems, and accepting compliment (Warner and Keller 1988:61). For example, *can I help you?*, *I haven't a clue*, *it serves you right*, *you're absolutely right*, *are you following me?*, or *I know exactly what you mean*.

2.2.10 Gambits of Speech Acts for Twelfth Graders

There are four speech acts with six expressions specified in Curriculum 2013 for the twelfth graders, they are assertive (giving opinions), directives (asking for attention, expressing obligation, and offering advices/suggestions), commissive (offering services/helps), and declaratives (telling surprising news). Gambits of the six expressions are as follows:

2.2.10.1 Gambits of Offering Services/Helps

In offering services or helps, we better use gambits to smoothen our intention to help. It is more polite because sometimes we do not really know whether someone really needs our helps or not. There are some gambits which can be used in offering services or helps (Keller and Warner, 1988:7; www.ihbristol.com). The gambits are given in the following table:

Table 2.2 Gambits of Offering Services/Helps

Speech Acts	Related Gambits
Offering Services/Helps	May I help you? May I offer my assistance? Can I help you? Can I give you a hand? Could I offer you something? Shall I help you? What can I do for you? Would you like ... Would you like some help? What would you like? Are you looking for something? Need any help? Do you need help? Do you need some help? Do you need any help? How about I help you with this?

2.2.10.2 Gambits of Telling Surprising News

When we intend to tell someone surprising news, we can use gambits so that he/she are ready to listen. Moreover, using gambits will make our news sound more interesting. There are some gambits which can be used in surprising news (Dornyei and Thurrel, 1992:75; Keller and Warner, 1988:17-18). The gambits are given in the following table:

Table 2.3 Gambits of Telling Surprising News

Speech Acts	Related Gambits
Telling Surprising News	Guess what! You know what? You'll never guess it. Surprise! Surprisingly ... I've got news for you! Do you know what! Are you sitting down? You'd better sit down! Believe it or not, You won't believe this, (but) ... You may not believe this/it, (but) ... you'll never believe this/it, (but) ... This is hard to believe, (but) ... The surprising thing is ... Can you imagine? Imagine my surprise when ... I couldn't believe my eyes/ears!

2.2.10.3 Gambits of Asking for Attention

When we need an attention from other people, we have to ask them in appropriate manner. There are some gambits which can be used in asking for attention (www.macmillandictionary.com). The gambits are given in the following table:

Table 2.4 Gambits of Asking for Attention

Speech Acts	Related Gambits
Asking for Attention	Listen Look Watch Pay attention So now, listen to ... Excuse me Watch out! I have a question for you What's up? Right,

Speech Acts	Related Gambits
	Now then, Hello! Hey! All right, See? Here, Listen up! Heads up! Do you hear me? Look at this/that Yoo hoo Ahem

2.2.10.4 Gambits of Expressing Obligation and Necessity

Sometimes people tell what they or others need, or tell what they or others should or should not do. There are some gambits which can be used in expressing obligation and necessity (www.english-learners.com). The gambits are given in the following table:

Table 2.5 Gambits of Expressing Obligation and Necessity

Speech Acts	Related Gambits
Expressing Obligation and Necessity	You must ... You really must ... You must not ... You have to ... You don't have to ... You need ... You don't need ... You should ... You shouldn't ... You ought to ... You're supposed to .. You'd better ...

2.2.10.5 Gambits of Giving Opinions

Giving opinion means that someone wants to deliver his/her ideas to the listener. Before stating the ideas, people should use gambits. There are some gambits which can be used in giving opinions (Dornyei and Thurrel, 1992:88; Keller and Warner, 1988:23-27). The gambits are given in the following table:

Table 2.6 Gambits of Giving Opinions

Speech Acts	Related Gambits
Giving Opinions	I think ... I suppose ... I'm pretty sure that ... I wonder if ... I'd say ... In my view/opinion ... I honestly feel that ... I strongly believe that ... I personally believe/think/feel ... To my mind ... As I see it ... It appears/seems to me ... To my mind ... If you ask me ... I'd say that ... As far as I can tell,

2.2.10.6 Gambits of Offering Advices/Suggestions

It is not easy to offer advices or suggestions. Sometimes people get loss when they are to offer suggestion to their friends, family, relatives, and subordinates or even to elders. There are some gambits which can be used in offering advices or suggestions (Dornyei and Thurrel, 1992:101; Keller and Warner, 1988:31). The gambits are given in the following table:

Table 2.7 Gambits of Offering Advices/Suggestions

Speech Acts	Related Gambits
Offering Advices/Suggestions	Why don't you ...? Why not ...? Perhaps you could I have an idea Let's ... What/How about ...? I suggest ... I'd like to suggest ... May I suggest ... If I may/might make a suggestion ... Shall we ...? Couldn't you ...? You could/might (try) ... (If I were you) I would ... You may/might want/like to ... Have you ever considered/thought of/about ...? You should/ought to/you'd better ... It would be best if ... One way would be to ... Would/Might/Could it be an idea to ...

2.2.11 “Bahasa Inggris” for Grade XII School Textbook

Textbooks are very essential in teaching learning language. In some situations, textbooks serve as the centre for much of the language input learners receive and the language practice that arise in the classroom. Much of the language teaching that occurs throughout the world today could not take place without the extensive use of textbooks (Richards at www.professorjackrichards.com). The Oxford Dictionary describes a textbook as a book giving instruction in a branch of learning (Hornby, 1986:893). It means that a textbook used in some studies at school. It should be designed by experts for classroom use completed with appropriate teaching aids and student's exercise.

In Indonesia, there are many textbooks for all subjects available for students. “Bahasa Inggris” is one of the English textbooks provided for senior high school students grade XII. This textbook is considered by Ministry of Education and Culture as a reliable textbook to be used in teaching and learning processes as part of implementation of Curriculum 2013. It was written by Utami Widiati, Zuliati Rohmah, and Furaidah, and was reviewed by Rd. Safrina Noorman, Helena I.R. Agustien, and Wawan Gunawan.

Although it is suggested that English textbooks should expose learners to language in real use, artificiality can still be identified throughout teaching and learning materials used in the English classroom (Lin, 2012:106). While textbooks can provide support for teachers whose first language is not English and who may not be able to generate accurate language input on their own, they sometimes present unnatural language since texts, dialogs, and other aspects of content tend to be specially written to incorporate teaching points and are often not representative of naturally-occurring conversation. It is important to investigate conversation texts since the textbook may be used as major source of contact the learners have with the language. It should display good models of conversation texts and represent the naturally-occurring conversation.

2.3 Theoretical Framework

I analyze conversation texts in the textbook “Bahasa Inggris” for grade XII, whether this textbook provide good models of conversation which represent naturally-occurring conversation. First, I label the turn-taking of each speaker, and

then I analyze them based on two aspects: spoken grammatical features and conversation gambits. I use theory from Biber et al. (1999) to analyze spoken grammatical features and the conversation gambits from Keller and Warner's theory (1988). I also analyze the gambits because besides paying attention to the spoken grammatical features, the one way we make our conversations represent naturally-occurring conversation is by using gambits. After analysing the conversation texts based on those aspects, I draw a conclusion of each conversation whether it has good grammatical features or not. Finally, the result of this study is expected to have some implications on pedagogical field. Below is the theoretical framework of this study.

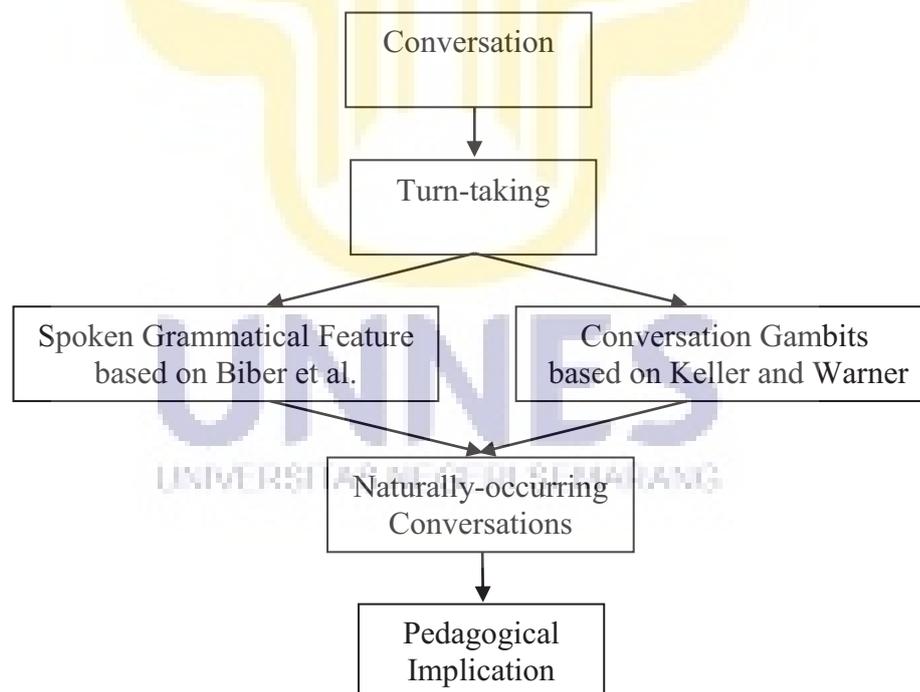


Figure 2.2 Theoretical Framework

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

In this chapter, the conclusion from the data analysis is presented. Besides the conclusions, some suggestions are also provided with the hope that they will be useful for readers.

5.1 Conclusions

Based on the discussion of the findings, the conclusions can be drawn as follow.

Firstly, it can be seen that all conversation texts in “Bahasa Inggris” share some common features of naturally-occurring conversation. However, some important features in informal conversation such as pauses, hesitations, repeats, expletives, and non-standard features do not appear. The non-existence of those features makes them lack of naturalness of real life communication.

Secondly, it is proved that non-clausal units as constructional principles of spoken grammar are realized in the conversation texts in “Bahasa Inggris”. Inserts are found in 14 conversation texts and syntactic non-clausal units are found in 10 conversation texts.

Thirdly, opening, linking, and responding gambits are used in the conversation texts in “Bahasa Inggris”. They are arranged based on the speech acts and expressions which are required by the syllabus of Curriculum 2013. Nevertheless, the proportion of the use of four speech acts and six expressions is not equal.

5.2 Suggestions

After the discussion and explanation above, I would like to present some suggestions related to the analysis in this study.

Firstly, for the English teachers, it is recommended for teachers to choose the English textbook which provides conversation texts, in this case, the ones that represent naturally-occurring conversations. For example, they can use textbooks that are written by native speakers. Teachers should be aware of the difference between communicative competence and grammatical competence in teaching students. Therefore, the students will be able to learn the spoken form of language, not only learn a language through speaking.

Secondly, because textbook really influences the students' study, ESL/EFL non-native textbook writers should provide good models of conversation texts which are relevant to the prevailing curriculum and construct them based on the cultural and situational context of English. They should pay more attention to the particular detail features of conversation, or they can use authentic spoken language data instead of making it up.

Finally, a suggestion is also addressed to the researchers who are interested in conducting such study. It may be a model to enrich and vary their research.

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