2.REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The first part is the related theories and the second part is the related study. Those theories and studies are important for the writer as the guide in analyzing the data later.

2.1 Review Of Related Theories

2.1.1 Chatting

Each person's life is lived as a series of conversation (Tannen, 1990:13). Whenever people meet others, there will be conversation. Conversation can be implemented into two types. It is usually differentiated based on its situation. Conversation ca happens in informal and formal situation. Such an informal talk is called chatting. According to Collins, chatting is talk or conversation in an easy familiar manner which occur in informal situation. In other word, we can call it as an idle talk (Collins, 1995). Therefore, chatting usually occurs when two or more people gather up and make small and relax conversation in informal situation. Chatting mostly occur in informal situation or setting.

The topics in chatting can be anything which are mostly around everyday life such as about friends, other people, jobs, games, sports, hobbies, and many others. Usually female like to chat with their friends, because female always curios about anything, that is why they often change the topic.

The place where chatting occurs is various. People can chat about anything in almost any kinds of places such as at school, at home, at the boarding house, in the cafeteria, on the telephone, and even in public transportation.

2.1.2 Topic

When people gather and have a conversation, topic of conversation will arise. According to Stenstorm, topic is what being talked about by the speakers (1994:134).

It means that in a conversation, two or more people will talk about something. When people talk about the same thing, the conversation will move on. While according to McCarthy, topics are string of utterances perceived as relevant to one another by participants in talk (1991). Therefore, the topic of the conversation can be indicated by recognizing what the speakers talk about; it is common in a conversation that one of the participants proposes a topic. Each of the participants has the equal right to propose a topic. Topic in a conversation is not permanent and it can be changed in the process of conversation (Brown and Yule, 1983:89). It means that not all topics proposed by the participants will be accepted as the topic of conversation. When one participant responds to a topic and then proposes a new topic, topic shift occurs in the conversation. In a conversation, the participants do not only talk about one topic but they will shift and develop the topic. Therefore, it is important for people to know what topic shift is.

2.1.3 Topic Shift

According to Brown and Yule, topic shift is a change of topic in a conversation (1983). It means that in a conversation, the speaker will talk into another subject of discussion. While according to Strenstrom, there are five kinds of topic shift, which are differentiated in term of their relation with the previous topic. They are topic change, topic shift, topic drift, topics digress, and topic resume. Topic change is moving from one topic to an unrelated topic by abandoning the current topic, while topic shift is moving from one topic to a related topic or from one aspect of the current topic to another. Topic drift is shifting the topic in an inconspicuous way. Topic digress is moving away temporarily from the current topic. The last is topic resume is ending the digression and going back to the old topic (1994: 150 – 160). According to Coulthard, the occurrence of the topic shift in a conversation is important, because it can make 'the ongoing run smoothly' (1985). McCarthy also aggress that topic shift is very important especially in keeping the conversation still go on and 'avoiding silences' (1991). That's way in order to make the conversation still going on and run smoothly, a speaker tends to talk not only one topic but also

relates it to another topic which sometimes has relation with the previous conversation and sometimes not at all.

2.1.3.1 Topical Strategies

To know the topic is shifting or not by the speaker, we need to identify the topical strategies that they use. Topical strategies are the strategies used by the speakers to reveal how they deal with topics. By using the topical strategies, we can find out whether the speaker introduce, terminate, or shift the topic that can be related or not to the current topic.

According to *Strenstrom (1994),* **topical strategies contains of:**

1. Introducing a topic

Introducing involves bringing up a first topic at the beginning or a new topic in the course of the conversation. The first topic is most likely to be introduced by means of some linguistic strategies, which help the speaker to get started, and prepares the listener for the speaker's next action. For example, the following extract reveals that the speaker uses <preface> in introducing a topic.

e.g. A: -- **something I want to go back to** – I acquired an absolutely magnificent Sewing machine by foul means **did I tell you about that?**

B: No

<preface> is usually used to introduce a primary act. By standing something I want to go back to, A prepares B, the listener, for A's next action. Then, A states *"did I tell you about that"* in order to make certain that B has not already heard the story.

2. Terminating a topic

Terminating involves closing the old topic before introducing a new one or before closing the entire conversation. Sometimes terminations are not linguistically marked, but they are still not entirely unmarked; silent pauses and laughter for instances are non-lexical markers that may serve as termination markers.

A: …or is it a dancer I don't know it's got an enormous belly---

B: **m - - -**

A: how do you get on with Thorpe?

When B utters *"m"* followed by long pause, it can be noticed that it has nothing to say about the current topic and then terminates the topic. Hence, A then introduces a new topic.

A: I'll tell you what we'll go early – **(5 seconds untranscribable speech and laughter)**

B: well do you do yours still hang up a stocking

When A laughs for about five seconds, A actually gives signal that s/he terminates the current topic. After that, B introduces a new topic

3. Changing The topic

Changing involves abandoning the current topic in favor of a new, unrelated topic. Before changing the topic, <frame> is sometimes used to give clue that the speaker is going to change the topic.

e.g. A: …**right. Well now switching to** your return to this country…

It can be seen from the example above that A terminates the old topic by stating *"right"* and goes on to the next in the same turn by stating *"well now switching to"*. After stating *"right"*, A uses *"well know"* in order to mark a boundary in her/his next statement with the previous one.

In informal conversation between intimate speakers new topics tend to be introduced at once.

e.g. B : I didn't hear the news before I came out . I'd left . well before that .

A : **I wonder when bena . when . Bernadette will be arriving**

B : I don't know but she's very welcome to come up for a meal - - -

The example above shows that A brings up at once a new topic that is about when Bernadette will arrive. The marker "*I wonder*" indicates the changing of the topic.

4. Shifting the topic

Shifting involves moving from one topic to a related topic or from one aspect of the current topic to another. The transition from the old to a new topic can be mark by the use of.

E.g. A: English literature you know

B: - I remember it isn't **quite the same thing** but a person

When I was at school...

It can be seen from the example above that the old and the new topic are clearly related. B gives comment on what A's statement that is about English literature. *"Quite the same thing"* stated by B refers back to what A was talking about previously.

Sometimes, the transition from one aspect to another is indicated by the use of markers such as pauses and/or laughter. The new aspect, or subtopic, may then be initiated by a <statement> or a <question>. The examples are in the following extracts:

1. A : ...I'm sure he went for a smoke **(- -laughs) - -**

   B : **I did know one Indian who . ironically - learnt to chain smoke in this country …**

2. A : ...he could break it in holidays - - but as soon as the term began again - . the strain was to much for him to . couldn't go and do without them any longer

   B : **(- - . laughs) what part of India were you in?**

   In the first extract, it can be seen that B initiates to shift the topic by using a <question> in the second extract.

5. Drifting the topic

Drifting involves moving almost imperceptibly from one topic to another or shifting in an inconspicuous way. Sometimes people do not realize whether the topic is already changing. It is usually linguistically unmarked, but there is some associative link between the old and the new topic.

e.g. A: I love Dorset though it's so beautiful - -

B: Billy's ties with it are about to be broker

A: Are they

B: cos **his parents are selling their house** or trying to

A: Oh that's sad

In the extract above, it can be seen that the speakers are talking about various places to go for holiday. A mentions Dorset, and as soon as she does, speaker B is reminded of a mutual friend whose parents own a house in the area. Suddenly, the conversation is all about the friend's parents. There is not marker that marks the transition, neither lexical marker nor prosody.

6. Digressing the topic

Digressing involves moving away temporarily from the current topic. The digressions sometimes are linguistically unmarked, and they usually occur after pauses. Take the following, for instance, pause which comes in the middle of a discussion about B's background:

A: …it's in Lincolnshire –

B: =uhuh –

A: part of Kesteven **- - - Thorpe's away is he?**

It can be seen from the example above that the long pause after A states *"Kesteven"* seems to reflect that there is a momentary gap to be filled. Then, A digresses the topic by introducing a topic about Thorpe. It means that the long pause used by a give signal that A digresses the current topic.

7. Resuming the topic

Resuming the topic involves ending the digression and going back to the old topic. The digression is usually terminated by the use of pauses, laugh and giggles. They usually terminate the digression and mark the resumption of the old topic. Meanwhile, the resumption is usually initiated by a question.

e.g. B: …it's got an enormous belly - - -

    A: **m - - -**

    B: **how do you get on with Thorpe?**

It can be seen from the example above that A terminates the digression by using pause. After that, B resumes the topic by initiating the resumption of the old topic with a <question>.

By using these topic strategies, we can know whether the speaker introduces or terminate the topic, changes, shifts, drifts, resumes, or digresses the topic. Nevertheless, besides topical strategies, we still need to notice the marks that are very important in indicating when the topic ends and new topic begins in a conversation. The markers are very important to be noticed, especially when the speakers shift the topic abruptly and do not use any explicit linguistic strategy such as <frames>, <prefaces>, or <metacomments> before introducing a new topic. Thus, topic shift markers are important in order to differentiate and to know the transition between one

2.1.4 Topic Shift Markers

According to Brown and Yule, topic shift marker is the point at which the shift from one topic to the next is marked. They also stated that topic shift markers are very important because the failure in marking the shift of the topic can cause misinterpretation of the message that the speaker wants to convey (1983: 94-95). Besides that, topic shift markers are also needed to connect one utterance to another in order to make a coherent sentence. They are also useful to help both the speaker and the listener to understand each other and to produce coherent utterances. Therefore, it is very essential for us to recognize these markers well and apply them in a conversation. There are many kinds of topic shift markers that are used by the speaker. S/he can use well, y'know, so, etc. in order to know what topic shift markers that a speaker used in having a conversation, the writer employs discourse markers theory proposed by Schiffrin (1991).

2.1.4.1 Discourse Markers

According to Scriffrin, discourse markers are sequentially elements, which brackets units of talk on language in use (1991: 31). They are important because according to Stenstorm, discourse markers could help the speaker to organize the discourse. She stated that discourse markers are very important because they serve to start a conversation, introduce and mark the end of a topic, introduce a digression and mark the resumption of the old topic, and signalize the end of a conversation (1994:63).). While McCarthy stated that:

"When we look at a lot of natural spoken data, we find the basic conjunctions *and, but so,* and *then* much in evidence, and used not just to link individual utterances within turns, linking one speaker's turn with another speaker's, or linking back to an earlier turn of the current speaker, or else making a shift in topic or sub-topic. In this sense, the conjunctions are better thought of as discourse markers, in that they organize and 'manage' quite extended stretches of discourse." (McCarthy ,1991)

There are six types of discourse markers proposed by **Scriffrin**, they are:

1. Marker of information ('oh')

'**Oh'** is an information management marker because it occurs as speakers shift their orientation to information. The speaker shift the orientation during a conversation itself does not only as they respond affectively to what is said, but also as they replace one information unit with another, as they recognize old information which has become conversationally relevant, and as they receive new information to integrate into an already present knowledge base. All of those are information management tasks.

e.g. Eddy : I think his house is number fifteen,…twenty-five, or thirty-five, I'm not sure . Eh… **oh** I'm wrong, number fifteen, fifteen.

In the example above, Eddy is initiating to replace one unit of information with another by himself. His self-initiating *(Oh I'm wrong)* precedes his self-completion.

2. Marker of response ('well')

'Well' is a response marker because 'well' locates a speaker as a respondent to one level of discourse and allows a temporary release from attention to others. Besides that, 'well' often begins turns and it can also shift talk toward already topics of mutual concern, not only during pre-closing, but also throughout conversation.

e.g.   Mayke   : How old do you think a woman should get married?

Chris   : twenty two

Cindy   : **Well**, I think more than twenty-five

It can be seen from the example above that Cindy initiates her response toward Chris' statement with *"well"* **.** It means that she uses well as the marker of response

3. Discourse connectives ('and', 'but', 'or')

'And' has two roles in talk that are it coordinates idea units and continues a speaker action. **'But'** marks an upcoming unit as a contrasting ideas or actions and marks a speaker's return to a point. **'Or'** marks a speaker's provision of option to hearer.

Hilda   : He came t'the door, all dressed in an ascot, and a bathrobe **and** he said, 'I didn't ask you people t'vote for me…

It can be noticed that Hilda uses '*and' in* order to coordinate her story.

Lia   : I used t'go every summer. My mother'd send me down with relatives.

         But I used t'cry I wanted to go home. I didn't like it.

Lia is telling how she did not enjoy her time when she spent parts of her childhood summers at the seashore. Thus, she reports her reaction with *but.*

Ziggy   : It's when there's an economic situation then they use race. **Or** they use nationality, **or** anti Semitism, **or** what have you.

It can be seen that Ziggy uses *or* to give the hearer the options.

4. Markers of cause and result ('so' and 'because')

'So' and **'because'** are markers of cause and result because they convey meanings of **'result'** and **'cause'** which may be realized as fact-based, knowledge-based, and/or action-based relations between units of talk.

e.g. Carmen : She [=Michelle] goes with me a lot , **cause** she has more patience…with my daughter than I do. **So**, sometimes we go shopping together with my daughter.

The information in Carmen's answer is that she shops with Michelle and her daughter. She also explains why she goes with Michelle, prefacing that subordinate information with *because*. She goes closes her answer by repeating its main information with *so.*

5. Temporal adverbs ('now' and 'then')

'Now' and **'then'** are markers of discourse time because they convey a relationship between the time at which the preposition is assumed to be true, and the time at which it is presented in an utterance. 'Now' marks a speaker's progression through discourse time by displaying attention to what is coming next. 'Then' creates a bridge to a prior discourse time created by an utterance from either the speaker him/herself or from the other.

- Eric   : **Now** y'see your age wouldn't appreciate Overcoat.

Sometimes, the presentation of an opinion does initiate an actual disagreement and thus make the comparison between 'my view' and 'another's view'. In the example above, Eric is telling about his favorite old movie that is *Overcoat.* Then, he gives his opinion about the ability of the others to like this movie by initiating her statement with *now.*

- Irene   : And uh: I lived there 'til I got married, and **then,** for about

two years after **then.**

In the example above, Irene is answering a question about where she has lived. She uses *then* that marks both coterminous and successive event times: initial *then* marks the two years time period following Irene's marriage.

6. Information and participation ('y'know' and 'I'mean')

'Y'know' is markers of information because it marks transition in information state, which is relevant for participation frameworks and gains attention from the hearer to open an interactive focus on speaker provided information. While 'I'mean' is marker of participation because it marks speaker orientation toward own talk and maintains attention on the speaker.

- Zelda : **D-y'know**, the teams.

   Irene : Oh. Wha'd'y'mean the kids?

It can be seen that Zelda's statements about the *teams* is initiated with *y'know* – an effort by Zelda to gain Irene's knowledge of what she means. Then, Irene displays her recognition of Zelda's referent with *oh* and then request more specific clarification with wha'd'y'mean the kids?

- Sally : Were your parents pretty strict or…

   Irene : Not at all. And not t'my disadvantage. **I mean** not t'my advantage as I- I see it now because I got everything I wanted then.

In the example above, *I mean* preface only the replacement repair. Irene initiates her substitution of the word *advantage* with *I mean*

In analyzing the study, the writer will apply the theories proposed by Anna-Brita Stenstrom and Schiffrin. Meanwhile, the other theories will be used as supporting theories.

2.2 Review Of Related Studies

Besides related theories, this chapter also presents the difference and similarity between the work of previous study about topical strategies and topic shift markers. There are Setiawati's study about *"A study of Topical Strategies and Topic Shift Markers in teaching the Children in Friendship English Course in Surabaya"* and Shirley's study about *"Topic Shift Markers in Radio Program 'Surabaya Round Up".*

2.2.1 Setiawati' study (2003)

Setiawati has done a similar study about topic shift and topic shift marker. In analyzing the data, she used Scrriffrin theory about discourse markers and Stenstrom theory about topical strategies, which focused on introducing a topic, terminating a topic, changing the topic, shifting the topic, drifting the topic, and resuming the topic. In her study, she observed the topic shift and topic shift marker that is used by the teacher in teaching the children in Friendship English Course in Surabaya. In Setiawati's study, she analyses about the use of topical strategies and topic shift markers that use by the teacher in teaching the students especially children in learning English as the foreign language. This study inspires the writer to make similar research about the topic shift and topic shift markers that are used by female students of PCU in chatting at the boarding house.

The writer study has the same theory with Setiawati' study. However, the writer has different subject of investigation. In the Setiawati' study she uses a teacher as the subject of investigation in teaching the students especially children in learning English as the foreign language, while the writer uses female students of Petra Christian University in their chatting at the boarding house. However, this study is different with the previous study.

2.2.2. Shierly's study (2000)

In Shierly's study, she observed about topic shift markers in radio program "Surabaya Round Up". This program is on air from Monday until Thursday with two hours duration. As an important guideline for her analysis, she stated two

main questions, they are: which topic boundary markers occur in the discussion in this radio program? And how do the subjects perform topic shift makers in the discussion? The theories, which she used to help her in doing her research, are about topic (Brown and Yule), topic boundary markers (Brown and Yule) and discourse markers (Deborah Schiffrin).

Since she wanted to analyze topic shift as found in conversational topic spoken, she used the qualitative approach and the data of this study is the conversation that occurs in Surabaya Round Up especially discussions about current issues. In this case, she chooses two topics of discussion that are: "Unemployment" (this discussion is on social problem and the conversation takes 15 minutes long) and "Bali declaration" (on economic field and takes 15 minutes long of conversation). She recorded by using tape recorder and transcribed in a written form.

After that, she analyzed the data and she found out that the conversationalists make a lot of evaluations and summaries in their conversation, marked by "so". It means that after explaining about one topic they make the conclusion by repeating the same topic or at the first time they just give the statement and at the end they give the conclusion. Besides, she also found that the conversationalist gave a lot of conflicting answer marked by "but" and the use of marker of discourse connectives "and" not only function as coordinating idea unit but as continuing a speaker's action as well.

Basically, the study above helps the writer in doing her research. The writer finds out that the theories that are used by Shierly in her study are generally, the same with theories used by the writer. Moreover, the writer and Shierly have the same main question that is to find out the markers that mark the topic shift. Since the study of Shierly and the writer's have the same point and it can support the writer's research. Therefore, she decided to use this study as her related study.