

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

This chapter provides literature review on relevant theories used in analysing the problem of interruption found in *12 Angry Men*. This chapter also includes the description of the movie entitled *12 Angry Men*, as well as explanation of previous studies which have similar topic. This section also provides conceptual framework and analytical construct of the research.

A. Literature Review

This section presents several relevant theories to guide the researcher in answering and explaining the formulation of this research. This section also presents Conversation Analysis and several related fields in a brief description. This chapter particularly discusses interruption in detail.

1. Conversation Analysis

The study of Conversation Analysis (CA) was first developed by Harvey Sacks and his co-workers, Emanuel Schegloff and Gail Jefferson. Harvey Sack's ideas on conversation analysis are mostly recorded at his lectures in the University of California, Berkeley in the 1960s. One who persistently transcribed almost all of Sack's ideas is Gail Jefferson during lectures on Fall 1964 – Spring 1965 (Schegloff, 1992a: ix). Harvey Sack begins to develop Conversation Analysis during his interest on telephone conversation in Suicide Prevention Centre. He studies the structures of the interaction, the real-time sequential ordering of actions such as the

rules, patterns, and structures in the relations between actions (Schegloff, 1992a: xviii).

The study of Conversation analysis (CA) is focused on the interaction that people do in everyday life (Goodwin, 1990: 289). It concerns more about human spoken interaction typically in institutional environment. According to Wooffitt, CA examines how speakers' conduct displays a sensitivity to the normative expectations associated with sequential organisations, such as paired action sequences (Wooffitt, 2005:35). CA has the aspects of spoken communication such as Adjacency Pairs, Preference Organization, Backchannels, Repairs, Context and Turn Taking.

a. **Adjacency Pairs**

Generally, people could notice that there are pairs of utterance in every conversation. Schegloff and Sacks (1973:73) calls these kinds of paired utterances as adjacency pairs which is the basic unit to build a sequence in a conversation. Yule (1998: 127) gives much more detail explanation that adjacency pair is a sequence of conversation between two people where the first speaker gives an initiation to the second speaker to respond.

Liddicoat (2007: 106) says that “some types of talk are designed to initiate next actions, while other types of talk are designed to complete the action initiated”. One type of talk which initiates next actions is called First Pair Part (FPP), and another type of talk that follows from such initiation is called Second Pair Part (SPP). For example, a question is basically followed by an answer from the listener, a greeting is followed by another greeting, and a congratulation followed by thanks.

Several types and examples of adjacency pairs are shown below.

1) Greeting-greeting

Amy : Hello
Jean : Hi

(Liddicoat, 2007: 107)

Amy greets Jean by saying “Hello” and Jean answers with a greeting by saying “Hi”. The second utterance by Jean regards as a response to the first utterance by Amy. Jean gives an answer as what Amy expected to cooperate in conversation. An example of question-answer sequence is demonstrated in the following dialogue.

2) Question-answer

John : What time is it?
Betty : Three uh clock.

(Liddicoat, 2007: 107)

In dialogue above, John asks Betty about the current time. Betty gives an answer immediately by saying “three uh clock” as a response to John’s question “what time is it?”. It is to show that Betty gives an exact answer without silence. The following dialogue exhibits the last example of the last type of adjacency pair.

3) Telling-accept

John : I’ve just finish my last exam.
Betty : That’s great.

(Liddicoat, 2007: 107)

In the example above, the first turn of the pair initiates some actions which can be seen at the utterance “I’ve just finish my last exam” and make the next action relevant as seen on the utterance “That’s great”. Both utterances are relevant to each other.

b. Preference organization

Preference organization or preference structure is a pattern of the typical utterance of a response. It is usually used in a conversation sequence (Yule, 1998:133). The basic distinction in preferred organization is that the emergence of an action might be avoided or sometimes delayed, but in other time an action might be performed directly. Here is the example.

(1) invitation – accept

Amy : W' d yuh like tuh come over t'morrow night
Jane : yea:h. = that' d be nice

(1') invitation – decline

Harry : I don' have much tuh do on we:nesday.
W' d yuh like tuh get together then.
(0.3)
Joy : huh we::llhh I don' really know if yuh see I's a bit hectic fuh
We:nsdayyih know
Harry : oh wokay

In (1) and (1'), the first turn of the dialogue initiates some actions while the second turn responds and completes to the prior turn. Liddicoat (2007) describes the first turn as First Pair Part (FPP) and the second turn as Second Pair Part (SPP). In (1) and (1'), both the FPP of the sequence is the same, an invitation, but the respond to the FPP is quite different. In the first example, the SPP accept the invitation and the second SPP decline it. In a conversation, a participant may be able to decide an alternative to design their contribution towards conversation. When the action was accepted by the other partner, it is called preferred, and vice versa. In other words, actions which are performed immediately

are termed as *preferred* actions while those which would not be performed immediately are termed as *dispreferred* actions (Liddicoat, 2007:111).

c. **Backchannels**

Backchannel is a way to indicate that conversational partners are listening. Yule (1998:75) in his book calls *Pragmatics* comments on backchannels or backchannel signals as “vocal indications of attention, e.g. *uh-huh*, *hmm*, when someone else is talking. Yule (1998:75) expresses that there are some different ways of doing this, including head nods, smiles, and other facial expression and gestures and this is called Backchannel signals or simply Backchannels. In line with that statement, Yngve (1970: 568) describes backchannel as follows:

When two people are engaged in conversation, they generally take turns. . . . In fact, both the person who has the turn and his partner are simultaneously engaged in both speaking and listening. This is because of the existence of what I call the backchannel, over which the person who has the turn receives short messages such as yes and un-huh without relinquishing the turn.

McCarthy says that Backchannels are short verbal responses that the listener makes without aiming to take over speakership (McCarthy 1998: 176). Fries (1952), Yngve (1970) and Orestrom (1983) via Cutron believe that backchannels are a means for the nonprimary speaker to signal to the primary speaker that s/he understands and agrees, and thus have a supportive function (Cutron, 2010:31). Typically, English backchannels are utterances like *ah*, *oh*, *mhm*, *yes/yeah*, *right*, *really*, *I see*, *that's right*, *sure*, *quite*, *good heavens*, *of course*, *oh dear*, *oh God*, *that's nice*, and *that's not bad*. Therefore, according to Schiffrin (1987: 99) via

Lammi (2010:119), in backchannelling “speaker remains speaker, and hearer remains hearer. In this example below, backchannels are given in bold.

A: I’ll pick it up from his place

B:**Mm hm**

A: at around 7 o’clock

(Cutron, 2010:31)

In the example above, B’s backchannel of **Mm hm** signals that B is listening and A should continue speaking.

d. **Repairs**

In doing a conversation, there is possibility for someone to make a mistake in his/her utterances. In a couple of second forward, the speaker immediately repairs the wrong utterances or word he/shemade. In this condition, what the speaker does is called repairs. Liddicoat (2007:171) expresses that Repair refers to the processes where speakers deal with the problems arise in talking. However, repair does not only occur to change the wrong word or utterances, but it also emerges in a different way such as silence. People try to keep silent for a while to gain certain words for expressing their idea.

Sacks et al. (1974:701) propose that repair mechanisms exist for dealing with turn taking errors and violations. While Schegloff (1977:361), has proposed a model of the mechanism for repair in conversation which makes a central distinction between who initiates repair and who makes the repair. There are four types of repair as proposed by Liddicoat (2007:173) namely:

1) Self-initiated self-repair: the speaker indicates a problem in the utterance and he/she corrects it by him/herself.

B: -then more people will show up. Cuz theywon't feel obligated to sell. Tuh buy.

(Liddicoat, 2007: 175)

B immediately repairs his utterance after he realizes a mistake in his utterance without a help from others. It is clearly seen in the word "sell" when he actually wants to say 'buy', then he corrects it to 'buy'.

2) Self-initiated other-repair: the speaker indicates a problem in the utterance and the recipient resolves the problem.

B: He had dis uh mistuh W- whatever k- I can't

Think of his name, watts on, the one thet

Wrote [that piece,

A: [Dan Watts

(Liddicoat, 2007: 180)

Here, B is having difficulty on finding a name and this supports by the phrase 'I can't think of his name,'. By the word 'watts on', B is trying to show his effort to remember the name and giving a clue to the recipient by providing an identity. At this point, A resolves the problem.

3) Other-initiated self-repair: the recipient indicates a problem in the utterance and the speaker resolves the problem.

A: Hey the first time they stopped me from selling cigarettes was this morning. (1.0)

B: From selling cigarettes?

A: From buying cigarettes. They [said uh

(Liddicoat, 2001: 174)

Here, A is having a problem in his/her utterance. B is indicating the problem by repeating the word 'selling'. B's initiation about the problem makes A realized that he/she is having a problem in his/her utterance and repair it immediately.

4) Other-initiated other-repair: the recipient indicates a problem in his/her utterance and he/she corrects it by him/herself.

Joy: Kerry's no good. She's haven a fight with Sally.

Harry: Yih mean Sarah dontchuh. Those two are always fightin'

Joy: Yeh. 's a bitch isn't it,

(Liddicoat, 2007: 190)

Here, Harry is not only providing an initiation about the problem in the talk but he also provides a candidate correction by saying 'Yih mean Sarah dontchuh' and resolves the problem. This correction is accepted by Joe as seen in the word 'Yeh'.

e. **Context**

Context is crucial because it describes the situation where the speech exists. Context gives an additional information about the situation given in a conversation or a talk. Dell Hymes defines a context as a several component comprising a conversation (Johnstone, 2010:04). They are known as 'SPEAKING' which each letter is an abbreviation of different component of communication (Vakili, 2012:27). Those are 'S' for Setting and scene, 'P' for Participant, 'E' for Ends, 'A' for Act sequence, 'K' for Key, 'I' for Instrumentalities, 'N' for Norm, and 'G' for Genre.

Below is the example of context in conversation taken from the research conducted by Vakili(2012:31).

Monica : There's nothing to tell. It's just some guy I work with.
 Joey : Come on! You're going out with a guy.
 Joey : There's gotta be something wrong with him.
 Chandler : All right, Joey, be nice.
 Chandler : So does he have a hump, a hump and a hair piece?
 Phoebe : Wait. Does he eat chalk?
 Phoebe : It's just cause I don't want her to go through what I did with Carl.
 Monica : Hmm, Okay, everybody relax.
 Monica : Relax. This is not even a date.
 Monica : It is not. It's just two people going out to dinner and not having sex.
 Chandler : Sounds like a date to me.

Vakili describes the context of above conversation as below

Setting and Scene: the setting is Central Park Café in New York while the scene is gather in after work to have coffee, rest, and friendly talk.

Participants: Monica, Joey, Chandler, and Phoebe

Ends: Monica is curious to her friend's reaction about his date tonight.

Act sequence: at first, Monica talks normally about her date but her friends make it as a joke. Her friends think it is a big issue but Monica thinks conversely.

Key: the tone is joking.

Instrument: the channel is totally oral and the register is totally informal.

Norms of interaction: since this is a friendly talk, all participants say things directly even a sarcastic word. All participants show their cooperation by taking a turn.

Genre: friendly chat

f. Turn Taking

A conversation involves at least two people, a speaker and a hearer. Each of them has the right to speak at any time. Yule (1998:72) states that having control of this right at any time is called a *turn*. In such conversation, a hearer might have a

turn after the speaker finished his/her utterance. However, anyone can attempt to get control in any situation where control is not fixed. This is called **turn-taking**. The nature of turn taking in talk in interaction is at the heart of CA (Hutchby and Wooffitt, 2008). Meanwhile, Liddicoat says that the speakers' exchange is the most noticeable features in a conversation (Liddicoat, 2007:51).

Sack et al. (1974:704) suggest three possibilities of changing turn which seems to be a basic set of rules governing a turn.

1. The current speaker selects the next speaker by using names or vocatives, gaze, posture, and the targeting of moves such as directing questions to particular interactants.
2. The current speaker did not select then the next speaker may self-select.
3. The current speaker may continue taking his/her floor or remain silent when those two rules do not occur.

Sack et al. (1974:700) summarize that there are several facts about conversation. They are speaker-change recurs or at least occurs; overwhelmingly, one party talks at a time; occurrences of more than one speaker at a time are common, but brief. This situation of more than one speaker at a time occurs in daily conversation and it makes a problem for both speaker and listener.

2. Interruption

Interruption is an interesting phenomenon to be analyzed in a conversation. To understand interruption, it is not just about dominance but it is beyond that. It includes status of the speaker, the time of interruption, the place, etc. According to Beattie (1982:96), interruption is indicated as losing a speaker's floor before he/she

has intended to finish it which makes his/her utterance incomplete. It means that the current speaker lost their floor. In other word, the interrupter successfully takes the floor.

Another definition of interruption proposed by Zimmerman and West (1975: 115) who have categorized interruption as an instance of simultaneous speech which violates the rules of turn-taking. A description of this case is an interruptee talks but an interrupter begins to talk in the middle of interruptee's utterance. It may give inappropriate atmosphere for both of them. An example of interruption is presented by Beattie (1982:103) in the conversation between Denis Tuohy (DT) and Margaret Thactcher (MT) as follow:

DT	: ...and you give a list which included, most of the public sector workers who have been on strike in the last few months, you said you would, pursue those disruptive elements with	} <i>(pause)</i>
MT	:	} <i>unremitting hostility quite right</i>
		(Beattie, 1982: 103)

Note:

Denis Tuohy : an interruptee (a person who is interrupted by interrupter)

Margaret Thatcher : an interrupter (a person who interrupt)

(pause) : indicates a pause (when interruption occur)

There is a pause in the middle of DT's utterance, where DT act as interruptee, so the word 'pause' in bracket play as a signal of a pause. In this case DT does not success to hold their right and finish his utterance because after several second of silent, MT start to grasp the floor which means that DT is not finished to deliver their message.

a. Types of Interruption

In analysing the type of interruption, the researcher used the theories of type of interruption proposed by Ferguson (1977) (in Beattie, 1982:101-103) who divides four types of interruption as follow:

1) Simple Interruption

Simple interruption occurs once an interrupter takes the floor when the current speaker still incompletes his/her sentence. The interrupter succeeds to disrupt the interruptee's talk so the interruptee stops his/her speaking. Therefore, the interruptee listens to the interrupter until the interrupter finishes his/her talk, then the floor comes back to the interruptee. Here is the example:

S1 : I know what you thought I know you }
 S2 : *Ya still see her anymore?*
 (Zimmerman, 1975: 114)

The dialogue between speaker 1 and speaker 2 above indicates that speaker 1 become the interruptee and speaker 2 become the interrupter. Speaker 1 loses his/her floor because speaker 2 start to interrupt his/her utterance. Simple interruption is shown when the speaker 2 cut the speaker 1's utterance before the speaker 1 complete their utterance. Speaker 2 who hold the floor can say his utterance fullywhile speaker one stop his/her utterance and listen to speaker 2's utterance.

2) Overlap Interruption

In overlap interruption, the floor is shared between the participants because they speak at the same time. Nevertheless, he/she still can interrupt even though the original speaker does not stop until he/she completes his/her utterance. After the

first speaker finishes, the interrupter still grabs the floor, so there is no break during the simultaneous speech.

LG : ... I wonder whether people feel that this is because the Labour Party has run out of some steam. It hasn't so many } *new ideas.*
 JC : } *I think i-*,
 I think it's because they are, ah answers to what are, gross over claims by the Conservative Party, ...

(Beattie, 1982: 102)

In the example above LG (Liew Gardner) as the interruptee ignore JC (Jim Calaghan) who interrupt in the middle of his utterance. LG succeed to finish his utterance before he finish his utterance JC start to interrupt by saying “*I think i-*“. Overlap interruption is shown when JC as the interrupter still grabs the floor to finish his ideas. Thereis no pause between LG’s utterance and JC’s utterance and the floor is shared between interruptee and interrupter.

3) **Butting-in Interruption**

Butting-in interruption involves simultaneous speech. However, in this interruption there is no floor taking as the other interruption done. In this case the interrupter is unsuccessful in interrupting the speaker and he/she intends to stop their utterance because the interruptee keeps saying his/her word and ignoring the interrupter’s interruption.

S1 : . . . Although I don't think anybody would do that unless they're going against what she says } *and I*
 S2 : } *Ya, but*
 S1 : } *can't see anybody going against that.*

(Marche, 1993: 395)

From the dialogue, speaker 1 keeps talking and ignores speaker 2 who interrupts in the middle of his/her utterance. Speaker 1 still grabs the floor and does

not allow the speaker 2 to grab the floor. Butting-in interruption occurs in this conversation when speaker 2 remains to stop his/her word and prefers to listen speaker 1's utterance. In this interruption, the speaker 2 as the interrupter fails to deliver his/her utterance. There is no floor taking in butting-in interruption as shown in the example above.

4) **Silent Interruption**

In silent interruption, there is no simultaneous speech because the interruptee intends to stop his/her utterance for a while before he/she finish his/her utterance. The interrupter grasps the floor between the pause and the interruptee did not finished his/her utterance who actually wants to continue his/her speech. The example below shows the silent interruption.

S1 : But before you knew all this stuff, before you knew that she was } (pause)
 S2 : } **That was**
Tina.

(Marche, 1993: 395)

It can be notice from the dialogue above that there is no simultaneous speech between speaker 1 and speaker 2 because both speakers did not speak at the same time. Silent interruption is indicated by pause between both speakers. Speaker 1's utterance remains incomplete and there is a pause in his/her utterance. Speaker 2 grabs the floor during the silence and finish his/her utterance. Speaker 1 actually wants to finish his/her utterance after he/she take a pause but he/she cannot do it because speaker 2 grabs the floor finish their utterance.

b. **Purposes of Interruption**

Basically there are two purposes of interruption, i.e. disruptive and cooperative as suggested by Murata (in Li, Han Z: 2001:369). On the other hand,

Goldberg (1990:888) adds one purpose of interruption that is neutral interruption. Generally, the basic purpose of interruption is to take the floor before the speaker finishes his/her utterance, so the next speaker could deliver their message.

1) **Disruptive**

According to Chiung Yang (1996), disruptive or competitive interruption takes place when one speaker attempts to take the floor by making his/her own comment a higher priority over the main speaker's speech when the main speaker intends to continue. Murata (in Han Z. Li, 2001: 369) divides disruptive interruption into three categories; they are disagreement, floor taking, and topic change.

a) **Disagreement**

An interruption can be used as a way of expressing disagreement to the current speaker's opinion when the next speaker disagrees with the current speaker and he/she wants to deliver it immediately.

A : It's not worth saying in *the first place*.
 M : *But don't you think he'd feel better if she told him.*

(Beaumont et al, 2001: 431)

In the dialogue, M does not agree with A's opinion and M immediately interrupts A's utterance. M shows his/her disagreement in the middle of A's utterance by saying his opinion before A finishes his/her utterance. M's opinion differs from A's opinion about the current topic. M delivers his/her disagreement by saying the opposite opinion from A's ideas. Disagreement can be seen when M finished his/her utterance that begins with the word 'but'.

b) Floor taking

In this context the interrupter has a desire to improve the quality of conversation by doing interruption. So he takes the floor to get a turn and interrupt the current speaker for delivering a message without changing the topic.

Teddy : I read a newspaper this morning and the legalization of cannabis seems very interesting. But it has negative aspect } *from*
 Flint : } *if it is legalized in our*
country, negative points will appear more than the positive ones.
 (Beaumont et al, 2001: 431)

The dialogue above demonstrates that there is an interruption employed by Flint in the middle of Teddy's utterance. Flint has a desire to improve the quality of conversation by doing interruption before Teddy finish his utterance. Flint grabs the floor to get a turn to deliver his message without changing the topic being discussed. Flint utters his opinion that is in line with Teddy's utterance.

c) Topic change

This purpose of interruption is to change the topic of the discussion. The interrupter immediately changes the topic when the current speaker did not finish their utterance. The interrupter speaks aggressively to get the floor and guide the topic.

M : I would never wait until he was 20 years old then try to } *deal*
 A : } *The phone. The*
phone is ringing.
 (Beaumont et al, 2001: 432)

The dialogue above exhibits the event when speaker M and Aare speaking at the same time. A grabs the floor by interrupting M's utterance to change the topic

of the utterance and it is means that A did not want to continue talking about the current topic being discussed.

2) **Cooperative**

According to Murata (in Han Z. Li, 2001: 369), cooperative interruption is intended to help the speaker by coordinating on the process and/or content of the ongoing conversation. Zhao and Gantz (2003: 354) suggest that cooperative interruption is providing to achieve some purposes as follow.

a) **To show agreement**

It indicates that the interruption is used to show agreement as the response to the topic in the conversation. Here, the interrupter gives their approval and support by taking the floor.

M : I'd hope that my life would still be full enough } *that*
 A : } *Yeah.* You'd live by
 yourself or you'd get married again. (Beaumont et al, 2001: 431)

The emergence of interruption in this conversation shows that A interrupt M's utterance before he/she finishes his/her utterance in the conversation. A interrupts M's utterance so that he or she does not to monopolize the floor but he/she wants to show agreement as the response to the topic. A agrees with the speaker M's utterance by giving a choice to his/her.

b) **To show understanding**

The occurrence of interruption is to show understanding about the topic being discussed.

Lily : I think the movie last night is so awesome. The main actor, Johnny, Johnny
 } (pause)
 Sony : } **Johnny Depp.**
 Lily : Mm-hmm, yes, Johnny Depp acts the character impressively.

(Beaumont et al, 2001: 431)

Here, Lily has to stop in the middle of her utterance. She forgets the full name of the actor and she starts to think for a while. During the pause, Sony grabs the floor and interrupts Lily's utterance by saying the full name of the character. This dialogue shows that Sony understands about the topic being discussed it, and he interrupts to show his understanding. After Sony finishes his utterance, Lily admits Sony's answer and continues his utterance.

c) To show interest in topic

The emergence of interruption in this case shows the interest of the interrupter in a certain topic being discussed as the interrupter is very high-involved in it.

A : Can I ask you guys a question? Do you ever think that Alan is } **maybe**
 B : } **What?**
 (Beaumont et al, 2001: 431)

It is seen in the dialogue that when the conversation is taking place, B interrupts A's utterance before he/she finished it. B tries to grab the floor not to disrupt the conversation but he/she tries to improve the quality of conversation. It is shown by B's curiosity about the topic being discussed. B as the interrupter in this conversation is highly involved in it.

d) To show clarification

The emergence of this interruption has a purpose to clarify something because the interrupter may not be sure with the point of a topic that the speaker utters.

A : He should be home for dinner at least two or three times a week, and if he
 can't }
 M : } **Two or three?** (Beaumont et al, 2001: 431)

In the dialogue, A suggests that he (someone who should be home for dinner) should go home for at least two or three times a week. M cannot believe that A says two or three times a week, which is for M this frequency is too little. M starts to interrupt A's utterance before he/she finishes his/her utterance to make sure about the point of a topic being discussed. M grabs the floor to clarify A's utterance by asking about it immediately.

3) Neutral Interruption

This last purpose of interruption is neither negative interruption nor positive interruption. This purpose is not to show dominance or support the interruptee speech. Sometimes, the emergence of this interruption happens when the interrupter does not realize that the interruptee has not finished his or her utterance.

Phoebe : (sings) Raindrops on roses and rabbits and kittens, (Rachel and Monica
 turn to look at her.) bluebells and sleighbells and- something withmittens
 ... La lalala... something and noodles with string.
 These are a few... }
 Rachel : } **I'm all better now.** (Fei, 2010:32)

The dialogue above shows that the purpose of interruption is not to disrupt or cooperate with the speaker. This interruption is considered to be neutral because

the emergence of this interruption happens when Rachel as the interrupter does not support or dominate the conversation. She does not grasp the floor to take a turn. This interruption is to show that Rachel really feels better or she does not like Phoebe's singing. Here in the example, Phoebe tries to comfort Rachel who is depressed because of his unfinished wedding ceremony. She also encounters a sorrowful conversation with his father.

3. Previous Studies

Two researches share similar topic but this study differs in terms of the object of the research. These researches are in the form of article and a thesis.

a. An Analysis of Gender Differences in Interruption Based on the American TV Series *Friends* (Zhao Fei, 2010)

This article concerns on the functions and frequency of interruption presented by the characters in *Friends*, an American TV series. The researcher tried to reveal the interruption in conversations between same and mixed sex. The objective of the research was to investigate the difference of speech style between six protagonist characters in the series and the functions of interruption, i.e. competitive, cooperative, and neutral applied by the researcher.

The result of functional categories of interruption shows that competitive interruption occurs a little bit more than cooperative one. It is presented by six main characters in the series. This happens because of the conversational contexts and the relationship among the characters as well as their behaviour and speech style.

The other result shows that in the terms of gender, men initiate interruption more than woman because they are naturally different each other. Men tend to show

dominance to interrupt than woman and this condition triggers competitive interruption in the conversation.

b. A Conversation Analysis of Interruption in Modern Family Season I (CheraKurniaLarasati, 2010)

This research investigates interruption in daily conversation represented in TV series entitled Modern Family Season I. The objective of this research is to investigate the type and the function of interruption spoken by characters in the series. By using four types of interruption such as simple, overlap, butting-in, and silent interruption, the researcher tried to see the highest occurrence of interruption.

Simple interruption is the highest interruption found in the series because it has easiest pattern than the other one. However, butting-in is the latest interruption in the series because they are close friends. Then, three functions of interruption were found to show the function of interruption expressed by the characters. They are cooperative interruption which consists of agreement, assistance, and clarification; intrusive interruption which is consist of disagreement, floor taking, topic change, and tangentalization; and neutral interruption.

Both research concerns on interruption but they are different in terms of the object and context and also the characters who express interruption which affect to the interruption itself. By using different context, object, and characters in the movie entitled *12 Angry Men*, it is exciting to analyze the same topic to reveal the different result by investigating the interruption presented by male characters in the movie. The result of this research would be different because *12 Angry Men* as the

object of the research uses only one place setting and it is an institutional talk between twelve male characters.

4. *12 Angry Men*

12 Angry Men is a 1957 American drama film adapted from a teleplay of the same name by Reginald Rose. This movie was written and co-produced by Reginald Rose himself and directed by Sidney Lumet. At the beginning, *12 Angry Men* is produced for television in September 1954. After the success of the television production, *12 Angry Men* is adapted in film production. This movie talks about twelve jurors in conducting deliberation for a young defendant on the basis of reasonable doubt.

The characters in the movie are Rudy Bond as the Judge, James Kelly as the Guard, Billy Nelson as the court clerk, John Savoca as the accused, and the twelve jurors: Martin Balsam, John Fidler, Lee J. Jacob, E. G. Marshall, Jack Klugman, Edward Binns, Jack Warden, Henry Fonda, Joseph Sweeney, Ed Begley, George Voskovec, and Robert Webber.

This movie which is notable for its almost exclusive use of one set screen play with the exception of the film's opening talks about a discussion to judge a defendant whether he is guilty or not depending on reasonable doubt. The story begins in New York court room, where an eighteen years old boy from a slum is accused for stabbing his father to death. After final closing argument, the judge instructs the jury to decide whether the boy is guilty of murdering his father or not under reasonable doubt. Then the jury comes to the private room where they deliberately pick a decision.

The jury already decided that the boy is guilty except the jury number 8 (Henry Fonda) who is the only one to vote “not guilty” in preliminary tally. This first case triggers a difficult verdict for the case. Despite of using one set screen play, this movie could gain several awards. The several awards are BAFTA Film Awards 1958 for best foreign actor, Henry Fonda, Berlin International Festival: Golden Berlin Bear and OCIC Awards, Sidney Lumet, and etc. *12 Angry Men* won 16 Awards and 11 Nominations in total.

B. Conceptual Framework

This research is conducted by employing Conversation Analysis approach. It is used in this research to reveal the types of interruption as well as the purposes of interruption. To analyse the objective of this research, the researcher used the classification of types of interruption by Ferguson (1977) (in Beattie, 1982:101-103). He proposed four types of interruption, i.e. *Simple interruption, Overlap interruption, Butting-in interruption, Silent Interruption*. All of these interruptions occur in a simultaneous speech where the two speaker in the conversation are speaking at the same time. Interruption is an action of taking others floor. Interruption is also regarded as a violation of turn taking system.

To analyse the second objective of the research, the researcher used the classification of purposes of interruption presented by Murata (in Li, H. Z: 2001:369) who categorizes the purposes of interruption into disruptive and cooperative. Each purpose also consists of several types. Disruptive purpose consists of *Disagreement, Floor Taking, Topic change*, while cooperative purpose consists of four purposes, i.e. *to show agreement, to show understanding, to show*

interest in topic, and to show clarification. The researcher also takes one other purpose of interruption proposed by Goldberg (1990:888) who adds one purpose of interruption that is neutral interruption. It means that the interrupter does not support or show dominance toward the interruptee.

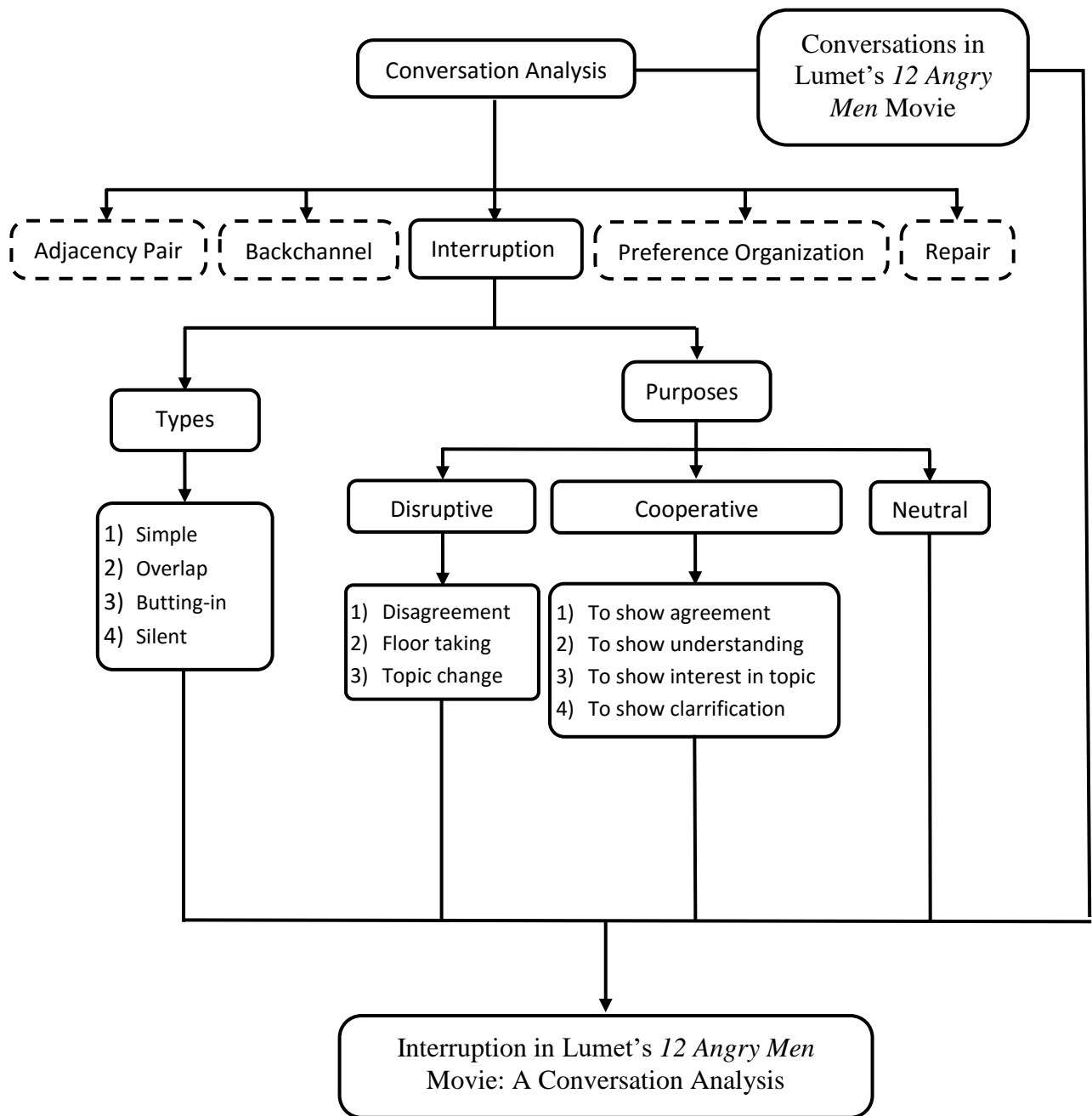


Figure 1: Analytical Construct