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Mahmud*

Doing Discourse Analysis
AN INTRODUCTION

**Doing Discourse Analysis:
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DOING DISCOURSE ANALYSIS: AN INTRODUCTION

By

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This book is dedicated to:

Adhwa Dhaifullah Anwar

*My cute son born in Canberra, Australia by the end of
my thesis submission. He is now 8 years old*

You are the light of my lights

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

Bismillahirrahmanirrahim

In the name of Allah, Most Gracious, Most Merciful

First of all, I would like to extend my high gratitude to Almighty God who has given me His endless blessing, without which I would not have been able to complete this most remarkable work in my life, my most precious contribution to knowledge.

It is my privilege to announce that this book is a compilation of my teaching materials during the time I teach the subject. The need to provide valuable resources for teaching Discourse Analysis encourages me to compile this book.

Thanks to my university, State University of Makassar. I am glad to say that this book is my prominent contribution to my academic life. I am also thankful to the Graduate Program of the State University of Makassar. The Director, Prof. Dr. Jasruddin, M.Si. and Head of English Study Program, Prof. Dr. H. Haryanto, M.Pd., who had supported me in the writing of this book and had given a chance to use the book as reading material in one of the subjects in English Study Program.

I would like to express my appreciation to my students who had taken Discourse Analysis as their focus of their research: Andi Patmasari, Reski Uspayanti, Yusnaeni, Agussatriana, Muthmainnah Mursidin, Nurul Hasanah, Eka Fatmawati, Adi Chandra, Sujariati, Markus Deli Girik, Nilma Tau'labi, Ramli, Sulfiah Ulfa, Suryani Jihad, Ramlan Purnawan, Nunung Anugrawati, and many others, whom I cannot mention one by one. Hopefully, doing Discourse Analysis in your research gives you all new inspiration in developing your ideas about research. I am sure that although doing Discourse Analysis is a rather conflicting work, it will soon become a fantastic job when you are accustomed to it. You will enjoy it.

Thanks also to all of the students of Graduate Program whom I teach Discourse Analysis. I will say that you are all my inspirations to always conduct a research. Working with you all always encourages me to do research more and more. In my inauguration speech for my Professorship, 18 March 2015, I stated:

Semoga gelar yang saya terima ini bukan hanya menjadikan nama saya lebih panjang, tetapi lebih sebagai motivasi untuk terus berkarya

“Hopefully the title of professor awarded for me is not merely to make my name longer, but more as a motivation to continue working”

This book is intended to accommodate my idea to be inspiring Professor with beneficial work. Hopefully this book invites more ideas for me to write in the future.

I ask for forgiveness for not mentioning all the names in this book. I do hope this book will become good resource for readings in Discourse Analysis and in linguistic study as a whole.

Makassar, 26 November 2016

Murni Mahmud

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AUTHOR'S PREFACE

The writing of this book is inspired by the need to provide appropriate books in the course of Discourse Analysis. This course is an important part of linguistic study. This course becomes the main subject studied by university students in all levels, in undergraduate degree, in master degree, and in the doctorate degree. In addition, Discourse Analysis, which I then wrote as DA in this book is now a trending method in doing research, especially in qualitative research. Researchers have been using this method in data analysis, besides the use of quasi-experimental design.

My main intention in writing this book is to explore the theoretical background of DA as a branch of study in linguistics. I attempt as well to examine the methods used in doing DA and later to give exercises for students in doing DA. This book can become a good reference for students in doing DA, as additional sources for doing DA.

During the time I teach this course, I find some interesting cases. Students find many copied books. They have plenty of books on DA copied from original books. They can also read many resources about DA from the internet through free search engines such as Google or Wikipedia. Indeed, they can download a free e-book from the internet about DA. The problem that I think it is urgent is that those students find difficulties to understand the theories of DA. Not only that, several students told me that they had learned DA in their level before such as in undergraduate program; however, they still do not understand what DA is exactly. More problems exist when they were asked about what to do in DA. Often when they had read so many books in DA, problems occurred when the questions came to "how to do DA?". What they need besides learning theories is actually practicing to apply DA in their work, their paper, and also in their research later.

In undergraduate degree, for example, when I explained a little bit about DA in the class of Introduction to Linguistics as a part of linguistic study, I got the impression that the students had not got ideas about it. Especially when I explained that DA requires higher level of thinking as it is about analysis not only on the sentences, clauses, or phrases, but within the sentences, clauses, or phrases, students said that the study must be very difficult.

In master degree program when I am usually given the responsibility to teach the course, students gave a lot comments. One of them is about the difficulties they encountered when doing DA, especially when they were given the tasks to analyze spoken discourses. Problems cover when they had to produce data by recording, transcribing the collected data, and later interpreting the data. One of the students said, "let's pray so we can pass this subject". Another comment, "I always got dizzy after joining the class DA". Some students said that they did not actually know or understand about DA. I asked them again, "what did you do during the course?". They said "it was just discussion about theories". My impression is that what they want actually is not only theories and concepts on DA, but also on practices of doing DA.

Surprisingly, students in the post-graduate program (S3) admitted that DA is a new thing for them. They said, "It is new for me". When I asked whether they

had learned it before, they said, “We never studied it before”. Another comment was “I have studied it but I did not know what DA was”. When I asked their reasons, they said that they only learned about theories, no methods or practices. One of them stated that the lecture of DA is only by dictating the theories, and no or less practices at all.

Because of these facts, they needed extra work to do it. One of the students told me that in their undergraduate program and master degree, they did not obtain enough information and skills in doing DA. When I assigned them to do tasks in DA, they said that it would be new experiences for them. However, it was also a challenging job.

Therefore, I got impressions that students thought that DA was a rather difficult subject. I guess that is because it is a new thing to study or because it requires a high level of analysis.

When I did my Ph.D at Anthropology Department at the Australian National University, I never realized that what I did was something relating to DA. My interest was in gender studies in relation to language use. Because I was in anthropological department, I needed to relate it to the anthropological cases. My background as a Bugis encouraged me to do more research on Bugis society although many people might think studies on it were not new anymore. However, I kept asking myself if I really knew everything about my Bugis life. In fact, at the end of my study, I just realized that there were still many things I did not know about my culture as Bugis.

All my supervisors were also interested in the study of Bugis. Due to my linguistic background, I needed to study something relating to linguistic aspects of Bugis people. I decided then to choose politeness. Although various studies had been conducted in this area, I was certain that I would do a lot of contributions to linguistic study as well as in historical and anthropological study through the study of politeness.

One year of my fieldwork made me busy with recording data. I had to go back to the university with plenty of data, spoken and written, on how Bugis people practice their politeness. I was busy in transcribing the data, especially the spoken data. Then when the panel supervisors asked for further activities, there were still many things to do regarding the data. However, I was happy when I finalized my work about linguistic politeness of Bugis people. Not only that, I acquired the knowledge and the skills of doing DA in linguistic politeness of Bugis people.

My impression is that DA is not actually difficult. It just needs hard working, not because it is difficult but because it has many details to be given a great attention. However, when ones start to do it, it will be a fantastic job. Now most of my research is done under the scope of DA.

I hope that this book will be beneficial for students programming the course of DA, either to master degree or doctorate degree. In writing this book, I accumulated some theories from available books, copied and read from the internet. I also provided examples of doing DA, either spoken or written. Some of them were taken from the students’ thesis that had been written based on DA and from journal articles that had been published. Some examples were also taken

from my study on Politeness in Bugis, a part of my Ph.D thesis. Because my intention is not only for doing DA in English language only, I also provide some examples from other languages, such as Bugis language and Indonesian language.

The book was written in six chapters. In the first chapter, I provide theories and concepts that readers need to have as a starting point in understanding DA. The second chapter is about some important concepts and approaches for DA. The third chapter is about the disciplines which become the scope of study in DA. Reading this chapter will give underlying ideas about what fields to be discussed in order to use and do DA. The fourth part is about the areas and issues in doing DA containing the setting or areas and the issues that may be taken as a focus in doing DA. The fifth part of the book is about the methods of doing DA, providing the steps in doing DA and aspects related to the process of collecting and analyzing the discourse data. The sixth chapter is examples of work in doing DA, which are very important as a model in doing DA. Exercises and examples of articles written in DA are also provided.

Since this is the first edition, I guess that the book is still far from being perfect. I still do the editing process and wish to provide better product in the next edition.

The Author,
Murni Mahmud, 26 November 2016

FOREWORD

**Head of English Study Program, Graduate Program, State University of
Makassar**

It is my privilege to introduce this book entitled “*Doing Discourse Analysis: An Introduction*”, written by Murni Mahmud, Professor in English Education Department, Faculty of Languages and Literature, State University of Makassar. Murni Mahmud is majoring in Anthropology Linguistics. She teaches some subjects in the area of Linguistics such as Sociolinguistics, Anthropology Linguistics, Morphology, Syntax, and Discourse Analysis (DA).

This book is expected to provide resources in the study of DA. This subject has become an important subject and has been chosen as a compulsory subject in the English Study Program, the Graduate Program, State University of Makassar. Plenty of books on DA are available, copied and obtained from e-books. This book at least provides good examples and good procedures in doing DA. What students need is also practices or strategies of applying DA.

Hopefully this book gives benefit in the study of DA. I expect that students in the Graduate Program, especially in English Study Program, can choose DA as one method in doing their research. With the increasing interest of qualitative research, hopefully this book may give introductory steps in doing DA.

Prof. Dr. H. Haryanto, M.Pd.

Chapter 1

Introducing Discourse Analysis

This chapter provides a detail description about the study of Discourse Analysis (DA) as one important branch in the study of linguistics. I should explain firstly the definition of a *discourse* itself as the basic idea in this chapter. Then, I go on explaining the term Discourse Analysis (DA), which I then compare to other related terms such as content analysis, Conversation Analysis (CA), and Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA). I consider these terms to be explained in this first part as the underlying concepts of doing DA. A brief historical overview is also provided in this chapter. The last is about the position of DA in the study of linguistics, which is important to know for readers, especially for students in order to know the theoretical framework underlying the study of DA in terms of linguistic study.

1.1 What is Discourse?

What is actually meant by the term *discourse*? To some scholars, the term *discourse* and *Discourse Analysis (DA)* are two different terms but related to each other. Wisniewski (2006) states that the original term of *discourse* comes from a Latin word *discursus* which means “conversation” or “speech” (p. 3).

Dijk (1997, p. 2) refers a discourse as (1) “language use”, (2) “communication of beliefs (cognition)”, and (3) “interaction in social situation”. Kramsch (1998) also defines a *discourse* as “a socially accepted association”, which are used as strategies to think, feel, believe, value, and act (p. 106). Additionally, Gee defines a discourse as “coordinations or a dance of many different aspects” such as people, places, times, actions, interactions, verbal and non-verbal expression, symbols, things, tools, and technologies (2005, p. 23). This implies that the areas for discourse study will be on the use of conversations and speech in communication and interaction.

There are several schemes of defining a discourse. Jawoski and Coupland (1991) categorize a *discourse* as “anything beyond the sentence”, “language in use”, and “a broader range of social practice that includes non-linguistic and non-specific instances of language” (cited in Schrifin, Tannen, & Hamilton, 2001, p. 1). Schrifin (1994) also comments out that a *discourse* refers to “language above sentences”, which indicates that a discourse is “whatever found in the sentence”. In addition, a

discourse is “language in use” and an “utterance”. From these definitions, it can be found that discussing a talk will cover about the sentence as well as how to utilize it in a language. This also means that context of the language use is primarily important.

The above definitions of *discourse* come from the underlying assumptions. One of the important ideas is that *discourse* is an action, which can be in the form of *talk* and *text* (Wood & Kroger, 2000). Therefore, discourse may take two forms of communication, both in spoken and in written.

It can be inferred that the concept of *talk* is important in studying a *discourse*. But what is *talk* indeed? This should be based on the relationship between language and actions. Austin (1962) formulates the meanings of *talk* as an action in his theory of speech acts. Austin refers *talk* and *language use* more generally as an “action” (cited in Wood and Kroger, 2000, pp. 4-5). Austin (1962, p. 109) categorizes this function of language as an action in the forms of “speech acts”, which implies that when someone is saying something, he or she is also doing something. In relation to this idea, Stubbs (1983, p. 5) mentions some functions of language as actions such as giving promise, assertion, description, impression, intimidation, persuasion, comforts, gossips, arguments, recital, complaints, swears, protests, bets, and the so forth.

Wood and Kroger (2000) state that the term *discourse* is sometimes used interchangeably with *text*. The term *discourse* covers all spoken and written forms of communication as a kind of social practice. For example, *discourse* is used for spoken forms whereas *text* is used for written forms (p. 1, 19).

Questions may come into existence in relation to non-verbal communication such as body languages, gestures, smiles, eye contacts, and other facial expressions. Are they also used in terms of *discourse*? Perhaps, we need to examine the functions of these non-verbal ways of communication. I will argue that these are a kind of behaviour, in which through it, people can communicate. Therefore, these non-verbal communications is also an action, which is of course, a part of language as a means of communications. Since categorized as action, the field of non-verbal communication can also become the area of analysis in a discourse.

In conclusion, when discussing about *discourse*, studies will be directed not only toward the forms of language but also to the use of language as actions, which can be manifested through *talk* and *text*, spoken and written.

1.2 Discourse Analysis (DA)

In the field of linguistics, we commonly recognized that the levels of analysis may vary from the less to the most complex one such as phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, pragmatics, and discourse respectively. It shows that studying DA needs highest level of thinking. This is because DA not only studies sentences but also within the sentences. In other word, it studies wider range of linguistic aspects and therefore, it requires higher level of thinking and analysis.

Many scholars have formulated the meaning of DA as a kind of discipline in linguistic study. McCarthy (1991) emphasizes that DA is an integrated study of language and context (p. 6). Gee (2011) also defines discourse analysis as “the study of language-in-use; the study of language at use in the world, not just to say things, but to do things” (p. 9). In addition, Jones (2011) refers discourse analysis as a process of “entextualization, in which activities include transforming actions into texts and texts into action” (p. 10). Hence, based on these definitions, language in context is the main focus of DA.

The main focus of DA is not only on the form or the structure of a language. Rather, it aims at studying more than just a form, that is language in use or language in action in the form of text and talk. When the main focus of study is on the structure of a language, that is mainly known as *text analysis* whereas the latter is known as *DA*. Crystal (2003) differentiates *DA* and *text analysis*. The focus of *DA* is on “the structure of naturally occurring spoken language”. This can be found in conversations, interviews, commentaries, and speeches. *Text analysis* focuses on the structure of written language, which can be found in essays, notices, road signs, and chapters (p. 116).

Cook (1990) confirms that *DA* examines the stretches of language in many contexts such as textual, social, and psychological context. Cook further notes that a study in *DA* is “a rapidly expanding field” which integrate any problems and process in using and learning a language (1990, pp. ix-xi). This indicates that language teaching has concentrated on pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary. These skills are important as the basis of foreign language knowledge. However, *DA* moves forward to draw attention to those skills by putting these skills into action and therefore can achieve successful communication.

Stubbs states that *DA* is used to refer mainly to the linguistic analysis of “naturally occurring connected speech or written discourse”. Roughly speaking, it

aims at studying about the ways language is organized above the sentence and clause and therefore aims at studying larger units of language use such as conversational exchanges or written texts. In addition, DA is concerned with the way of using a language in social contexts as well as in interactions of speakers (1983, p. 1).

Wood and Kroger (2000, p. 3) comments that DA is “a perspective on social life that contains both methodological and conceptual elements”. Furthermore, Wood and Kroger emphasize as follows:

DA is thus not simply an alternative to conventional methodologies; it is an alternative to the perspectives in which those methodologies are embedded. DA entails more than a shift in methodology from a general, abstracted, quantitative to a particularized, detailed, qualitative approach. It involves a number of assumptions that are important in their own right and also a foundation for doing discourse analytic research (2000, p. 3).

In addition, McCarthy states that DA is

a wide-ranging and heterogeneous discipline which finds its unity in the description of language above the sentence and an interest in the contexts and cultural influences which affect language in use (1991, p. 7).

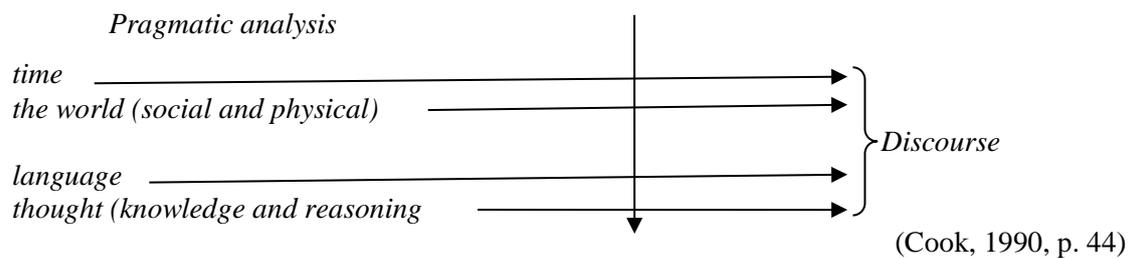
DA is concerned with “the broad speech units comprising multiple sentences” (Fromkin, Rodman, & Hymes, 2007, pp. 199-200). In line with that, Brown and Yule (1983, p. viii) state that DA is used with

a wide range of meanings which cover a wide range of activities at the intersection of disciplines as diverse as sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, philosophical linguistics, and computational linguistics. All of them have different and specific aspects of discourse.

Therefore, it can be stated that when doing DA, higher level of thinking and analysis are needed in order to cover many aspects. Discourse analysts need comparisons between theories, methods, and conceptual elements in one unit of analysis. It is not only studying one linguistic unit but broader linguistic units. DA is multidisciplinary approach which covers various areas in linguistic study such as sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, etc. Its main concern is to analyze the use of language in a broader context in society. It is not only studying sentences but in and out of the sentences.

DA will accumulate the time, the world, language, and thought into pragmatic analysis, which will be then processed in the account of discourse. Cook (1990, p. 44) states that, “pragmatics provides a means of relating stretches of language to be physical, social, and psychological world” whereas discourse functions to “cover the

interactions of these elements”. The following figure can depict the position of discourse in linguistic analysis:



From the book entitled *Discourse as Structure and Process* written by Dijk (1997), some principles of DA were discussed which may differentiate it from other types of analysis. Some of them are as follows:

1. Naturally occurring text and talk

This means that in doing DA, discourse data will be primarily taken from “the real data”. This can be obtained from tape or video recording or in the form of actual texts used in mass media or education.

2. Context

The work of DA gives a lot of emphasis on the roles of context. In this case, talk and text are the signals of contextual relevance and therefore context structures need to be observed and analyzed in detail. Some aspects of discourse such as settings, participants, communicative and social roles, relevant social knowledge, norms and values, institutional or organizational structures and so on need to be taken into account as unit of analysis, in order to obtain deep analysis in discourse.

3. Discourse as talk

In DA, talk has pivotal roles. It is regarded as the basic form of discourse. DA is focused on talk, taken from ongoing verbal interaction in informal conversation as well as more formal and institutional dialogue.

4. Discourse as social practice of members

The forms of discourse, either written or spoken discourse, are forms of social practice in socio-cultural context. Discourse is treated not merely as practice of individual persons but also as practices of members of various groups, institutions, or cultures.

5. Members’ categories

Discourse tries to respect the ways social members interpret, orient to, and categorize the social work.

6. Sequentiality

Discourse is linear. This indicates that description and interpretation should be regarded as one unit of analysis.

7. Constructivity

Discourses will be constructive if each unit is used and analyzed as a part of broader unit. In addition, discourses also need to create structure in hierarchical form.

8. Levels and Dimensions

There are various levels or layers and various dimensions in the work of discourse which need to be observed and interpreted at the same time as one single unit of analysis. One level should be related to other levels.

9. Meaning and function

In analyzing discourse, meaning and function are two important elements that should be closely connected.

10. Rules

There are also some rules to be observed as a unit of analysis. It is indeed “rule governed”.

11. Strategies

Language users also know and apply mental and interactional strategies in the effective understanding and accomplishment of discourse and the realization of communicative goals

12. Social cognition

In analyzing discourse, mental process and representations in the production and understanding text and talk are also brought together as parts of analysis.

Dijk (1997, pp. 28-30)

In sum, the emphasis in doing DA is related to the depth of analysis in discourse study. It sometimes appears that analysis in the text does not really cover whole ideas of discourse. Possibly the analysis only looks into the contents itself. I argue that we need, of course, content analysis in DA. However, content analysis is only a small part. We need broader analysis more than content itself.

1.3 Content Analysis

We also need to differentiate between DA and content analysis. The difference, of course, will lie on the depth of analysis. I will say again that DA requires broader analysis whereas content analysis is a part of the activities in DA. DA will need content analysis as a part of DA.

One of the differences between DA and content analysis is the different method to apply. Wood and Kroger (2000, p. 32) mention that the content analysis usually applies quantitative research whereas in DA, qualitative method is used. The fact that although both DA and content analysis study qualitative data, the emphasis on doing content analysis is on quantitative ways. Conversely, for DA, qualitative data will be analyzed using qualitative way as well. Wood and Kroger furthermore explain that content analysis usually applies coding strategies whereas for DA, activities will cover more than coding activities and the assessment between coding strategies (2000, p. 32).

1.4 Conversation Analysis (CA)

Besides DA, there is also a term Conversation Analysis (CA). To some extent, DA and CA are treated in the same ways, in which both of them study about language and action. The only differences lie only in the focus of analysis (e.g. CA is only studying talk whereas DA is studying more than talks). In other words, these two terms can be used interchangeably with different emphasis.

In addition, these two disciplines have integrated relationship, although different in some aspects. CA is a smaller part of DA. DA entails a broader aspect of analysis in language use whereas CA is a part of DA, in which the main focus is on the analysis of conversation (talk in interaction). This analysis may also be a concern on DA. This is supported by Wood and Kroger (2000, p. 21), who state that CA is “the most microanalytic variety of DA”.

CA emerged for the first time in California in 1960s in the work of Harvey Sacks and Emanuel Schegfold, to cover a study of “talk-in-interaction” in the field of sociology (Have, 2000, pp. 1-10). Have states that CA is a study on “people talking together, oral communication, or language use” (2000, p. 5). Hutchby and Wooffitt refer CA as “the study of talk” (1998, p. 13) whereas Liddicoat (2007, p. 6) confirms that CA studies “the organization and orderliness of social interaction”.

Overall, CA and DA have similarities. CA and DA study about language use, but have different points of views. Wooffitt (2005, pp. 5-24) furthermore differentiate as follows:

Table 1: Differences of CA and DA

<i>Conversation analysis</i>	<i>Discourse Analysis</i>
<i>Developed from the work of Harvey Sacks</i>	<i>Emerged in the sociology of scientific knowledge</i>
<i>Examines language as social action</i>	<i>Established a departure from realist accounts of scientist' actions to a study of scientists' accounting practices</i>
<i>Talk-in-interaction is taken to be systematically organized and ordered</i>	<i>Proposes that language is used variably. Accounts are constructed from a range of discipline possibilities, and are intimately tied to the context in which they are produced and the functions they perform</i>
<i>The primary data for research are audio and if necessary, video recordings of naturally occurring interaction. Transcripts assists the analysis of audio/video materials</i>	
<i>The transcription system provides a detailed characterization of 'messiness' of everyday interaction, focusing on speech production and turn-taking organization</i>	

Wooffitt (2005, pp. 5-24)

Those differences had been caught by some scholars in the field of linguistics. In facts these two kinds on analysis are different not only in its main area of analysis but also in the way the analysts in the two disciplines approach the problems in language use.

Levinson (1987) differentiate the different approach applied by the two disciplines, in which DA applies deductive approach whereas CA applies inductive approach. For CA, search is based on records of “naturally occurring conversations”, whereas for DA, search is based on “immediate categorization of usually restricted data” (Levinson, 1987, pp. 286-287).

It should be noted that CA lies much on the use of “naturally occurring data”. To analyze the data, CA proceeds by (1) examination of collections of cases such as examining a sequence of turns which seems to display some interesting properties, (2) developing a more formal and detailed account of the organization of the target exchange, examining the sequential context of the phenomenon and (3) returning to

data to determine if other instances of the phenomenon can be described in terms of this account (Wooffitt, 2005, pp. 40-41).

1.5 Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA)

Another term corresponding to DA is Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA). Dijk (2001, p. 352) formulates a definition of CDA as follows:

“a type of discourse analytical research that primarily studies the way social power abuse, dominance, and inequality are enacted, reproduced, and resisted by text and talk in the social and political context”.

Dijk (2001) mentions some requirements for CDA. One of them is the focus more on social and political issues. To provide critical analysis, CDA not merely describes “discourse structures”, but also explains them in terms of “properties of social interaction and especially social structure”. More specifically, CDA focuses on “the ways discourse structures enact, confirm, legitimate, reproduce, or challenge relations of power and dominance in society” (Dijk , 2001, p. 353).

Fairclough and Wodak (1997) mention some characteristics of CDA. Some of them are namely: (1) “CDA addresses social problems”, (2) “power relations are discursive”, (3) “discourse constitutes society and culture”, (4) “discourse does ideological work”, (5) “discourse is historical”, (6) “there is a link between text and society”, (7) “the analysis is interpretative and explanatory”, and (8) “discourse is a form of social action” (pp. 271-280).

Overall, CDA explores “the role of discourse in the production and reproduction of power relations within social structures” (Wooffitt, 2005, p. 138). In CDA, the focus is on the relation between discourse and the social structure. In the work of CDA, ‘text’ has a more complex meaning which can refer to a speech or spoken discourse, written documents, visual images, or some combinations of these three (Ibid).

CDA attempts to describe, interpret, and explain the relationship between the forms and function of language. It is not only studies about forms of language such as grammar, morphology, syntax, or pragmatics, but also it includes how people use language in different situations to achieve the outcome. The main focus is to explain why and how certain patterns are privileged over others (Rogers, 2004, p. 4). Rogers states that CDA studies concern “not only what is said, but what is left out, not only what is present in the text, but also what is absent” (2004, p. 7).

1.6 Historical Overview

It is important to see how the emergence of DA as a discipline in linguistics. DA grew from different disciplines in the 1960s and early 1970s, including linguistics, semiotics, psychology, anthropology, and sociology (McCarthy, 1991, p. 5).

Dijk (1985, p. 1) indeed states that DA is both an old and new discipline. Its origin can be traced back to the study of language, public speech, and literature more than 2000 years ago. It was started when Sellig Harris published a paper with the title *DA*, in which he was interested in the distribution of linguistic elements in extended texts. In that article, Harris initiated a search for language rules to explain the connection between sentences within a text by using an extended grammar (Harris, 1952, 1964, cited in Cook, 1990, p. 13).

Dell Hymes is also important in this historical background when he provided sociological perspectives with the study of speech in social settings. Austin (1962), Searle (1969), and Grice (1975) were also influential in the study of language as social action. These are reflected in the theories of speech acts and conversational maxim (McCarthy, 1991, p. 5).

In British, the work of DA is mainly influenced by Halliday which emphasizes the “social functions of language and the thematic and informational structure of speech and writing”. In America, DA has been dominated by work within ethno-methodological tradition. This categorizes on the examination of the types of speech acts such as storytelling, greeting rituals, and verbal duels in different cultural and social settings. This can be seen by the work of Hymes and Gumperz (1972) (McCarthy, 1991, p. 6).

1.7 Why Discourse Analysis

The important question in this beginning is to ask the reasons in studying DA. Where is the position of DA in the study of linguistics? For that purpose, it should be first underlined about the definition of linguistics itself and find the position of DA in that framework.

Linguistics is a scientific study of language in communication. Based on Chambers Concise Dictionary (2004, p. 666), a language is defined as as follows:

(1) any formalized system of communication, especially one that uses sounds or written symbols which the majority of a particular community will readily understand,

- (2) *the speech and writing of a particular nation or social group,*
- (3) *the faculty of speech, and*
- (4) *a specified style of speech or verbal expression. Therefore, in studying linguistics, the main focus is to study the language in communication.*

In studying the language, there are some parts of linguistics that need certain understanding. Starting from the study of sound system, language learners are directed to learn Phonetics and Phonology. Later, learners need to go one level up to the word level, that is studying the word formations, known as Morphology. After word formation, sentence construction is learned in the subject of Syntax. Later, language learners will study about Semantics or Pragmatics with their own concerns. When learners study on the text, they then come to the high level of analysis of the language, called DA.

Therefore, in doing DA, level of understanding and analysis is not only on sound, or word, or sentences only, but also what is beyond the sound, word, or sentences. High level of interpretation, elaboration, analysis is needed in doing DA, which can be obtained from the previous level of understanding in linguistics.

For students to learn DA, it is highly recommended that they had been through the previous studies of linguistic aspects. The important reason is that understanding on lower linguistic levels is needed to acquire deeper understanding of discourse and also to be able to analyze the discourse.

1.8 Summary

This chapter has explained the important ideas of *discourse* as the basic concept in understanding DA. The main point is that a study on *discourse* is not only looking at the sentence but also beneath the sentence, even above the sentence. Some terms are explained to acquire comparison of the depth in analysis of the DA. Conversation Analysis (CA) and Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) are other terms that are usually used in approaching the discourse which of course requires specific attention or point of view in the discourse.

1.9 Questions for Discussion

1. What is the difference between *discourse* and *text*?
2. What is DA? How is it different from content analysis?
3. What is CA? And how is it different from DA?

4. Describe the historical background for the emergence of DA!
5. What is the emphasis of CDA (Critical Discourse Analysis)?
6. Why is DA regarded as multidisciplinary discipline?

Chapter 2

Discourse: Concepts and Approaches

My main focus in this chapter is to describe some important concepts, principles, and approaches to a discourse. Explanations on those aspects are required to understand clearly about the process in doing DA. As seen in chapter 1 previously, a study of a discourse requires specific approach in order to gain deep and better interpretation of the discourse itself.

In the first part, I explain some important concepts such as the comparative perspectives of formal and functional as well contextual and formal paradigm. This section enables us to gain different perspectives on the ways of looking at a discourse. The formal or structural is compared to contextual or functional as the different ways of looking at a discourse. In addition to this section is an exploration of some important terms such as context, cohesion, and coherence which need to be examined when doing DA.

The second section of the chapter deals with some important approaches to DA, which I adapted from Deborah Schriffin (1994), one important scholar in DA, through her book entitled *Approaches to Discourse*. The approaches are speech act theories, interactional sociolinguistics, the ethnography of communication, pragmatics, conversation analysis, and variation analysis. These approaches can be applied to do DA.

2.1 Some Important Concepts

2.1.1 Formal and Functionalist Paradigms

There are two categories in understanding a discourse which was proposed by Schriffin (1994, p. 20). They are “formal paradigm” in which a discourse is “a particular unit of language (above the sentence)” and “functionalist paradigm” in which a discourse is “a particular focus (on language use)”. The first paradigm looks at a discourse as seen on the sentence or in the form itself whereas the latter sees a discourse in terms of function.

The first definition by Schriffin (1994) is mostly related to the formalism or structuralism paradigm. In this paradigm, a discourse is analyzed based on the

“structures”. Dijk (1985) refers this way of analysis as ways to observe several levels and dimensions of analysis in various unit, categories, schematic patterns, or relations.

The second definition of discourse by Schrifin (1994) views a discourse as “a particular focus on language use”. This is related to the second paradigm, functionalism. This is also suited with Brown and Yule’s definition of a discourse (1983, p. 1) that “the analysis of discourse is necessarily, the analysis of language in use”. Therefore, a discourse needs to be analyzed by integrating the forms and functions in order to acquire proper usage of language for communication.

Hymes contrasted the two paradigms above: structural (formal) and functional approach as follows:

Table 2: Structural and functional paradigm

Structural	Functional
Structure of language as grammar	Structure of speech as ways of speaking
Analysis of code prior to analysis of use	Analysis of use prior to analysis of code; organization of use discloses additional features and relations, shows code and use in integral (dialectical) relation
Referential function	Social function
Elements and structures analytically arbitrary in cross-cultural or historical perspectives) or universal (in theoretical perspectives)	Elements and structures are ethnographically appropriate
Functional (adaptive) equivalence of languages, all languages essentially equal	Functional (adaptive) differentiation of languages, varieties, styles, not essentially equivalent
Single homogeneous code and community	Speech community as matrix of code-repertoires, or speech styles
Fundamental concepts, such as speech community, speech act, fluent speaker, functions of speech and of language, taken for granted	Fundamental concepts taken as problematic and to be investigated

(Cited in Schrifin, 1994, p. 21)

Differences on the above table suggest two different ways of looking at a discourse, whether by looking at the structure of the language or by looking at the the function. The structural way, for example, mostly concerns on grammar whereas the functional way focuses on the speech as a way of speaking. Other differences are in the function in which structural way focuses on the referential function whereas the functional way focuses on social function of a language.

Another scholar, Leech suggests other ways that formalism and functionalism are different to each other in the ways of looking at a discourse. This can be seen in the following table:

Table 3: Leech's Formalism and Functionalism

Formalism	Functionalism
Language is a mental phenomenon	Language is a social phenomenon
Linguistic universals are derived from a common genetic linguistics inheritance of the human species	Linguistic universals are derived from the universality of the uses to which language is put in human society
Children acquisition is explained in terms of a built-in human capacity to learn language	Children acquisition is explained in terms of the development of the child's communicative needs and abilities in society
Language is studied as an autonomous system	Language is studied in relation to its social function

(Cited in Schriffin, 1994, pp. 21-22)

The different emphases of the above two paradigms is that functionalism is consistent with the ways of analyzing a discourse as language use and as “social phenomena” whereas for formalism, language is seen as “mental phenomenon”.

Schriffin (1994, p. 32) notes that approaches based on functionalism will draw variety of methods in analyzing a discourse, not only “quantitative methods” but also “humanistically interpretive efforts to replicate actors’ own purposes and goals”. Therefore, it is important to understand that formalist paradigm in analyzing a discourse will rely less on “grammatical characteristics of utterances”. Indeed, they rely much on “the way utterances are situated in contexts”. Tannen’s definition (1989) also meets the requirement of analyzing a discourse from this point of view. Tannen states as follows:

Discourse—language beyond the sentence—is simply language—as it occurs, in any context (including the context of linguistic analysis), in any form (including two-made-up sentences in sequence; a tape recorded conversation, meeting, or interview; a novel or play (cited in Schriffin, 1994, p. 38).

It can be concluded that analyzing a discourse is not only by paying attention to what is in a sentence but also to what is out of a sentence. It is not only looking at the forms but also at the functions.

2.1.2 Contextual and Formal

Discussion in the previous part implies that analyzing a discourse is not merely analyzing on *language form* but also analyzing on *language use*. To understand and be able to analyze a discourse, analyzing contextual facts rather than

formal facts are needed to be taken into account. In this way, context will play important roles as the path to go through in analyzing language in use.

Cook (1990) introduced two ways of looking at a discourse namely by a means of contextual facts and of formal facts. Contextual facts refer to “facts outside language”. This means “somewhere outside the physical realization of the language”. Formal facts may be understood as “features of the language as seen on the paper or as heard in the ear” (p. 14). Widdowson (2007, p. 43) also comments that “as communication takes place, in speech or writing, what is said at a particular point naturally makes reference to what has been said before”. From this explanation, what is actually needed in a discourse is not merely about what is seen in a language itself but also what are the meanings implied in the language.

For that purpose, looking at a discourse needs both formal link and contextual links. Cook (1990, pp. 15-22) mentions some types of formal links that can be used to link the text such as verb form, parallelism, referring expressions, repletion and lexical chains, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction. These links function to create a proper text linkage.

Nevertheless, the use of formal links is not enough to analyze discourse data. Cook (1990, p. 23) states that “formal links reinforce the unity of discourse”, but “they cannot, on their own, create it”. To create the unity of a discourse, he suggests to discuss it in context. One of the ways suggested by Cook is by looking behind the literal and the formal meaning of what is said or written. In addition, there is a need to consider what the sender of a message intends to achieve with it in order to understand its function.

The question is how to infer the function of what is said from its literal or formal meaning? One way is suggested by Cook (1990), that is by “firstly examine the range of possible functions of language, and then try to understand how people correctly interpret them”. Hence, formal links need to be used together with the contextual links. For this purpose, as suggested by Cook (1990, pp. 23-24), it is important to understand a relation between form and function which is helpful to explain the language because formal links between sentences are not enough to decide whether a stretch of a language is a discourse or not.

Contextual links can be achieved by observing the functions of a language over its form. Cook (1990, p. 26) suggests some functions of language to communicate, such as (1) the emotive function, to communicate the inner states and

emotions of the addressee, (2) the directive function, which is to affect the behaviour of the addressee, (3) the phatic function, to open the channel or check that is working, (4) the poetic function, to emphasize the essence of message, (5) the referential function, which is to carry information, (6) the metalinguistic function, by focusing the code either to clarify or to renegotiate, and (7) the contextual function, that is by creating a particular kind of communication.

2.1.3 *Context*

It is important for the discourse analysts to look at relating factors not only on the language itself but also outside the language. What is seen in the text is as important as what is not seen in the text. This acquires the explanation about context, cohesion, and coherence as important aspects of looking at a discourse.

Widdowson defines *context* as “situation in which we find ourselves, the actual circumstances of time and place, the here and now of the home, school, the work place, and so on”. Context is further described as “an abstract representation of a state of affairs”. Therefore, it is not “what is perceived in a particular situation, but what is conceived as relevant” (2007, pp. 19-21). In line with this, Cook (1990, p. 14) comments that examining a context in a language require a look at several features outside of a language such as the situation, the people involved, what they know and what they doing”.

A quotation from Dijk (2008) may also give brief definition about *context*. Dijk states that the notion of *context* is used whenever we want to indicate that some phenomenon, event, action or discourse needs to be seen or studied in relationship to its environment, that is, its “surrounding” conditions and consequences (p. 4). This is supported by Martin (2001, p. 35) who states that “the goal of DA is to build a model that places texts in their social contexts and looks comprehensively at the resources which both integrate and situate them”

Kramersch (1998) defines *context* in two ways, namely “context of situation” and “context of culture”. Context of situation relates to “understanding on why, what how something is said” whereas context of culture relates to “the linkage of the words, beliefs, and mindsets to other aspects”. Some aspects may contribute to this context of culture such as tribal economics, social organization, kinship patterns, fertility rites, seasonal rhythms, concepts of time, and spaces (p. 26).

One important term in relation to context is “contextualization cues”. Kramsch refers these cues as aspects “that help speakers hint at or clarify or guide their listeners’ interpretations of what is being said among the infinite range of potentially relevant factors of the context” (1998, p. 27). Kramsch further states that “the words people exchange in verbal encounters are linked in a myriad of ways to the situational and cultural context in which they occur” (1998, p. 27). An example can be seen when someone said “I feel hot. Could you open the door”. In understanding this utterance, aspects such as the verbal words (I, hot, the door), aspects of nonverbal (stress and intonation, tempo and laughter, gaze direction, gesture, body posture, tone of voice) need to be taken into account.

Hymes (1964) specifies some of the aspects of which need to be closely looked upon the interpretation of one’s communicative acts in order to understand the context. The first one is the knowledge of the addressor or the person who originates the message. This is important to imagine what is the speaker is going to say. The second one is the knowledge about the addressee or the persons to who people are talking to. This may give possibility to suit with the addressor’s need for the communicative acts. The third one is about the topic; the fourth one is the setting, which is about the time and place the communicative acts are taken place. Next is about the physical relations of the interactants in relation to posture and gesture and facial expressions. Other aspects of communications are the channel of communication such as by speech, writing, singing, the code (language, dialect or style of language being used), message form (chat, debate, sermon, fairy-tale, etc), and event (sermon, prayer etc) (cited in Brown and Yule, 1983, p. 38).

Those above features of communication are necessary in determining the context of communication. The speech by the President addressed to group of people in one community (e.g. in a village) will be different from the speech of the President in front of the members of Legislative. Communication between a husband and wife who have relations as a manager and a staff will be different at home and at work.

2.1.4 Cohesion and Coherence

Cohesion and coherence are important in doing DA. Cohesion implies an interconnection of the messages in one form of communication by the use of formal links. Cohesion means “the formal linkage between the elements of a discourse or text” (Crystal, 2003, p. 423) .

Halliday and Hasan (1976) describe that the categories of sentences to be constituted as a text will be depending on the cohesion of the text. In order to create a good cohesion in the text, cohesive relaters or connectors are needed. One type is known as explicit markers such as (1) additive—and, or, furthermore, similarly, in addition, (2) adversative—but, however, on the other hand, nevertheless, (3) causal—so, consequently, for this reason, it follows from this, (4) temporal—then, after that, an hour later, finally, at last. In addition, interpret the text, certain relationship in the text need to be observed. When interpretation lies outside the text, in the context of situation, exophoric relations are the focus whereas when the interpretation lies within the text, there is endophoric relations, which form cohesive ties within the text. Endophoric relations are two kinds, called anaphoric relations, which look back in the text for interpretation and cataphoric relations which look forward in the text for interpretation (Hasan and Halliday, 1976, cited in Brown and Yule, 1983, pp. 190-191).

Cohesion can also be achieved by the use of co-reference such (1) repeated form, in which one of the phrase or word is repeated twice or more in a sentence, (2) partially repeated form—repeating a part of the phrase or sentence, (3) lexical replacement, using another word to replace the preceding one such as by synonym, (4) pronominal form, (5) substituted form, and elided form. In addition, cohesion can be derived from lexical relationships such as hyponymy (daffodil is a hyponym for a flower), partwhole (arm is a part of a man), collocability (Monday relates to Tuesday), comparison, syntactic repetition, consistency of tense, stylistic choice, and so on (Hasan and Halliday, cited in Brown and Yule, 1983, pp. 193-194).

Those cohesive ties or devices have important roles to supply cohesive relations in the text. Therefore, in analyzing a form of a discourse, texture of the text or the linkage of the text can be examined to understand the text and infer what is happening in the text.

Besides being cohesive, a text has to be coherent as well. Cohesion may be achieved by the use of cohesive devices within the text. However, a text may be cohesive seen from the use of cohesive devices but it is not coherent. In relation to this, Kramsch (1998, p. 49) states as follows:

cohesive devices are only aids to understanding and can only be effective to the extent that they enable readers (or listeners) to construct meaning that makes contextual sense to them, in other words to the extent that the cohesion in the text enables them to derive a coherent discourse from it.

Kramersch (1998, p. 28) comments that coherence cannot be seen in the utterance of the speakers. It should be created in the minds of speakers and hearers by making inferences on what they hear. Kramersch comments as follows:

The extent to which a text is interpreted as coherent discourse will always depend on how far it can be related externally to contextual realities, to the ideational and interpersonal schemata that readers are familiar with in the particular socio-cultural world they live in (1998, p. 28)

Coherence implies that the concepts and relationships should be relevant to each other in order to make inferences about the underlying meaning (Crystal, 2003, p. 119). Crystal further defines coherence as “the underlying logical connectedness of a use of language” (2003, p. 423).

It can be concluded that coherence in the text is acquired by the use of logical ideas or ideas interconnection of meaning within the text, which enable readers to interpret what is going on in the text.

2.2 Some Important Approaches to Discourse

2.2.1 Speech Act Theories

Theories of speech acts that had been pioneered by two important philosophers, John Austin and John Searle can become an important approach to study and analyze a discourse. The basic belief from these theories is that “language is used to perform actions” (Schriffin, 1994, p. 49). Therefore, what is explored through the use of speech acts will be focused on the relationship between actions and meanings.

Although speech act theory was developed firstly not as an approach to a discourse, many researchers had applied these potential speech theories in analyzing discourse data. Through speech act theory, researchers who apply DA allowed to examine the performance of language used in communicative acts. Searle (1969, p. 21), another follower of speech act theory, comments as follows:

The hypothesis that the speech act is the basic unit of communication, taken together with the principle of expressibility, suggests that there are a series of analytic connection between the notion of speech acts, what the speaker means, what the sentence (or other linguistic element) uttered means, what the speaker intends, what the hearer understands, and what the rules governing the linguistic elements are (cited in Schriffin, 1994, p. 90).

Schriffin (1994) notes that through speech act analysis of a language, researchers may obtain “a picture and a description on what communicators perform

through their speech act utterances”. The analysis of speech act creates possibilities to explore speakers’ language use. In addition, “speech act knowledge allows us to infer not only that an interlocutor is doing something with words, but also that an interlocutor is doing more than one thing at once with words” (pp. 90-91).

2.2.2 *Interactional Sociolinguistics*

The field of sociolinguistics provides the greatest number of issues in doing DA. The issues in sociolinguistics are potential data for discourse. Issues such as code-switching or other bilingual issues, issues about politeness in society in relation to culture, and so on are mainly studied in sociolinguistics and become potential issues for DA. Schrifin (1994) has noted that interactional sociolinguistics as one approach to discourse is based on anthropology, sociology, and linguistics and shares the concerns of three fields with culture, society, and language (p. 97, 134).

The work of DA using this interactional sociolinguistics can be seen in the work of John Gumperz in the field of anthropology. Gumperz (1982) notes that discourse strategies seek to develop “interpretive sociolinguistic approaches to the analysis of real time processes in face to face encounters”. Cognition and language are important aspect in this sense. These are affected by social and cultural forces such as the way we behave and express ourselves in relation to a linguistic code and the underlying categories of the code itself are open to external influence (cited in Schrifin, 1994, p. 134).

Besides the work of Gumperz, the work of Ervin Goffman in the field of sociology also contributes to interactional sociolinguistics. Goffman provides a sociological framework to describe and understand “the form and meaning of the social and interpersonal contexts that provide presuppositions for the interpretation of meaning”. Goffman “forces structural attention to the contexts in which language is used”, for examples situations, occasions, encounters, participation frameworks, and so on. Language is also patterned in ways that reflect these contexts of use. Goffman states that “language and context co-constitute one another”. In addition, “language contextualises and is contextualised”. For that purpose, one interaction will be grounded in terms of language, culture, and society (cited in Schrifin, 1994, p. 134).

2.2.3 *Ethnography of Communication*

Ethnographic method is used as an approach in doing DA. As one method in qualitative research, ethnography becomes appropriate method in doing research, especially in social sciences. Atkinson and Hammersley (1994) put some characteristics of ethnography such as (1) a strong emphasis on the nature of particular phenomenon, (2) a tendency to work on unstructured data, (3) investigation on a small number of cases, and (4) analysis of data involves explicit interpretation of the meanings and functions of human actions (p. 248).

Ethnographic methods rely much on the use of “participant observation”. Atkinson and Hammersley (1994, p. 248) state that in participant observation, “the researcher is playing an established participant role in the scene studied”. Spradley (1980, p. 45) mentions the dual role of participant observers, namely to “engage to activities appropriate to the situation” and “to observe the activities, people, and physical aspects of the situation”.

Ethnography may be applied in studying language use in communication, known as ethnography of communication. Ethnography of communication is an important approach in anthropology. Studies in the area of anthropology may use the ethnography as the main method of research. In terms of studies of anthropology in relation to linguistics, the ethnography of communication is a common approach. Crystal (2003) refers the ethnography of communication as “the study of language in relation to the social and cultural variables that influence human interaction” (p. 48). Saville-Troike states that the ethnography of communication extends “understandings of cultural system to language”. Moreover, Saville-Troike states as follows:

It also relates it to social organization, role-relationship, values and beliefs, and other shared patterns of knowledge and behavior which are transmitted from generation to generation in the process of socialization/enculturation (1982, p. 9).

The ethnography of communication is based on anthropology and linguistics. This is commonly known as anthropolinguistics or linguistic anthropology. For anthropologists, for example, the way of communication is “a part of cultural repertoire for making sense of—interacting with the world” (Schriffin, 1994, pp. 137-138). Therefore, communication is an important area of interest of both anthropology and linguistics.

The work of ethnography of communication was first developed by Dell Hymes through his paper in 1974 entitled *Foundations in Sociolinguistics: An*

Ethnographic Approach. The main point from the book is that the ethnography of communication creates a framework of both anthropological and linguistic studies. In doing the ethnography of communication, researchers will be directed to find new data, ask new questions, and propose new theories (Schriffin, 1994, p. 138).

Dijk (1997) states that with the concern of communicative events and ways of speaking, ethnography of communication provides a new and more systematic and explicit cross discipline for discourse. In this field, speakers of a language are not only expected to know the grammars of a language but also to have a broader communicative competence as cultural members, for example how to talk, to warn, or to request should also be seen from the cultural aspects of a language.

This implies that practices of communication of people in one community, under the concept of anthropology and linguistics, are to be governed by cultural norms of a language. In using a language, people need to pay attention to the culture surrounding the participants, either the speaker or the listener. All of these aspects can become discourse data and therefore, can become one way of approaching the discourse. A lot of studies in relation to discourse are carried out, under the discipline of anthropology and linguistics or anthropolinguistics, using ethnography of communication as the main approach.

2.2.4 Pragmatics

Crystal (2003) notes that a pragmatics is “a study about factors governing our choice of language in social interaction and the effects of the choice on others” (p. 120). Some of those factors will influence the speakers’ selection of sounds, grammatical constructions, and vocabulary from the resources of language. Like the previous parts, pragmatics is also another broad approach to discourse. Pragmatics, with its concerns on three main points namely meaning, context, and communication, provides a broader area to explore people’s communication.

The best example of using pragmatics as an approach to discourse is the work of Grice which is in the form of four specific maxims under the “cooperative principle”. The four maxims are maxim of quantity, quality, relation, and manner. Through the four maxims, implicatures can be treated; a maxim can be followed, a maxim can be violated or flouted. The application of these “cooperative principle” to discourse leads to a particular view of discourse and its analysis. Discourse as text

whose contexts (including cognitive, social, and linguistic contexts) allow the interpretation of speaker meaning in utterances (Schriffin, 1994, p. 195, 227).

Levinson (1987, p. 54) mentions some examples of topics to be analyzed by using pragmatics. One of them is the use of deixis such as the use of demonstratives, first and second pronouns, tense, specific time and place adverbs like now and here, and a variety of other grammatical features tied directly to the circumstances of utterance. Other possible topics are conversational implicatures, and conversational structures such as turn-taking, adjacency pairs, etc.

2.2.5 *Conversation Analysis*

Conversation Analysis (CA) is “a method of studying the structure of conversations using the technique of ethnomethodology, the detailed study of the techniques used during linguistic interaction” (Crystal, 2003, p. 116). CA is also an approach to a discourse, started by the use of ethnomethodology of Harold Garfinkel and applied in conversations by Harvey Sacks, Emanuel Schegloff, and Gail Jefferson. The main concern is also on the problems of social order and how language both creates and is created by social context (Schriffin, 1994, p. 232).

Some potential topics to be observed by using an approach of CA is a study of talk-in interaction, which is according to Have (2000, p. 4), is a “study of the orders of talk-in interaction, whatever its character and setting”. Indeed CA is a potential approach of studying the discourse, although there are differences between CA and DA as discussed in chapter 1 (1. 4).

2.2.6 *Variation Analysis*

Variation analysis is another approach to discourse which is based solely within linguistics. The main focus is studies of variation and change in language. Schriffin (1994) notes that the fundamental assumptions of such studies depend on the pattern of linguistic variation both socially and linguistically, which can be discovered by systematic investigation of a speech community (p. 282).

One of the focuses of the variation analyses to discourse is studies on variation across text types. The comparison of text types is a key part of a variationist approach to discourse. This greatly contributes not only to the knowledge of text level variation but also to the understanding of how functional identities (and labels) attributes to strings of utterances. Another focus is studies on variation within a

single-text type, such as analyzing coordinate and subordinate markers either in general, or in specific text-types, .e.g. arguments, stories. One of the examples is the analysis on the use of referring terms as linguistic variants within texts (Schriffin, 1994, p. 314, 331).

2.3 Summary

The important ideas dealt in this chapter are about the important concepts and approaches in discourse study. One of the important points is that DA is a study not only in the forms but also in the functions. The paradigms of structural or formal vs. contextual or functional best described the focus of doing DA. In addition, the approaches offered by Schriffin (1994) give choices of ways of looking and analyzing discourses, all of them lead discourse analysts to see language use in their interpretation. One type of language use in discourse can be analyzed by one or more approaches proposed above.

2.4. Questions for Discussion

1. How formalism and functionalism differ in their approach to the discourse?
2. Find one topic to be analyzed based on the approaches that had been discussed in this chapter.

Chapter 3

Disciplines in Discourse Analysis

My intention in this chapter is to give overviews about the disciplines in doing DA. This chapter is important to give descriptions about the scope of studies in DA, which lead researchers to decide the disciplines of study as their focus in doing DA.

DA is a multidisciplinary approach and covers a wide range of disciplines such as sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, etc. Brown and Yule (1983, p. viii) defines DA based on its functions and areas, in which DA is

a wide range of meanings and a wide range of activities, to describe activities in the intersection of disciplines: sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, physical linguistics, computational linguistics

Therefore, some disciplines can become the areas of DA such as sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, philosophical linguistics, and computational linguistics. Those disciplines can be used together in analyzing one issue in DA.

Dijk (1985) in his book entitled *Handbook of Discourse Analysis* collects various works in relation to DA such as social psychology, sociology, socio-cultural study, philosophy, history, and legal discourse. The same way was shown by Schriffin et al., (2001) who identify some disciplines and areas of DA such as politics, media, medicine, language teaching, legal; context, history, educational settings, etc. In addition, McCarthy (1991) identifies some specific areas in DA, especially for language teachers such as grammar, vocabulary, phonology, spoken language, and written language.

Therefore, DA offers a wide ranging perspective of studies. As Shuy (2001, p. 437) confirms that one of the characteristics of DA is that “it is capable of application in a wide variety of settings and context. Wherever there is continuous text, written or spoken, there is a potential analysis of such text”.

Let us have a look into some of these different disciplines of DA study to see how discourse analysts work within these different disciplines. Some of them are linguistics, sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, linguistic anthropology, philosophy, history, literature, education, and law.

3.1 Linguistics

Since DA, as explained previously, is a part of linguistic study, the field of language form will automatically become the main concern of doing DA.

McCarthy (1991) offers some aspects to be focused in the field of linguistics, such as the form of grammar, vocabulary, and phonology. In terms of grammar, there are three aspects to be analyzed. They are grammatical cohesion and textuality, theme and rheme, and tense and aspect. To see the grammatical cohesion and textuality, discourse analysts can investigate the types of reference such as pronouns, demonstratives, and articles. Problems of ellipsis/substitutions and the use of conjunctions are also major issues in terms of grammar (pp. 3-62). Therefore, studies of DA in terms of grammar not only categorizes on larger contexts above sentences, but also on evaluation of all of the above aspects.

In terms of vocabulary, some aspects to be analyzed by discourse analysts are lexical cohesion, lexis in talk, text organizations, modality, and register (McCarthy, 1991, pp. 64-86). McCarthy (1991) further states that linguistic focus of DA is concerned with patterns in text generated by the vocabulary relations that are found over clause and sentence boundaries, the roles of certain words in organizing discourses and signaling their structure, and the relationship between these features of textuality and the register of the end product (pp. 86-87).

In terms of phonology, discourse analysts are interested in aspects such as pronunciation, rhythm, stress, intonation, tones, and pitch (McCarthy, 1991, pp. 88-114). This allows discourse analysts to look at the aspects of phonetics and phonology of a language. Filmore (1985) further mentions some aspects to be concerned in linguistic analysis of the discourse such as in the following:

1. *Knowledge of phonemic contrast (differences of love and live at phonological level, contrasting categories of an inflectional system (e.g. present tense or past tense in narratives), morphologically related words, etc.*
2. *Knowledge of grammatical requirements of lexical items, knowledge of the occurrence of items in phraseological units, knowledge of the joint fitting into common semantic schemata of given sets of lexical and phraseological units.*
3. *Knowledge of phonemes function, recognition of word-forming patterns, grammatical roles of words, grammatical structures of the text's constituent sentences, recognition of genres and text types, etc.*
4. *Knowledge of the connection a syllabic nucleus and its onsets, awareness of the fit between prefixes and suffixes, sensitivity in semantic structure to relations of predication, modification, quantification, and negation.*
5. *Knowledge of distant dependencies in syntax, awareness of discontinuous constituents, etc*

6. *The ability of establish exophoric relations such as deixis (the relation between linguistic choices and systematic aspects of the communicative act, such as the identity of the participants, the time of the communicative act, the location of the participants at the time of the communicative act, the social relations between the participants, etc, register (the fit between linguistic choices and the acts, discourse topics, and personnel in the associated activities, pragmatics (the relation between the formation of an utterance and the acts that a performer of the utterance is capable of accomplishing within a given context)*
7. *The ability to construe a text by constructing the characteristics of the world or situation.*

(pp. 13-14)

Therefore, one text, either spoken or written, can be analyzed by looking at the use of grammatical patterns, vocabulary choices, and phonological cases. In her study of politeness in Bugis, Mahmud (2008) found some grammatical expressions of Bugis politeness such as the use of pronouns, participant avoiders, and some phonological alternations, which are regarded as linguistic aspects of Bugis politeness.

3.2 Sociolinguistics

Levi-Strauss says “to say language is to say society” (cited in Duranti, 1997, p. 337). This means that one concept of society can be interpreted from the way language is used by the particular groups within the society. The pattern of social life in one community can be seen from the language they use in communicating and interacting. This can be studied in the area of sociolinguistics.

Sociolinguistics is a branch of linguistic study whose main concern is on the relationship between language and society. Crystal (2003) puts definition about sociolinguistics which is “the study of the interaction between language and the structure and functioning of society” (p. 418). In Chambers Concise Dictionary (2004, p. 1146), sociolinguistics is defined as “the study of the relationships between language and the society which uses it”. Romaine (1994, p. 222) also comments that sociolinguistics aims to explain variations of language by looking at “social forces or agents”.

Therefore, sociolinguistics is the study about how language is used in a particular society. This means that in studying a particular language in a particular society, one will also study the whole society. It is because the study of a particular language in one society has a purpose of knowing that society. In fact, sociolinguistic

study can extend its analysis in other areas, and of course, needs different perspectives in its analysis. One of them is the integration of cultural aspects of using language.

Stubbs (1983) states that sociolinguistics requires a correlative study on many linguistic features (p. 8). Since the main focus of sociolinguistics is on how people interact using a language in one particular society, analysis in terms of discourse in this discipline need to investigate how those people use the language, especially in the forms of spoken language. As stated by Stubbs (1983, p. 7) as follows:

Sociolinguistics will ultimately have to be based on analysis of how people actually talk to each other in everyday settings, such as streets, pubs, shops, restaurants, buses, trains, schools, doctor's surgeries, factories, and homes. Therefore, sociolinguistics will have to incorporate analyzes of how conversation works: that is how talk between people is organized; what makes it coherent and understandable; how people introduce and change topics; how they interrupt, ask questions, give or evade answers; and in general, how the conversational flow is maintained or disrupted

Therefore, DA will be directed toward the use of a particular language in a particular society. This can be in the form of conversations as influenced by sociolinguistic patterns, such as differences in age, social status, gender, familiarity, or situations. Other aspects of sociolinguistics such as the use of dialects, diglossia, speech levels, registers, or any variations of language use may become the focus of attentions of sociolinguistic study in DA.

An example of DA study in this field is a study on speech levels such as in Javanese conducted by Errington (1985, 1986, 1988, 1998), Berman (1998), Wajdi (2009), in Sundanese by Wessing (1974), in Sasak in West Timor by Mahyuni (2003), and in Bugis by Mahmud (2008). By analyzing the data obtained by recording the conversations, those studies found several speech levels used in the community. The speech levels found in this study were affected by many aspects in society such as power and gender.

3.3 Psycholinguistics

We define psycholinguistics as the study about the integrated study between language and thought. Crystal (2003, p. 418) defines psycholinguistics as “the study of the relationship between linguistic behaviour and the psychological processes (e.g. memory, attention)”. In Chambers Concise Dictionary, psycholinguistics is defined as “the psychological study of language development and the relationship between language and mental processes, e.g. memory, mental disorders, etc” (2004, p. 963).

Psycholinguistics also becomes the field of study for DA. In the field of psycholinguistics, discourse analysts will pay attention to the issues related to language comprehension. In line with this, Dardjowidjojo (2008) states that there are four important matters to be studied in psycholinguistics: (1) comprehension, mental processes experienced by humans to understand about particular things, (2) production, mental processes of humans to be able to utter particular language, (3) biological and neurological concerns which make humans can speak a language, and (4) language acquisition, how children can acquire their languages throughout their development (p. 7). These four aspects may be reflected in the way people use a language which can also be analyzed under the discipline of DA .

One example of study in this discipline is the study on how children aged below 6 years old acquire their first and second language. Analysis can be in the forms of talk they produced and strategies to communicate with the other children or to the older people such as their parents.

3.4 Linguistic Anthropology

Linguistic anthropology is an interdisciplinary field which is formed of linguistics and anthropology. As we know that linguistics is the study of language whereas anthropology is the study of human kind. Therefore, we may say linguistic anthropology is the study human kind in relation to language. Linguistic anthropology or anthropology linguistics (the two terms are used in the same meaning) will mainly concern on the language use in relation to human culture.

Crystal (2003, p. 418) defines linguistic anthropology as the study of “language variation and use in relation to cultural patterns and beliefs of the human race”. Duranti (1997, p 2) also defines linguistic anthropology as “the study of language as a cultural resource and speaking as a cultural practice”. Duranti (1997, p. 3) further states that linguistic anthropology is

an inherently interdisciplinary field which relies upon and expands existing method in other discipline, linguistics and another in particular with the general goal of providing an understanding of the multifarious aspects of language as a set of cultural practices, that is a system of communication that allows for interpsychological between individual and intrapsychological representatives of the social order and helps people use such representatives for constituting social acts

Linguistic anthropology is also a discipline of linguistics which becomes the area of study of DA. The main focus can be in the forms of speech in a particular

culture, such as ritual languages, religious languages, and so on. One of the examples is the study of politeness practices in Bugis society or in Javanese society. In this case, studies will be directed to find out how Bugis or Javanese people express their politeness influenced by the cultural aspects of Bugis or Javanese people (Berman, 1998; Mahmud, 2008).

3.5 *Philosophy*

Philosophy is another field which becomes the areas of studies in DA. This may be related to philosophical linguistics. In this field, the main concern is the relationship between language and its meanings, or which is commonly known as the disciplines of semantics.

Brown and Yule (1983) emphasize that philosophical linguistics are particularly concerned with “semantic relationships between constructed pairs of sentences and with their syntactic realizations”. It also concerns with “relationships between sentences” (p. viii). An example of study in this aspect is about the use of metaphors or any kinds of figures of speech in a particular text.

3.6 *History*

History also becomes a major in DA. It can have several functions for historians. Struever (1985) mentions the functions of DA for historians as both for critique and self-critique. It functions as (1) a tool of inquiry in the traditional task of interpretation of source, the exploitation of the archive of pertinent discourses that the historians use to reconstruct the past (2) a tool to reveal the discursive strategies of presentation. Struever furthermore mentions that there are three main types of historical discourse, namely history as narrative, rhetorical style, and argument (1985, p. 250).

There are some approaches to apply DA in historical context. Brinton (2001) proposes three major approaches in historical context. The first approach is the application of DA to language history by studying discourse forms, functions, or structures in earlier periods of language. The second approach is the application of DA to historical linguistics by studying ‘discourse-pragmatic factors’ in language change or of the discourse motivations behind diachronic changes in phonological, morphological, syntactic, or semantics. The third approach is interdisciplinary,

involving a synthesis of discourse and diachrony by looking at changes in discourse marking, functions, and structures over time (pp. 13-140).

Brinton (2001) mentions some aspects to be concerned in historical DA. The first one is philologist on “mystery words”, inflectional forms, collocations, and textual structures. Examples as topic marking, participant tracking, given/new information, narrative segmentation, expressions of subjectivity, and internal or external evaluation. The second one is examination of usual activities of diachronic linguistics combined with a consideration of discourse factors such as sources, causes, or motivation of changes. The third is the study of origin, diachronic development, loss of discourse markers, changes in discourse structures, or alterations in text types over time (p. 152).

Historical account of one particular society can become a good area of doing DA. For example, historical record of Bugis history (e.g. *attoriolong*, *Lontara Latoa*, etc), can be analyzed to see the linguistic styles or Bugis expressions in Bugis society compared to the present Bugis community.

3.7 Literature

Another discipline of study in DA is on literature. It should be noted that in doing DA, written productions, which are commonly known as “literary text” can also be a part of analysis. Mey (2001) confirms that a pragmatic study of literary activity can be concentrated to “the features that characterize the dialectic aspect of literary production” (p. 788).

Studies will be directed to investigate the usage of literary works as resources of texts for analysis. Any kinds of literary work such as poems, drama, short stories, and novels can be used as resources of text to analyze. Drama, for example, can be used to analyze spoken discourse. Students can be assigned to perform one type of drama in the class. The performance can be recorded and interpreted later. Next activity will be about elaborating the transcribed texts in relation to language use (e.g. phonological, morphological, context).

3.8 Law

Shuy (2001) states that “the area of law provides an open opportunity for DA” and that “law is a fertile field for DA”. The field of law is generally regarded “as a field containing written discourse” and that “cases occurring in court are preserved in

written form to serve as the basis for later decisions and to record the cases for later review”. Shuy mentions some forms of written or spoken text that can be obtained from law field such as motions, counterclaims, judges’ opinions, trial testimony, questioning, and argument (2001, p. 437).

In this law field, or as referred by Shuy (2001) as “legal context”, many possibilities of occurring cases can become the focus of doing DA, either in the form of written or spoken language. An example is the study of criminal cases. The study can be focused on court hearings. A case of divorce, for example, may provide written and spoken discourse on reasons for sexual harassment in family. Spoken data can be obtained by recording the explanations of suspects, or any related persons. Shuy’s study (1993, cited in Shuy, 2001, p. 440), for example, analyzed speech acts such as promising, offering, denying, agreeing, threatening, warning, and apologizing as evidence in criminal cases.

3.9 Education

The field of education provides outstanding resources for doing DA. That is because people involved in the areas of educations, teachers, school principals, students can have contributions to the study of talks. Rogers (2004) points out the important roles of education as the source of DA as follows:

that educational contexts are potential sources of studying discourses such as interactions between teachers and students, curriculum documents, institutional meetings, state think tanks charged to address current educational issues. Therefore, researchers are able to describe, interpret, and explain the relationships among language and important educational issues (p. 10).

Shuy and Griffin (cited in Adger, 2001, p. 503) has noted that “whatever goes on there, what they do in schools on any day is talk”. Adger furthermore states that “the fabric of schooling is woven in linguistic interaction” (2001, p. 503). Adger (2001) further mentions the focuses of DA in educational settings such as “to uncover the ways in which talk at school is unique and thus what children must be able to do linguistically in order to succeed there” (p. 503).

Therefore, interaction in the schools is potential issues in DA. The focus can be in the class activities, such as teaching by teachers and learning by students. Teachers and students interactions in the class, for examples, questions and answers, lecturing, class discussion, can be the focus of DA.

Adger (2001) promotes some topics to be explored in educational settings such as exploring classroom interaction as cultural practice (e.g. cultural background of teachers and students), literacy development of students (e.g. the acquisition and use of written language, the interweaving of talk and text, and the genres or discourses associated with schools), and discourse study of second language development.

An example of study is the use of code-switching in the class by teachers and students (Elridge, 1996; Hutahuruk, 2009). Focus of study can be by observing the kinds of languages used by teachers and students in the classroom interactions and their reasons to switch their languages to one another.

3.10 *Politics*

Politics is one of the potential fields of exploring discourses. Activities in political matters can provide critical areas and issues to be potentially explored in relation to discourses. In this discipline, ideas on power and other related issues may be brought into discussion. Wilson (2001) comments that studies of political matters have become the interest of discourse analysts since the early 1980s and its main purpose is to find out how “language choice is manipulated for specific political effect” (p. 410).

One example of study in this political discourse is a study of Obama’s speech by Yulimar (2010) and Ginting (2009). Ginting in his study, for example, found some differences in the ways the two presidents, Obama and the former Indonesian President, Soesilo Bambang Yudoyono delivered their speech in their inauguration day. Some differences can be seen in terms of politeness, the use of identity and group markers, promising, and offering, and so on.

3.11 *Summary*

The above explanation only covers some of the disciplines under the scope of DA. Each of them provides nuanced and broad issues to be explored under the discipline of DA. I believe that there are still some other disciplines that had not been mentioned through this chapter. I just want to categorize that whatever there are people interacting to each other by using a language, potential data for discourse are there.

3.12 *Questions for Discussion*

1. What are the different approaches applied in discourse for the disciplines discussed in this chapter?
2. Find one example of issue that can be analyzed under each of the discipline above.
3. Find one article in national or international journal that become the example of work of DA in those above discipline.

DOING DISCOURSE ANALYSIS: AN INTRODUCTION

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This book is dedicated to:

Adhwa Dhaifullah Anwar

My cute son born in Canberra, Australia by the end of
my thesis submission. He is now 8 years old

You are the light of my lights

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Bismillahirrahmanirrahim

In the name of Allah, Most Gracious, Most Merciful

First of all, I would like to extend my high gratitude to Almighty God who has given me His endless blessing, without which I would not have been able to complete this most remarkable work in my life, my most precious contribution to knowledge.

It is my privilege to announce that this book is a compilation of my teaching materials during the time I teach the subject. The need to provide valuable resources for teaching Discourse Analysis encourages me to compile this book.

Thanks to my university, State University of Makassar. I am glad to say that this book is my prominent contribution to my academic life. I am also thankful to the Graduate Program of the State University of Makassar. The Director, Prof. Dr. Jasruddin, M.Si. and Head of English Study Program, Prof. Dr. H. Haryanto, M.Pd., who had supported me in the writing of this book and had given a chance to use the book as reading material in one of the subjects in English Study Program.

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Thanks also to all of the students of Graduate Program whom I teach Discourse Analysis. I will say that you are all my inspirations to always conduct a research. Working with you all always encourages me to do research more and more. In my inauguration speech for my Professorship, 18 March 2015, I stated:

Semoga gelar yang saya terima ini bukan hanya menjadikan nama saya lebih panjang, tetapi lebih sebagai motivasi untuk terus berkarya

“Hopefully the title of professor awarded for me is not merely to make my name longer, but more as a motivation to continue working”

This book is intended to accommodate my idea to be inspiring Professor with beneficial work. Hopefully this book invites more ideas for me to write in the future.

I ask for forgiveness for not mentioning all the names in this book. I do hope this book will become good resource for readings in Discourse Analysis and in linguistic study as a whole.

Makassar, 26 November 2016

Murni Mahmud

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AUTHOR'S PREFACE

The writing of this book is inspired by the need to provide appropriate books in the course of Discourse Analysis. This course is an important part of linguistic study. This course becomes the main subject studied by university students in all levels, in undergraduate degree, in master degree, and in the doctorate degree. In addition, Discourse Analysis, which I then wrote as DA in this book is now a trending method in doing research, especially in qualitative research. Researchers have been using this method in data analysis, besides the use of quasi-experimental design.

My main intention in writing this book is to explore the theoretical background of DA as a branch of study in linguistics. I attempt as well to examine the methods used in doing DA and later to give exercises for students in doing DA. This book can become a good reference for students in doing DA, as additional sources for doing DA.

During the time I teach this course, I find some interesting cases. Students find many copied books. They have plenty of books on DA copied from original books. They can also read many resources about DA from the internet through free search engines such as Google or Wikipedia. Indeed, they can download a free e-book from the internet about DA. The problem that I think it is urgent is that those students find difficulties to understand the theories of DA. Not only that, several students told me that they had learned DA in their level before such as in undergraduate program; however, they still do not understand what DA is exactly. More problems exist when they were asked about what to do in DA. Often when they had read so many books in DA, problems occurred when the questions came to "how to do DA?". What they need besides learning theories is actually practicing to apply DA in their work, their paper, and also in their research later.

In undergraduate degree, for example, when I explained a little bit about DA in the class of Introduction to Linguistics as a part of linguistic study, I got the impression that the students had not got ideas about it. Especially when I explained that DA requires higher level of thinking as it is about analysis not only on the sentences, clauses, or phrases, but within the sentences, clauses, or phrases, students said that the study must be very difficult.

In master degree program when I am usually given the responsibility to teach the course, students gave a lot comments. One of them is about the difficulties they encountered when doing DA, especially when they were given the tasks to analyze spoken discourses. Problems cover when they had to produce data by recording, transcribing the collected data, and later interpreting the data. One of the students said, "let's pray so we can pass this subject". Another comment, "I always got dizzy after joining the class DA". Some students said that they did not actually know or understand about DA. I asked them again, "what did you do during the course?". They said "it was just discussion about theories". My impression is that what they want actually is not only theories and concepts on DA, but also on practices of doing DA.

Surprisingly, students in the post-graduate program (S3) admitted that DA is a new thing for them. They said, "It is new for me". When I asked whether they

had learned it before, they said, “We never studied it before”. Another comment was “I have studied it but I did not know what DA was”. When I asked their reasons, they said that they only learned about theories, no methods or practices. One of them stated that the lecture of DA is only by dictating the theories, and no or less practices at all.

Because of these facts, they needed extra work to do it. One of the students told me that in their undergraduate program and master degree, they did not obtain enough information and skills in doing DA. When I assigned them to do tasks in DA, they said that it would be new experiences for them. However, it was also a challenging job.

Therefore, I got impressions that students thought that DA was a rather difficult subject. I guess that is because it is a new thing to study or because it requires a high level of analysis.

When I did my Ph.D at Anthropology Department at the Australian National University, I never realized that what I did was something relating to DA. My interest was in gender studies in relation to language use. Because I was in anthropological department, I needed to relate it to the anthropological cases. My background as a Bugis encouraged me to do more research on Bugis society although many people might think studies on it were not new anymore. However, I kept asking myself if I really knew everything about my Bugis life. In fact, at the end of my study, I just realized that there were still many things I did not know about my culture as Bugis.

All my supervisors were also interested in the study of Bugis. Due to my linguistic background, I needed to study something relating to linguistic aspects of Bugis people. I decided then to choose politeness. Although various studies had been conducted in this area, I was certain that I would do a lot of contributions to linguistic study as well as in historical and anthropological study through the study of politeness.

One year of my fieldwork made me busy with recording data. I had to go back to the university with plenty of data, spoken and written, on how Bugis people practice their politeness. I was busy in transcribing the data, especially the spoken data. Then when the panel supervisors asked for further activities, there were still many things to do regarding the data. However, I was happy when I finalized my work about linguistic politeness of Bugis people. Not only that, I acquired the knowledge and the skills of doing DA in linguistic politeness of Bugis people.

My impression is that DA is not actually difficult. It just needs hard working, not because it is difficult but because it has many details to be given a great attention. However, when ones start to do it, it will be a fantastic job. Now most of my research is done under the scope of DA.

I hope that this book will be beneficial for students programming the course of DA, either to master degree or doctorate degree. In writing this book, I accumulated some theories from available books, copied and read from the internet. I also provided examples of doing DA, either spoken or written. Some of them were taken from the students’ thesis that had been written based on DA and from journal articles that had been published. Some examples were also taken

from my study on Politeness in Bugis, a part of my Ph.D thesis. Because my intention is not only for doing DA in English language only, I also provide some examples from other languages, such as Bugis language and Indonesian language.

The book was written in six chapters. In the first chapter, I provide theories and concepts that readers need to have as a starting point in understanding DA. The second chapter is about some important concepts and approaches for DA. The third chapter is about the disciplines which become the scope of study in DA. Reading this chapter will give underlying ideas about what fields to be discussed in order to use and do DA. The fourth part is about the areas and issues in doing DA containing the setting or areas and the issues that may be taken as a focus in doing DA. The fifth part of the book is about the methods of doing DA, providing the steps in doing DA and aspects related to the process of collecting and analyzing the discourse data. The sixth chapter is examples of work in doing DA, which are very important as a model in doing DA. Exercises and examples of articles written in DA are also provided.

Since this is the first edition, I guess that the book is still far from being perfect. I still do the editing process and wish to provide better product in the next edition.

The Author,
Murni Mahmud, 26 November 2016

FOREWORD

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It is my privilege to introduce this book entitled “*Doing Discourse Analysis: An Introduction*”, written by Murni Mahmud, Professor in English Education Department, Faculty of Languages and Literature, State University of Makassar. Murni Mahmud is majoring in Anthropology Linguistics. She teaches some subjects in the area of Linguistics such as Sociolinguistics, Anthropology Linguistics, Morphology, Syntax, and Discourse Analysis (DA).

This book is expected to provide resources in the study of DA. This subject has become an important subject and has been chosen as a compulsory subject in the English Study Program, the Graduate Program, State University of Makassar. Plenty of books on DA are available, copied and obtained from e-books. This book at least provides good examples and good procedures in doing DA. What students need is also practices or strategies of applying DA.

Hopefully this book gives benefit in the study of DA. I expect that students in the Graduate Program, especially in English Study Program, can choose DA as one method in doing their research. With the increasing interest of qualitative research, hopefully this book may give introductory steps in doing DA.

Prof. Dr. H. Haryanto, M.Pd.

Chapter 5

Methods of Discourse Analysis

After exploring some of the concepts, disciplines, areas, and issues in doing Discourse Analysis (DA), I should come to another important aspect, which I consider as the most important part, that is the methods in doing DA. Theories and concepts in doing DA had been explored, then ways of doing it or methods are the next important idea. I should say that theory without practice is nothing, and therefore, what I explored in this chapter is the basic idea of directing the researcher or discourse analysts to do the DA in practice.

For that purpose, I divide this part into three important sections. The first section, which I entitle 'The Ground' is about the first step in doing DA, that is the identifications of problems for investigations. This includes the process of deciding the discipline, areas, and issues in doing DA. The second one is the data collections procedures covering some of the important aspects in collecting data. Forms or types of discourse need to be explained first as the compass in determining the focus, whether written or spoken. The third or the last section is some steps in process of analyzing, such as data selection, transcription, interpretation, and reporting.

5.1 The Ground

My conversation with one of the classes I taught DA become inspiration in this section. I had asked them to identify the topic for their DA project, by deciding the issue, discipline, and setting for exploration. Then I had asked to record based on these aspects. To my surprise, one of the students just came to the class with data of conversation that had been recorded, but did not know what to do with the recording. Then I said that it was not the recording that should be first provided in doing DA. Rather, before obtaining the recording for the data, problems of investigation should be known first. It is not the data that led them to problems, rather it is the problems that direct them to find suitable data.

They often said that they did not know what to do with the data. This happened because they did not identify the problems to be investigated. They just collected data, often very general data, but not specific data which became their purpose in their research. For example, when they decided to investigate spoken

interaction in the classroom, they directly recorded classroom interactions without specifying the particular aspects to investigate. Because of the plenty of data they have obtained, they got confused which one to choose. The ideal way is to decide first the problems, aspects to be investigated, locations to collect data, and how to collect data. These what, why, and how procedures can make them easy in data collections.

Consequently, it is necessary to define the ground by identifying the problems to be investigated. This is very important in order that researchers know exactly what to do in the field. It is important to bear in mind that DA is one method of doing research, especially qualitative research. Therefore, what is needed in other researches is also needed in doing DA such as problems of research, objectives of the research, and scope of the research.

Therefore, the research ground should be first determined. The first step can be by choosing the topic, under the scope of DA. When the topic is in your hand, the next task is to identify the problem. After that, disciplines, areas, and settings are located in relation to the topic. Next is the identification of the problem, which leads to know the gap between the things already happened and the things that are expected. Here it leads the researchers to find the exact problems. This is commonly known as problem statement, which is according to Evans (1996, p. 63), is the “context of the research, the reason it was worth tackling, the precursor to the research aim”.

Next is about the purposes of research. Of course, there is a purpose in doing DA. It is important to lay down the purposes of the research from the very beginning. The objectives of the research should be correlated with the raised problems. For example, if the topic is about “discourse markers in the classroom interaction”, decide first the main objectives. Is that to find out the types of discourse markers or is that to compare the different usages of teachers’ cohesive devices? Do not directly go to the classroom and record the teaching process. Otherwise, the recording will be out of order without any purposes.

Any benefits from the research? It is useless to do nothing! It is important to consider the importance of the research. One research without any significance is of course useless. What is the benefit of conducting the research and what are the contributions of your findings later to your study particularly and in general. There should be a follow up after getting the findings later and therefore it is necessary to specify the benefit or the main advantages of conducting the research.

When problems have been specified, the next activity is to propose research questions. These questions lead the research. Investigations are directed to answer those research questions. Therefore, the questions should be clear.

When the above matters have been fixed, the next task is to locate the references. Some readings are needed to obtain corresponding materials. The availability of the references is an important consideration to begin the research. Do not ever write about a topic when the references are not available. However, it should not be problems for students to find out appropriate references due to the availability of supporting references.

In doing DA, the above steps are very important. The choice of the topic, the identification of the problems, the purposes, and the significance, the research questions formulation, the references location are needed before collecting data. Otherwise, the data for the research will not be well-organized and not well directed. When the topic is clear, it is easier too to determine the discipline and the areas of the study. One example is as follows:

Topic: language usage by English teachers.

Disciplines: Sociolinguistics, Educations

Areas: Classroom interaction

Purposes:

- 1. to find out the types of languages used by English teachers*
- 2. to find out the reasons for various language usages of the teachers.*

Significance:

Important contributions for language teachers in the classroom in order to find out the suitable languages used in the classroom.

Research questions:

*what language used by English teachers in the classroom
what are their reasons for choosing those languages*

Looking at the above example, it can be seen that the project of doing DA will be in the classroom setting, under the discipline of sociolinguistics. The topics to investigate is about the language use focusing on two important aspects namely the types of language use and the reasons for using those types of language use. This information leads the researcher to decide the next steps in collecting data. He or she needs to collect data in the classroom by recording teachers' conversation in the class such as in teaching or in class discussion.

5.2 Data Collection

The ground of the research as explained previously will lead the researcher to decide the procedures of data collections. What to investigate? What kinds of data to

be taken, either written or spoken? and of course how to find or produce the data? As discussed in the previous chapter, there are two kinds of discourse data, namely spoken and written discourse. The decision of whether to take spoken or written discourse will be depending on the disciplines and the areas of the DA as discussed in the previous chapter as well.

5.2.1 *Types of Discourse Data*

There are two main types of discourse data, namely spoken and written. Spoken data can be obtained through the recordings of conversations in various situations. These spoken data need to be transcribed in the forms of text and therefore, they can be read and analyzed. Meanwhile, written data can be obtained from written or printed sources such as magazines, newspapers, etc. However, written will need transcription too.

McCarthy (1991, p. 12) states that DA classifies some types of spoken interactions as follows:

- (1) telephone calls (business and private),
- (2) service encounters (shops, ticket offices, etc),
- (3) interviews (jobs, journalistic, in official settings),
- (4) classroom (classes, seminars, lectures, tutorials),
- (5) rituals (church prayers, sermons, weddings),
- (6) monologues (speeches, stories, jokes),
- (7) language in action (talk accompanying doing: fixing, cooking, assembling, demonstrating, etc),
- (8) casual conversation (strangers, friends, intimates), and
- (9) organizing and directing (work, home, in the street)

However, DA also covers written discourse. As stated by McCarthy (1991, p. 12), data in the forms of written also become the areas of DA such as newspaper articles, letters, stories, recipes, instructions, notices, comics, billboards, leaflets, and so on. Wood and Kroger (2000, p. 68) classify two main types of discourse, namely spoken and written discourse.

Table 4: *Types of Discourse Data*

<i>Spoken Discourse</i>	<i>Written Discourse</i>
<i>Face to face interaction: home (including residential institutions); schools; offices or work sites; medical settings (hospitals, clinics, physician's offices, nursing homes); legal settings</i>	<i>Correspondence type: Letters; memoranda; messages; e-mail (including chat groups); questionnaires and written responses; requests for feedback such as by stores and airlines</i>

(police stations, courthouses, prisons); playgrounds (athletic clubs, tennis courts, golf courses); museums; theatres; cinemas; stores; restaurants; and street settings. In addition, activities can be household chores, recreational interactions, parties such as meals, meetings, coffee breaks, joint task, simulations or training exercises; medical interviews (discussions, meetings, questions and answer sessions, interviews, and other exchanges); classroom or seminar discussions, job talks, book clubs, focus groups; faculty meetings, community meetings, conferences, conventions; ordering and purchasing merchandise, trading at the stock exchange, auctions, talk at information-return-complaint counters; therapy sessions, medical consultations; talk show interviews or conversations; political debates; door-to-door campaigning, selling, soliciting of donations; colloquia, oral examinations; parliamentary question period, Senate hearings, press conference, courtroom and quasi-judicial proceedings such as professional associations); speeches, lectures, conference presentations; advertisements; opening and closing statements in courts of law; picketing; political demonstrations.

Telephone

Conference calls, calls to information, complaint, reservation order (services, merchandise) lines: interviews: surveys, polling, emergency (911) calls, telephone answering machine messages.

Media or other

television, film, documentaries, audio-videotaped correspondence, and messages

and responses.

Publications type:

Articles in magazine, newspapers, and journals (e.g. academic articles); books, book chapters; court judgements, statutes; contracts; policy documents, advertisements, notices, signs, announcements; minutes of meetings; files (e.g. for job candidates, graduate school applicants, and patients, including case notes made following examinations, interviews, etc); graffiti; calendars; brochures; manuals; letters to the editor; fictional work, namely novels, plays, short stories, television and film scripts, librettos, and poems

Unpublished written discourse:

Diaries, shopping lists, memos, notes; and work of fictions

Besides spoken and written data, there is also non-verbal data. This type of data can be seen in the analysis of non-verbal communication such as the use of gestures by the speakers in one communicative activity, teachers' eye contact and its effects on students' interaction, proxemics in the class, and so on.

5.2.2 *Methods of Producing Data*

There are many kinds of ways of producing data depending on the types of discourse to be investigated. Let us discuss some of them as follows:

5.2.2.1 *Recordings, Records, and Reports*

Talking about discourse is automatically referring to the language in use and not language in the abstract. Therefore, it refers to the words that were spoken and to the text that was written. Of course what it needed is the audio or video recording for spoken discourse whereas for written discourse, we need records (Wood and Kroger, 2000, p. 55).

It can be seen that recording and records are two potential sources of DA in which recordings are for spoken discourse and records for written discourse. Recording itself can be by audio recording by using tape recorder. In this case, the tape recorder can only catch verbal data. Video recording can record more than verbal interactions. It is then potential to get non-verbal interaction as well as verbal interaction by using video recording.

When doing the recordings, the issue of naturalness is extremely important. How to get natural recording on particular interaction? Often, researchers are hindered by the facts that they cannot produce natural recordings. Respondents, for example, are aware of being recorded and sometimes they pretend to act or perform like what are expected by researchers. In line with this idea, Wood & Kroger (2000) state that the concern for discourse is that the recording is "naturally occurring", which is not produced through "the instigation of the researcher" and therefore should be "unplanned or spontaneous" (p. 57). In addition, researchers should be aware that the recording can be affected by the process of recording, the presence of the researcher during the process, and so on.

Problems occur because researchers have to get the concerns from the respondents. It is beyond the ethical reasons for recording people without their concerns. Respondents do need to know that they are being recorded and of course they need to know the reasons. Researchers cannot hide the recordings. However,

respondents do not need to know the details of what to record. For example, when I did my research, my intention was to record speakers' politeness practices. Some of the informants only knew that I did research on Bugis culture. They did not indeed know the detail of the study. A few times of the recording, informants were aware that they were being recorded. However, when the recording had been conducted for many times, informants became accustomed to it and did not care anymore about the recording.

Therefore, researchers need some strategies in order to get a natural recording. The audio or video recording which last for 5 to 10 minutes may not be used as data because this duration of the recording is potentially unnatural. Researchers need to select data from the recording that last after 10 minutes.

By applying participant observation in which researchers are getting closer interactions with respondents, researchers may be able to produce natural recordings. Often fieldwork needs at least one year or more than one year to conduct research. Few months of the fieldwork are needed by researchers to get familiar with respondents, so that respondents still aware of being recorded but researchers can get natural recordings (see 2.2.3 about ethnography of communication in chapter 3).

When I did my fieldwork for my Ph.D studies, I did not get difficulties to get natural recordings. My background as Bugis helped me to interact with the local community. My respondents still knew that they were going to be recorded. But, they did not know details of my purposes. Some intended recordings were obtained but I applied good selections among the recordings.

In order to control the data recordings, it is important to pay attention to high fidelity. Wood and Kroger (2000, p. 56) state that, "the recordings of spoken discourse must be of high fidelity; that is, it must correspond as closely as possible to the discourse". Therefore, researchers need to guarantee that the recordings take the data that become the purpose of the research.

One problem may occur due to the usage of the recordings equipment. Often respondents keep talking about how well or how modern the equipment used by the researchers. In this way, researchers need to do data selection later. In addition, it is suggested that researchers do not use unusual equipment that is not familiar to respondents, especially when collecting data in remote areas. However, it cannot be denied that the use of those recording equipment may attract the attentions especially for villagers. It is necessary to be aware as well that there will be many people who

want to be recorded although they are not target respondents. For this purpose, researchers need to adjust with the situations.

Besides recordings, data can be collected based on the reports. Reports are “a recollection of what was said by researchers or other observers” (Wood and Kroger, 2000, p. 55). These kinds of reports are not considered as valuable resources. What is needed is the sources that can be examined repeatedly, that is the recordings and the products of the recordings, or records.

5.2.2.2 Archives

Archives refer to collections of any documentaries. These are potential sources for discourse as they contain different types of discourse pertaining to the same topic, for example, interviews, speeches, and conversations. Wood and Kroger (2000) identify some examples of documents from archives as follows:

1. Documentaries and recordings of drama, comedy, news, public affairs, and talk shows provided by the library
2. Written documents (policy, legal statutes) as well as recording conversations such as emergency calls, telephone inquiries by government departments
3. Copies of correspondence or of audiotapes of telephone calls by private companies and organizations such as telephone companies, consumer organization, airlines, etc.
4. Audiotapes of training procedures in various educational institutions, government programs, and private industries such as simulations of physician-patient interactions, the training of customer service representatives, therapy conducted by apprentice clinicians

(p. 71).

5.2.2.3 Interviews

Interviews have very important roles in doing DA. They are used frequently as supporting method to elicit data. For example, when recordings have been performed, it is necessary to interview the respondents being recorded about the results of the recordings. When doing written DA, for example, analyzing narrative texts, interviews are needed to acquire clear explanations for written texts.

It is important to know the differences between interviews in doing DA and general interviews that might have been familiar with the readers. As noted by Wood

and Kroger, differences lie on theories and procedures. Interviews in DA is just similar to interviews in qualitative research in which they apply open ended questions and that the answers are not expected to be more specified. In DA, interviewers are trying to probe more possible answers and expect to encourage participants to speak fully (2000, p. 72). Potter and Wetherell (1987, p. 164) emphasize that the interviewer should try “to generate interpretative contexts in such a way that the connections between the interviewee’s accounting practice and variations in functional context become clear”.

5.2.2.4 Experiments

Experiments can be conducted for doing DA for some reasons. It can be used by a researcher who is not an interviewer or other sort of interactant. In this way, participants are assigned to different conditions because such experiments tend to involve inappropriate comparisons and quantitative analysis and to obscure variability both between and within participants. Researchers may wish to bring participants together to discuss a particular topic or to carry out a specific task. The interaction may be dyadic or in the form of a focus or discussion group (Wood and Kroger, 2000, p. 74).

5.3 Data Analysis

In doing the analysis, it is important to have good preparation. Of course, the data should be there for analysis. For examples, data for spoken language have been in the forms of audio or video recordings. Probably, there are a lot of cassettes containing the recordings of spoken language. For written language, for example, data in the form of written or printed have been collected. The questions may be whether all of those data are taken or just a part of them. In this case, there should be a process of data selection and sampling procedures.

5.3.1 Selecting Data

As explained before, data for spoken language should be kept natural. Spontaneous recordings can be used altogether but for intended recordings, data selections need to be made such as just choose the recording that last after 5 to 10 minutes.

Next is about the appropriateness of the data. It needs to question whether the data selected suitable with the purpose of the research. Therefore, it might be useful to keep aside some of unimportant or inappropriate data. In this way, sampling is the next consideration in order to take representative data. Wood and Kroger (2000, p 78) emphasize that “sample should be relevant to or representative of the phenomenon of interest”. Potter and Wetherell (1987) emphasize that the interest in DA is not on language users but in language use. The units of analysis in DA are absolutely on texts or parts of texts and not on participants. Therefore, more concerns on the text availability rather than the number of participants.

It is important to consider the size of the sample as it may be time consuming. Wood and Kroger (2000, p. 80) state that the discourse transcription and analysis is sometime time-consuming. Therefore, there should be relatively limited number of samples. When doing research on turn-taking, for example, a single conversation might be sufficient to yield a large number of instances of turn-taking rather than many conversations but limited number of utterances.

5.3.2 Transcription

When data have been selected based on the above criteria, the next step is preparation for analysis. One step to be done for spoken language is transcription which refers to the “transformation of spoken discourse into a written form that is fully amenable to analysis and available for inclusion in the report of the research” (Wood and Kroger, 2000, p. 82).

Transcription is very important in doing DA, especially in doing spoken discourse. Transcription makes the spoken discourse data readable. Often the spoken language from the recordings is not good language and therefore need to be transcribed. Wood and Kroger (2000, p. 82) comment that transcription is needed because it is difficult to keep the features of discourse in mind while listening to the data. Hutchby and Wooffitt, (1998, p. 92) confirms that transcription is required in order that a record of the data can be made available to others for checking the analysis and also for reanalysis. Edwards (2001, p. 321) also stresses the function of transcription which is invaluable as it provides “a distillation of the events of an interaction”.

In doing the transcription, it is important to pay attention to details of spoken interactions such as pauses, intonation, overlap, interjection, silences, vowel quality,

pitch, etc. These may apply symbols for transcriptions. Some symbols for transcriptions used for conversations are as follows:

- . Final intonation contour (usually a low falling pitch).
- , Continuing intonation contour (level, or slight rise).
- ? Appeal intonation contour (sharp rise in pitch).
- Truncated/abandoned Intonation Unit.
- Truncated word.
- @ One pulse of laughter.
- % Glottal stop.
- .. Short pause (less than roughly 0.8 seconds)
- ... Long pause (longer than roughly 0.8 seconds)
- <@ words @> Words are spoken while laughing; can also be written @word @word @word.
- <X words X> Uncertain transcription.
- (text) explaining what the conversation/the turn is about
- [text] giving the literal meaning of the conversations
- (text) (text) indicating interjections

(adapted from Du Bois et al, 1993, pp. 45-90)

In addition, Edwards (2001, p. 330) offers some aspects to be noted in doing the transcription in order to be effective tool to reveal the corresponding meaning in the discourse data. Some of them are words, units of analysis, pauses, prosody, rhythm and coordination, turn-taking and nonverbal aspects and events.

5.3.3. *Interpreting*

In doing the interpretation, DA requires “a particular orientation to texts, a particular frame of mind” (Wood and Kroger, 2000, p. 91). Therefore, careful examinations on texts are needed to get the thread of the discourse. Some steps to be followed in doing the interpretations are explained here:

1. As you read through a text, ask yourself how you are reading it and why you are reading in this way. In this process, try to do some exercises such as identifying the features of the text and the devices that are employed that produce the reading
2. Do not ignore the obvious. This is a good step to start. It is important to note that the point of DA is not to generate esoteric accounts of interpretation, documents, and so on, but to show precisely how the features of the discourse make particular readings or reactions possible, plausible, and understandable.
3. It is important to note that the focus on the literal meaning of an utterance or text may be the least helpful analytic strategy. Therefore, it is highly

recommended to concentrate on what the speaker or writer is doing, how the segment is related to other segments, and so on.

4. Think about what is not there in both content and form
5. Consider whether the critical issue is that something which is included, not what it is.
6. Play with the text, by looking at the possibilities if a particular item (word or phrases) were omitted, or phrased differently, consider the substitutions or combination with some other items.
7. Look carefully at how text is structured, shaped, and ordered in both individual segments and overall, because structures are ways of achieving both content and function.
8. Be alert for multiple functions of discourse, which may not be clearly seen in the topic, content, structure, and so on in initial readings.
9. It may also be useful to forget that what is doing is in terms of DA
10. Realize that there are not always appropriate terms available for describing discourse and naming its function, and therefore, it is possible to develop new terms or new concepts for discourse devices and functions
11. Categorization is not only an activity of the analyst; rather participants themselves construct and use categories for various reasons
12. In order to focus on variation and adopt a comparative stance, adopt a questioning stance, that is take nothing for granted. Adopt strategy of reversal such as treating problems as solutions, solutions as problems, strength as weakness.
13. Be familiar with the language. The more familiar with the language and how it is used, the more sensitive will be the analysis to do. Discourse analyst need to know and be familiar with the language.
14. All of the ideas will constitute the analytical resources. Therefore, it is not only about how to come up with the patterns, interpretations, and so on, but also how to justify the identification of the pattern and how to ground the interpretation
15. Finally, permit yourself to be analysts, that is to do sort of interpretative work involved in analysis, in generating results.

(cited in Wood and Kroger, 2000, pp. 91-95)

In addition to the above explanation, Wood and Kroger (2000) offer some strategies for doing interpretation in the discourse. The first one is *substitution*, by considering which utterance could be substituted for other utterances in the issue, such as substituting *like* with *for example*. The second one is *reframing*, which involves questioning the kinds of categories deployed by participants in terms of the nature of the categories themselves, such as considering how utterances are referred to as metaphorical categories. The third one is by looking at *multiple functions*, by looking at the possible hierarchical and sequential organization of the talk. For example, one utterance ‘good morning’ can be categorized as greeting or can also function as criticism for students who come late to the class. The fourth one is by looking at the *content*, more specifically the subject matter, or what the participants are talking about. Next the fifth one is by looking at the *participants’ meaning*, or the participants’ interpretation of a particular utterance or set of utterances, that is the meaning given to the utterance. The last, but not the least is by underlying the *similarities and differences* in the meanings or potential inconsistencies or contradictories surrounding the text (pp. 107-111).

5.3.4 Reporting

The last is report the work of DA. Like other types of research paper, the writing of the work in DA also needs to follow the general conventions of research writing. Some parts need to be written in the report, such as methodology section, results, and also the discussion.

An important point in writing the report is the demonstration of the data (Wood and Kroger, 2000, p. 183). This is basically presenting one or more discourse excerpts or extracts followed by detailed interpretation as a part of the analysis. In this case, *excerpt* is more precise than other possible terms, which is picked out from the text. Another term is *extract*, which can be used, although it does not necessarily refer to text and may suggest an inappropriate concentration of that which is extracted. The term *example* is avoided as it implies that the analysis was completed previously (behind the scenes as it were) and is simply being reported it. *Excerpts* serve as a clue that the analysts have active roles in both analysis and write-up, not only finding and reporting (Ibid).

How to select the excerpts in the writing? The basic answer is not about the number, but on the representation of the excerpts based on the raised problems. Wood

and Kroger (2000, p. 165) state that “excerpts are selected with an eye to the possibilities of intertextual analysis”. In any particular analysis, few excerpts of one type and large numbers on another, it can also be selected based on diversity.

5.4 Summary

Some important methods in doing DA had been discussed in this part, with the main intention is to provide basic strategies to apply theories of DA that had been discussed in the previous parts. Like other kinds of research, doing DA follow some rules in doing the research such as problem identification, data collection, data analysis, and finally writing the report based on the research.

It is worthwhile to consider the types of discourse to be investigated after designing the problems, which then lead the researcher to locate the settings, the issues, and the potential topics to observe. Later, choices of data collection are available such as by recordings, interviews, or possibly by examining the existing recordings.

Analysis is then the next step followed by the reporting. In this case, the role of transcription is very important as the basic sources of data to investigate. Both written and spoken discourse requires transcription as the source for analysis. Later, in the writing of the report, taking extracts or the best term excerpts from the transcription is demanded as the next step to demonstrate the findings that had been interpreted.

5.5 Questions for Discussion

1. With the topic that you had chosen in the previous chapter, can you decide the research design for you to conduct your mini research in DA?
2. Record conversations in relation to the topic and transcribed. Discuss in the class.
3. analyze the conversations that you had transcribed
4. Examine the following text:

S: power is something...something who can make people to do something ee if something who can make something change, I think we can make power, according to me. How about you?

H: *e kau e..(asking her friend to speak)*

P: according to me, power ee is just the same as what you say just now, how people, how people, how people do something, so the point is how people can influence in other society. How about you?

H: *apa, kau mo deh..kau mo dulu*

W: language and age, language and social status, gender, ee I think, this is, this is the point of the power that ee, the point is, there are..

- P: so but ee
W: the power is
P: what does the power mean?
W: something that can influence us
S: the same
W: yeah
S: we can have conclusion that power is something that can have influence to do something. We can continue about language.
(break)
M: what is the relation between language and power?
S: Language and power is that the place ee someone can understand what, what I e e e
M: you can use Indonesian
S: what the power *itu adalah bagaimana seseorang mentransfer apa yang dia inginkan pada orang lain, bagaimana caranya ia meyakinkan apa yang dia maksudkan pada orang lain*
M: *oke, kita pindah ke Evi*
E: *jawaban saya sama dengan teman saya, ee language and power is , the personal, the personal is able to transfer e e the personal the personal mean for the other people.*
M: how to your transfer your opinion to other people, that is power.
(Data recorded by Murni Mahmud)

What can you do in relation to the above text? Explain in relation to DA, conversation analysis, or content analysis!

Chapter 6

Samples of Analysis in Discourse

I finally come to this part of the book, in which I would like to give examples of work analyzed under the work of Discourse Analysis (DA). After exploring some previous concepts, theories, and methods, my next concern is to provide examples of work in DA.

In this following part, I then present some work in DA that I collected from several resources such as from journal articles that had been published. Some of them are from students' work of thesis that had gone through the final examination. For this purpose, I only take some of the issues, namely politeness, conversational implicature, code-switching, and speech acts. These issues were analyzed in some settings and different disciplines. Politeness issues studied in this example was analyzed in the discipline of linguistic anthropology and in education. The settings were different. One was in one of the communities (Mahmud, 2008) and another one in classroom context (Senowarsito, 2013). Conversational implicature was studied under the scope of pragmatics in mass media setting, that is in one of the television programs (Nanda, Sukyadi, & Sudarsono, 2012). Code-switching and speech acts were analyzed in classroom setting under the scope of sociolinguistics and educations by Purnawan (2014) and Uspayanti (2015).

6.1 Politeness

Politeness study has attracted attention of many scholars in different disciplines. Politeness is usually studied under the scope of sociolinguistics, anthropolinguistics, as well as pragmatics. Analysis will rely on the politeness strategies applied by the speakers. The following examples are taken from my studies about politeness. One of them is about politeness in Bugis society, which was studied under the discipline of Linguistic Anthropology (Mahmud, 2008).

In discussing about politeness, Mahmud (2008) discussed some strategies of Bugis people in expressing their politeness. One of them was the use of pronoun choices. For analysis, conversations among several speakers were recorded, transcribed, and brought into analysis. The main concern was to show the use of

pronoun choices influenced by the social status of the speakers as seen in the following examples:

Extract 1: Suggestion to talk

Puang Aji Masi was talking to Puang Aji Semma (PAS, 50). Both of them are hajj and noble. PAS did not know what to talk about as I recorded them and PAM suggested talking about the time she went to Cempalagi, a hamlet in Awangpone.

PAS: *aga lo' ubicara?*

'what should I talk about?'

PAM: *awwé, akkedako poléna' Cempalagi*

'awwé, you say I have just come from Cempalagi [a hamlet in Awangpone]'

PAM used the second person pronoun *-ko* in *akkedako* instead of the first plural inclusive pronoun *-ki* in *akkedaki*. This direct use of the second person *-ko* by PAM to PAS is acceptable because the interlocutors are of similar status and are close relatives and neighbours. This familiarity encouraged PAM to use the familiar pronoun *-ko*. Compare with the following extract when she was talking to Hunaeda (50), a woman selling fish with no hajj and noble status in rural area.

(Mahmud, 2008)

In discussing about the influence of social status towards the choices of pronouns, the writer presented some extracts from the transcription in different points of views. In extract 1, for example, the writer presented the conversation between speakers of the same age and the same social status, allowing readers to know the way the speakers used pronoun choices influenced by the same age and the same social status. The writer used initials PAM (Puang Aji Masi) and PAS (Puang Aji Semma) in the transcription. Before coming to the conversation, the writer explained the speakers. The age was also provided as seen in (PAM, 50) or (PAS, 50). To identify the pronoun types the speakers used, the writer used italics in the pointing expressions such as "*akkedako*". This functions for the writer as well as the readers to know the stressing point in the conversation which is later identified as the types of pronoun chosen by the speakers. In explaining about this pronoun choice, the writer compared to the more polite pronoun as expressed in the word "*akkedaki*". The writer stated:

PAM used the second person pronoun *-ko* in *akkedako* instead of the first plural inclusive pronoun *-ki* in *akkedaki*.

(Mahmud, 2008)

Discussion continued by pointing out the reasons for the use of that type of pronoun. It can be seen that the reasons explained here is seen from the context.

This direct use of the second person *-ko* by PAM to PAS is acceptable because the interlocutors are of similar status and are close relatives and neighbours.
(Mahmud, 2008)

Since the two speakers were the same age and social status, familiarity can be implied from them which then caused them to use less polite pronoun in Bugis. The writer stated “This familiarity encouraged PAM to use the familiar pronoun *-ko*”. For comparison, the writer presented extract 2 about the conversation of the high social status woman with the lower status woman, allowing analysis on the way the interlocutors used pronoun choices influenced by the social status differences.

Extract 2: Asking a female fish seller

PAM was talking to a female of similar age but different social status, Hunaeda (H, 50), a commoner without any hajj or noble status. Hunaeda was selling shrimps and prawns to PAM.

PAM:*magi Hunaeda?*

‘what’s the matter with it [i.e. you], Hunaeda?’

H: *nulléna*

‘how can this be’

PAM:*nulléna@@. Balaceng ibalu’*

‘how can this be? [We] sell shrimps’

H: *lo ‘ki’ melliwi?*

‘are we [i.e. you] going to buy some?’

PAM:*tassiawaé’ loppanutu?*

‘how much is a cup of those prawns of yours anyway?’

H: *duwa sitengnga, Aji*

‘two and a half [two thousand five hundred rupiahs], Aji’

(Mahmud, 2008)

The explanation for the above extract as a result of the interpretation can be seen as follows:

Although they are familiar as close neighbours, are of similar age and have been friends since a young age, the different status PAM has as hajj and noble encourages the non-reciprocal use of pronouns. PAM used the familiar possessive pronoun *-nu* when she was asking about the price of the prawns, *tassiawaé’ loppanutu?* ‘how much is a cup of those prawns of yours?’. Conversely, Hunaeda used the distant pronoun *-ki*’ in *lo ‘ki’ melliwi?* ‘are we [i.e. you] going to buy some?’. This shows the asymmetrical relations among the interlocutors are influenced by their status differences.

(Mahmud, 2008)

It can be seen that there are different ways of choosing pronoun in extract 1 and extract 2. The lower status woman in extract 2 used polite pronoun to address the high social status woman which can not be seen in extract 1. Like extract 1, the writer put the expressions in underlined as indicators of the stressing points of the discussion. The polite pronoun *-ki*’ in “*lo ‘ki’ melliwi?*” was used by H in extract 2 compare to

the less polite pronoun of *nu* in “*tassiawaé’ loppanutu?*”. Since these different expressions were used by two women of different status, the writer could infer as the expressions caused by the social status differences.

Discussion in extract 1 and 2 allow us to know the pronoun choices used by speakers influenced by gender differences, and for comparison, the writer then presented extract 3 and 4 below:

Extract 3: Asking an older fisherman

PAM was talking to Mardi (M, 65), an older fisherman without any hajj or noble status. She was asking about Mardi’s daily activities as a fisherman.

PAM: *dé’ munno’ tasi’ é?*

‘didn’t you go to the sea [fishing]?’

M: *ba, polémuwa..*

‘yes, I have been..’

PAM: *dé’ ga muwala?*

‘didn’t you catch anything [fish or any other seafood]?’

M: *kamuwa na..*

‘yes [there are] some but..’

PAM asked Mardi using the familiar pronoun *mu-* in all of her questions above: *dé’ munno’ tasi’ é* ‘didn’t you go to the sea [fishing]?’ and *dé’ ga muwala?* ‘didn’t you take anything [fish or any other seafood]?’ Like extract 2 above, this extract also shows an asymmetrical relation between the speakers influenced by their status differences. Although Mardi is older, and male, because of the high status of PAM, Mardi was addressed using the familiar pronoun

(Mahmud, 2008)

As seen in extract 3, the female speaker, PAM, used less polite pronoun *mu-* to the male speaker of lower status but used more polite pronoun *i-*. In explaining the pronouns used by the speakers, the writer put the expressions in underlined and quoted again in the analysis.

Extract 4: The mosque donation

PAM was talking to an older male with high status since he is a hajj and noble, Puang Aji Akil (PAA, 64), who is also a close relative and neighbour. At the time, they were talking about the money owned by the mosque.

PAA: *ko mabbicara makkeda iya’ malamanengngi, tappa uti’ maneng lao masigi’ é*
‘if [someone] accused me of taking all [the money], then I would take [the money] directly to the mosque’

PAM: *iti’ maneng lo’ka masigi’ é?*

‘we [i.e. you] took all [the money] to the mosque, didn’t we [i.e. you]?’

PAM used a polite device *i-* in *iti*’ instead of using *mu-* in *muti*’ which would have been expressed in the utterance: *muti’ maneng lokka masigi’ é*. This extract shows the use of the first person plural inclusive agent marker as a generic marker, where no direct reference to a first person agent is entailed. It is used to refer to a second person agent, PAA, and it made her more distant and polite. This extract also shows that although both speakers are familiar, being close relatives and neighbours and have similar status as hajj and noble, pronoun choice is influenced by age and sex differences.

(Mahmud, 2008)

The same case can be seen in extract 4. Indeed, the writer compared the expressions in less polite to the more polite one by saying “PAM used a polite device *i-* in *iti*’ instead of using *mu-* in *muti*”. In addition, the use of reference as a way of analysing can be seen in the above extract discussion.

This extract shows the use of the first person plural inclusive agent marker as a generic marker, where no direct reference to a first person agent is entailed. It is used to refer to a second person agent, PAA, and it made her more distant and polite
(Mahmud, 2008)

More interpretation can be seen in the analysis. Based on the context of speaking, as well as the interpretation of the speakers and the setting of communication, the writer interpreted as follows:

This extract also shows that although both speakers are familiar, being close relatives and neighbours and have similar status as hajj and noble, pronoun choice is influenced by age and sex differences
(Mahmud, 2008)

The two extracts above showed the comparison of the ways the female speaker of high status talked to male of lower status in extract 3 but to man of the same status in extract 4. It can be seen that there is much influence of social status on the ways the same woman used the pronoun regardless of the gender differences. She used less polite pronoun to man of lower status although she is younger but to the man of the same status and the same age, she then used more polite pronoun, showing an influence of gender differences.

Overall, the presentations of the four extracts above can represent the ideas of using pronoun as a way of showing politeness which is influenced by social status, age, and gender differences. The writer then wrote as follows:

Therefore, based on the four extracts above, PAM used familiar pronouns and distant pronouns to different interlocutors. The first important aspect is familiarity. Talking to a speaker who is closely related and a neighbour as well as being a similar age and status encouraged her to use familiar pronouns. With Hunaeda in extract 2, PAM also used a familiar pronoun. In her conversation with Mardi in extract 3, status seem the main determinant because Mardi is older and a male. When she was talking to PAA in extract 4, she used different pronouns. Although PAA was also her close relative and neighbour and has a status as high as PAA as hajj and noble, she uses the more distant pronoun because PAA was an older male with high status.

(Mahmud, 2008)

Another example of work of DA in politeness is in classroom setting (Senowarsito, 2013). In this study, politeness was viewed as practices in classroom interaction. Politeness was studied in classroom setting under the scope of sociolinguistics and pragmatics using theory of Brown and Levinson (1987).

Senowarsito (2013), for example, focused on strategies of politeness by teachers and students. In the theory of Brown and Levinson (1987), four strategies were promoted, namely positive politeness, negative politeness, off record, bald on record. To collect data, he recorded two 90-minute English lessons in a senior high school. The data were video-recorded from two different classroom settings where English is the object and the medium of teaching learning process. He transcribed and analyzed the polite expressions based on the theory of Brown and Levinson (1987). He found three important strategies, namely positive politeness, negative politeness, and bald-on record strategies. Discussion of the excerpts was presented in these three main findings. Let us have a look on the first finding, that is positive politeness strategies below:

Positive Politeness Strategies

- (1) Teacher : Okay, good morning, class.
Some students : Good morning, ma'am.
Teacher : How are you today?
Some Students : I am fine, and you?
Teacher : I am not good.
Student (female) : hwow!
Student (male) : Hwow!

(Senowarsito, 2013)

- (2) Teacher : Yea ... okay, so far any questions?
Students : (no answer)
Teacher : Hello...?
Students : Hello ... Ma'am.
Teacher : Any question?
Students : No ... Ma'am.

(Senowarsito, 2013)

The two excerpts above were intended to show examples of positive politeness strategies, as one strategy of politeness. Senowarsito (2013) presented two excerpts above and pointed the strategy of politeness strategies by the use of greetings, which is categorized as the use of in-group identity marker, one strategy proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987). In referring to the first extract, he said:

Excerpt (1) is an example of a student-teacher conversation in the classroom interaction.

(Senowarsito, 2013)

The analysis can be seen as follows: It can be identified that both students and teacher in opening session employed positive politeness strategies as in strategy 4: Use in-group identity markers (Brown and Levinson 1987, pp.107-108). It was done by using group identity marker "class" for calling students, and the students use "ma'am" to call a female teacher who was considered as a respectable person. Calling "class" instead of "children" or "students" could be categorized as a positive politeness strategy, that is, teacher did not position herself as the more powerful or keep a distance from students. The strategy was to reduce the threat of face (of dignity) of students. Similarly, referring to "ma'am" for female teacher, the students gave respect and feel close to the teacher as well. This set of data indicates that the two parties have good emotional relationship. This was further demonstrated in the utterance 'I'm fine, and you?' 'I'm not good' and followed by an expression of sympathy 'hwoow' from the students. This expression is done with exaggerated intonation, stress and some aspects of prosodic to show sympathy (Brown and Levinson 1987, p.104). In addition, because of the limitations of utterances to express something, it was possible to express politeness non-verbally. Non-verbal forms of politeness were shown by the teacher walking over towards students with a friendly facial expression. This form of politeness was also expressed by the students by responding to the teacher's greeting enthusiastically. The teachers' perception on learner-centered concept in teaching learning process influenced the teachers' perception of the need to employ politeness strategies. Student-centered activities gave students opportunities to participate and interact in the class. The teacher thought that it was a must for a teacher to be emotionally close to the students. It would help him/her to communicate with students. Because of the students' cultural background, teacher was still placed as a respected elder person and institutionally teacher was the single authority in teaching learning process in the class. The finding shows that the teachers and students felt that the power difference between them was quite small, but the students give respect to the teachers.

(Senowarsito, 2013)

Senowarsito used a method of reference to discuss the types of positive politeness strategies used by the teachers and students in the study. This can be seen the the third line above:

It was done by using group identity marker "class" for calling students, and the students use "ma'am" to call a female teacher who was considered as a respectable person. Calling "class" instead of "children" or "students" could be categorized as a positive politeness strategy, that is, teacher did not position herself as the more powerful or keep a distance from students (line 3)

(Senowarsito, 2013)

To strengthen the analysis, the writer interpreted the utterances produced in the excerpts as indicators of positive politeness strategies of Brown and Levinson that can be seen in the following statement (line 8 above):

The strategy was to reduce the threat of face (of dignity) of students. Similarly, referring to "ma'am" for female teacher, the students gave respect and feel close to the teacher as well. This set of data indicates that the two parties have good emotional relationship. This was further demonstrated in the utterance 'I'm fine, and you?' 'I'm not good' and followed by an expression of sympathy 'hwoow' from the students. This expression is done with exaggerated intonation, stress and some aspects of prosodic to show sympathy (Brown and Levinson 1987, p. 104).

(Senowarsito, 2013)

The same case can be seen in the way he interpreted excerpt 2 as another example of positive politeness strategies as seen below:

Excerpt (2) shows that the social distance and the power inequality of the students and the teachers were small. It can be seen from the students' response on the teacher's directing student's attention 'Hello..?', they responded by repeating the same expression 'Hello..' followed by personal marker 'Ma'am'. It means that the students felt close to the teacher but still gave respect to her.

(Senowarsito, 2013)

The roles of context in interpretation can be clearly seen in excerpt 2 when the writer examined the use of "hello" by both speakers. The writer interpreted as the signal of close relationships among the speakers, which is also categorized as positive politeness strategies adapted from Brown and Levinson (1987).

The two excerpts presented by Senowarsito above are examples of positive politeness strategies used by teachers and students in the class. Since this discussion is about positive politeness, Senowarsito continued to present more excerpts regarding negative politeness strategies used by teachers and students. Other excerpts of conversation were demonstrated by Senowarsito to show other politeness strategies, that is negative politeness, used by the teachers and students in the study as seen as follows:

Negative Politeness Strategies

Negative politeness strategies are intended to avoid giving offense by showing deference. These strategies include questioning, hedging, and presenting disagreements as opinions (Brown and Levinson, 1987). Excerpt (9) was an example of one of the occasions where the teacher softened his direct expression with the conventionally polite expression '*please*'.

(9) Teacher : The first speaker. Come on. Please come here.

(Senowarsito, 2013)

In discussing strategies of negative politeness strategies, Senowarsito put the excerpt above by pointing that the use of *please* can indicate the negative politeness of the teacher. He then continued by analyzing other excerpts that show negative politeness as see below:

In Excerpt (10), teacher tried to modify direct expression with polite expression in order to attempt to avoid a great deal of imposition on the students. She used expression '*a little*' to lessen the imposition by implying that the students were not asked to do very much.

(10) Teacher : e...e..e.. yea! Before we start our class today, I would like to review a little about err..err..err.. the materials we have discussed together. Hmm.. do you still remember the...err...err...readers' letter
Students : Yes ..!!!

Another strategy that was often used as a negative politeness strategy to emphasize both the speaker's and the addressee's personal involvement in the matter was creating imperative expression. The teacher used modifying elements and politeness markers in his talk. He expressed his request to the student in a polite way by using the word '*please*'. A common way in which the teacher softened her requests, the teacher first used the affirmative form to satisfy a request; then, she lessened the power of the message by creating an impression of option, in that sense serving as a politeness device, as in the excerpt (11).

(11) Teacher : Ok,... yeah! err..err..err because now we are err..err..err.. we talk to the ..you know the writing cycle. So, it's time for you to

(Senowarsito, 2013)

It can be seen that Senowarsito's work in this article show analysis of discourse. Using the taxonomy of Brown and Levinson (1987), he analyzed some strategies of teachers and students in the classroom interaction and found some expressions to be polite.

6.2 Conversational Implicature

Conversation implicature is one of the topics discussed under the scope of pragmatics using Gricean Cooperative principle. A definition by Widdowson (2007, p. 128) best explain about conversational implicature, that is “meaning that is not explicitly expressed but implied by the violation of the cooperative principle”.

The cooperative principle was proposed by Grice as ‘a shared assumption by the parties in a conversation that they will co-operate with each other for the purpose of their talk by keeping to certain conversational maxim’. According to Grice, there are four maxims. The first one is the quantity maxim, which is the amount of information provided. The second is the quality maxim, which is about the truth. The third is the relation maxim, which relates to relevance. The last one is the manner maxim, the maxim that shows how to express (cited in Widdowson (2007, p. 130).

In the following example, the writers, Nanda et al., (2012) examined the conversations of one TV program in one TV station in Indonesia. The writer took the episode XXII of the show purposively as sample. Qualitative method was employed in processing the transcription of the 204 recorded implicature data. The intended features were identified, classified, calculated and then separately analyzed based on conversational implicature theory proposed by Grice (1975). One of the examples is as follows:

- C: Kami kembali untuk anda, pemirsa setia kami di *Take Me Out Indonesia*. Ini saatnya menghadirkan pria single kedua. Namun, sebelumnya kita nyalakan lampu mereka dulu. Nyala! (Sound of the turned-off lamps) Satu pendatang baru langsung menemukan pasangannya. Ini harusnya jadi motivasi, lagi penggerak buat para senior. Ayo lebih giat lagi mencari. Mungkin pria single kedua yang akan memikat hati anda. Tunjukkan dirimu! <music> Bro. Selamat malam, Bro.
- R: Selamat malam, Choky

In expression “*Ini harusnya jadi motivasi, lagi penggerak buat para senior.*” (“This should be a motivation and driving force for the seniors.”), the phrase “the seniors” implies that if there are seniors there must be also juniors. It can be said that the word junior is the opposite of the word senior. In this case, the word refers to the participants who have participated earlier and latter in the program.

(Nanda et al., 2012)

In analyzing the conversation of the speaker (C), Nanda et al took one sequence of C’s utterance followed by the response of R as the second speaker. Nanda

et al. quoted one of the expressions of C as the speaker: “*Ini harusnya jadi motivasi, lagi penggerak buat para senior.*”

The expression above becomes the main point of the discussion, that is the type of conversational implicature, (that is to imply the opposite). The writer then interpreted that expression as one form of conversational implicatures, proposed by Gricean’ cooperative principle. Note that the writers used the word ‘implies’ to show that they interpreted the conversation in the context. Also they used the word ‘refers’ to show the referring terms in the text. To compare with another conversational implicature, the writer took another excerpt:

C: Inilah awal perjumpaan yang saya katakan, dimana awal perjumpaan kita tadi, Pemirsa. Semua dimulai dari pandangan pertama. Pendatang baru kita minggu ini di *Take Me Out Indonesia* serius mencari pasangan mapan dan kamu adalah tipe pria yang dia cari. Pria ini bergerak super cepat, Pemirsa. Dan dia memilih pendatang baru kita malam ini, Elsa, sang wiraswasta otomotif dan pengusaha catering. <music> Hello, Elsa. Selamat, Bro atas pilihan anda.
H: Thank you

(Nanda et al., 2012)

In analyzing another conversational implicature, Nanda et al (2012) took another excerpt above and analyzed by the following way:

In expression, “*Pendatang baru kita minggu ini di Take Me Out Indonesia serius mencari pasangan mapan dan kamu adalah tipe pria yang dia cari.*” (“Our new comer this week in *Take Me Out Indonesia* seriously looks for a settled soul mate and you are a kind of man she is looking for.”), the phrase “new comer” refers to the female participant who stands behind the podium. The literal opposite of the word „new“ is „old“. „Old“ in this context does not refer to the scales of age but to the time when the event took place. The words „new“ and „old“ in the utterance (2) can be simply interpreted as early and later. Therefore, if there is a new comer, there must be the old or the earlier one/s.

(Nanda et al., 2012)

Nanda et al quoted the expression from the text:

Pendatang baru kita minggu ini di Take Me Out Indonesia serius mencari pasangan mapan dan kamu adalah tipe pria yang dia cari.” (“Our new comer this week in *Take Me Out Indonesia* seriously looks for a settled soul mate and you are a kind of man she is looking for.

(Nanda et al., 2012)

Then, Nanda et al. (2012) put this expression as the main point of discussion. Note how the writers put referring things by the use of word ‘refer’. He referred the

word ‘new comer’ to something else in the text, that is ‘the female participant who stands behind the podium’. They also stated, ‘old’ in this context, showing that the writers see the expressions in context. Another example is seen below:

C: ... Pria ini begitu percaya diri. Saya pinjam kacamatanya saja auranya sudah kerasa bahwa dia seorang pekerja keras. Tentukan pilihanmu sekarang. Lima, empat, tiga, dua, satu. (Sound of the turned-off lamps) Tenang, tenang, tenang. (sound of the turned-off lamps) Woi, woi. Slow, slow, Ladies. Pake dulu kacamatanya, Sob. (more sounds of the turned-off lamps) Wow! Santai, Rudi. Pendapat kamu calon dokter gigi?.

Dr.G: Menurut saya, a...(.) dari pertama ngeliatnya... Oke, sebenarnya saya kurang suka sama jaketnya. Tapi nggak apa-apa. Ya, okelah gayanya. Sama kaya saya usaha distro, ya? Pengen tahu aja sih kaya apa kehidupannya dia

(Nanda et al., 2012)

See the way the writers explain the above extract as one example of conversational implicature

In expression, "*Pendapat kamu calon dokter gigi?*" ("Your opinion, the would-be dentist?"), the phrase, "calon dokter gigi" ("would be dentist"), means that the addressee is not currently a dentist. At least it does not happen in the present but it does have a big chance to occur in the future. In other words, „a dentist to be“ is not already a dentist. Without "*calon dokter gigi*", it can be assumed that the person whom the speaker talks to is a dentist at the time the utterance is uttered. Therefore, the sentence infringes the statement's validity at the time it is being uttered.

(Nanda et al., 2012)

The excerpt taken above was to show another conversational implicature of the utterance produced by the speaker C. Like the previous two extracts, the writers quoted the expression which became the center of discussion, "*Pendapat kamu calon dokter gigi?*". The writers then interpreted by saying

means that the addressee is not currently a dentist. At least it does not happen in the present but it does have a big chance to occur in the future. In other words, „a dentist to be“ is not already a dentist

(Nanda et al., 2012)

This allows interpretation of the writers about one function of conversational implicature of the interlocutor being studied. The expression "it can be assumed" is the signal of the interpretation of the writers.

6.3 Code-Switching

Code-switching is another topic that can be analyzed by using DA. The following example analyzed data recorded in terms of types of code-switching used by teachers during the learning and teaching. The analysis covers Inter-sentential switching, Intra-sentential switching, Tag-switching switching, and Intra-word switching. These examples were taken from one of the students' thesis (Purnawan, 2014)

1. Inter sentential switching

This kind of code switching which occurs outside the sentence or the clause level (i.e. at sentence or clause boundaries), this type can be explained that the teacher uses two languages in two sentences in single utterance, every sentence using different language. It is sometimes called "extra sentential" switching. This type of code-switching can be seen in the following extract:

Extract 1

T: *look at the study the following pictures and make your own description about the jobs, lihat, perhatikan dan pelajari gambar-gambar di bawah ini and, apa artinya and?*

(look at the study of the following pictures and make your own description about the jobs, see, observe and study the pictures below and, what does it mean and?)

Ss: dan (*and*)

T: make.. (*make*)

Ss: bikin,.. buat (*make, create ..*)

T: buat your own description, deskripsi (*make your own description*)

S: ohh deskripsi.. (*ohh description ..*)

Extract 1 shows the inter-sentential type of code-switching used by the first teacher. At the time the teacher explained about descriptive text. The teacher switched her presentation by using English then later he altered to Indonesia by saying *look at the study the following pictures and make your own description about the jobs, lihat, perhatikan dan pelajari gambar-gambar di bawah ini and, apa artinya and?*, and the students answered *make*, and the teacher continued his instruction to make description about the pictures and the students were doing it.

(Purnawan, 2014)

The writer, Purnawan identified the utterances in the text which can be categorized as the first type of code-switching, that is intersentential switching. Since the main focus is to identify the types of code-switching, the writer's analysis just showed the existence of code-switching type in the text. Analysis can be obtained when the writer tried to discuss the reasons or the factors influencing the use of that type of code-switching in the class. The same case can be seen in the following extract:

1. Intra-sentential switching

This kind of code-switching occurs within a sentence or a clause, including within the word boundary or translation of words or phrase substitution within a sentence, this type can be explained that the teacher uses two languages in one sentence in one utterance. These types of code switching used by the teachers in teaching and learning process are as follows:

Extract 2

T: good morning

Oke listen your name

(good morning

Oke listen your name)

(the teacher check attended students)

T: oke anak-anak sekalian hari ini PRnya di kerja

(Okay students today do you working your home work)

S: adaka PR pa *(is there any home work sir?)*

S: tidak ada PR pa. *(no home work sir)*

oh tidak ada, saya kira PRnya ada yang cari artinya di *activity twenty two*, saya kasi waktu hari apa itu, *where your home work* tidak ada yang kerja bagaimana caranya kelas tiga itu sudah banyak tugas, makanya jangan berleha-leha, kamusnya juga untung kalau ada yang bawa.

(oh no, I think your home work find meaning in activity twenty two, I cautions what time of day it is, where your home work there are three classes of work how it has many tasks, so do not be careless, the dictionary also lucky if there is a carry.)

Ss: adaji pa kalau kamus. *(there is dictionary sir)*

In this extract the first teacher used intra-sentential code-switching, the first the teacher opening the lesson in the class, ask for home work the students, but the students said they didn't have home work then the teacher continue to give explanation to the students how to do the task and switches his explanation by using Indonesian and altered to English by saying, "oh tidak ada, saya kira prnya ada yang cari artinya di *activity twenty two*, saya kasi waktu hari apa itu," then the teacher switch his explanation again by using English and altered to Indonesia by saying, "*where is your home work* tidak ada yang kerja bagaimana caranya kelas tiga itu sudah banyak tugas, makanya jangan berleha-leha, kamusnya juga untung kalau ada yang bawa." The teacher used code-switching twice so the students could be understand how to do the task.

(Purnawan, 2014)

Like the previous extract above, the writer, Purnawan identified the utterances in the text which can be categorized as another type of code-switching, that is intra-sentential switching. Since the main focus is the same that is to identify the types of code-switching, the writer's analysis just showed the existence of code-switching type in the text. Deep analysis can also be obtained when the writer tried to discuss the reasons or the factors influencing the use of that type of code-switching in the class. The discussion would have touched the analysis of discourse if the writer tried to explain the differences of extract 1 and 2 in order to see the comparison of the two extracts in terms of the type of code-switching. As discussed in the previous chapter, looking at similarities and differences can become the focus of discussion in doing DA.

6.4 Speech Acts

As discussed previously, speech acts are potential topics for discourse and can also be used as an approach to discourse. The following example showed the analysis of speech acts used by teachers in the school. The writer, Uspayanti (2015) recorded the conversations of the teachers in teaching process, transcribed, and interpreted based on the taxonomy of Searle's speech acts.

Extract 1 (Giving information and assertion)

In this situation, the teacher A asked the students about the topic of the material. Moreover the teacher A asserted the topic of the material.

T: *Last week, it (is) related to structure, but today (the material) is listening. In this time, we are talking about surprise and disbelieve ya.. disbelieve and surprise... disbelieve and surprise.*

SS: Disbelieve and surprise

Based on the extract 1, the teacher A used representative speech act in classroom interaction when he told the actual state by saying "***Last structure, it (is) related to structure, but today (the material) is listening. In this time, we are talking about surprise and disbelieve ya.. disbelieve and surprise... disbelieve and surprise***". In that utterance, the teacher A reported or informed the students about the topic before the teacher explained the main material so the students got better understanding when he explained the material. Beside that, the teacher A also informed about the topic of the material that he had explained before that was structure. Regarding to the context above, the function of representative speech act was giving information.

(Uspayanti, 2015)

Like the previous examples, the extract above was taken as an example of one of the types of the speech acts. The theory used was based on Searle's taxonomy of speech acts, namely five classes of speech acts: (1) representatives (e.g. asserting, concluding), which commits the speaker to the truth of the expressed proposition, (2) directives (e.g. requesting, questioning), which are attempts by the speaker to get the addressee to do something or to direct someone towards some goals of the speakers, (3) commissives (e.g. promising, threatening, offering), which commit the speaker to some future course of action, (4) expressives (e.g. thanking, apologizing, welcoming, congratulating), which express a psychological state and express the inner state of the speaker, and (5) declarations (e.g. appointing, excommunicating, declaring), which affect immediate changes in the institutional state of affairs and which tend to rely on elaborate extra-linguistic institutions (cited in Schrifin, 1994, p. 57).

As seen in the extract above, the writer took the extract above as the example of representative speech act. The writer explained the speech act by saying "the teacher

A used representative speech act in classroom interaction when he told the actual state” In this way, she interpreted the utterance based on the context. In the last part, she also stated “Regarding to the context above, the function of representative speech act was giving information”, in which was explaining the function of the speech act. The writer then presented another extract from the transcription to show another type of the speech act, based on Searle’s classification. This can be seen in the following example:

Extract 2 (Asking question)

Before the teacher A explained the news item text, he asked the student about news item to check their understanding before explanation.

SS : Yes

T : *How about this text? Please say something about news item. Apa itu News item? Seperti apa itu?*

[How about this text? Please say something about news item. What is news item? What is news item like?]

SS : News

Based on the extract above, the teacher A used directive speech act namely asking someone to do something. Firstly, the teacher asked the students about what they know of news item by saying “***How about this text?***” He said it to measure the students’ understanding of news item. Then the teacher said “***Please say something about news item***”, that the teacher requested the students to say something about news item. So the function of directive speech act used by the teacher was to ask question and to request the students to say something about news item. Then the teacher used directive speech act by using Indonesian language in classroom interaction when the teacher said “***Apa itu news item? Seperti apa itu?*** [“What is news item? What is news item like?”]. The teacher repeated his question to make the students easy to answer the question.

(Uspayanti, 2015)

The utterance quoted from the transcription was explained by the writer in relation to type of speech act. As seen in the extract above, the writer examined the use of questions as a type of directive speech act.

6.5 Summary

This chapter had tried to explore some samples of analysis in the work of DA. It is expected that the work quoted above had given a brief overview on the ways of doing DA. Some of the topics discussed are those that are usually explored in the work of DA. Other topics are potential to be explored following the brief examples above such as the ways of transcribing, interpreting, and writing the report.

6.6 *Questions for Discussion*

1. In a group of three or four, write your paper as a sample of work of DA and present in the class. You can choose the topics as sampled in this chapter or you can also find other topics.
2. At the end, what are the advantages and disadvantages of doing DA?
3. Are there any difficulties you encountered in doing DA? Share with the class.

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CURRICULUM VITAE



Prof. Murni Mahmud, S.Pd, M.Hum, Ph.D is the second child of two sisters and one brother from the marriage of her parents, Haji Mahmud Mudda and Hajjah Mustika Asse. She was born in a small village named Pakkang, District of Segeri, Pangkep Regency, on 26 November 1973. She is the wife of Muh. Anwar with one son, born in Canberra, Australia, Adhwa Dhaifullah Anwar.

Her formal education started from Elementary School, SD No 10 Bone, Junior High School, SMPN Segeri, and Senior High School, SPGN Pangkep. Her First Degree, *Sarjana*, was in English Education Department of IKIP Ujung Pandang (1991-1994), now State University of Makassar (UNM). Funded by URGE (University Research of Graduate Education) from DIKTI, she continued her study to American Studies Graduate Program, Gadjah Mada University (1996-1998). She finished her Ph.D (Philosophy Doctor) in the Anthropology Department, Research School of Pacific and Asian Studies, the Australian National University, Canberra, Australia, awarded by the Australian Development Studies (ADS) Scholarship (2003-2008).

She has published a book entitled *Bahasa dan Gender dalam Masyarakat Bugis* by PUSTAKA REFLEKSI, Makassar, 2008. Another book is *Politeness in Bugis: A Study in Linguistic Anthropology* (Volume I and II) by UNM Press, 2010. Her novel entitled *Sang Etnograf* had just recently published by Pustaka Puitika (2016).

Her articles have been published in scientific journals. In national journals, her articles are as follows:

1. *Language and Gender in English Language Teaching*, TEFLIN Journal, 21(2), 2010, UM Malang.
2. *Grammatical Expressions of Bugis Politeness*, *Lingua*, 5 (1), 2010, Muhammadiyah University of Malang.
3. *Language Change in Bugis Society: to be Polite or to be Maju*, *Linguistik Indonesia*, 28(1), 2010, Atma Jaya University, Jakarta
4. *Rituals of Politeness in Bugis Society*, *Linguistika*, 18(34), 2011, Udayana University, Bali.
5. *Pronoun Choices in Bugis Society: The Road to Encode Politeness*, *Humaniora*, 23(2), 2011, Gadjah Mada University, Yogyakarta.
6. *Politeness Practices in Bugis Society*, *Kajian Linguistik dan Sastra*, 26(1), 2011, Muhammadiyah University of Surakarta.

7. *Exploring Gender Roles in the Story of I La Galigo*, Sosiohumaniora, 16(1), 2014, University of Padjajaran, Bandung.

Beside publications in national journals, she also actively writes articles for international publications. Some of her articles had been published:

1. *Speaking Bugis and Speaking Indonesian*, Journal of RIMA (Review Indonesia Malaysia Affairs), 42(2), 2008, Sydney Australia,
2. *Teachers' Ritual to be Polite in the Class*, Journal of Language and Literature, 5(2), 2014, ISSN: 2078-0303, DOI: 10.7813/jll.2014/5-2/5.
3. *Nonverbal Communication in the Class: Students' Perspectives*, Journal of Language and Literature, 5(3), 2014, ISSN: 2078-0303, DOI: 10.7813/jll.2014/5-3/60.
4. *Questioning Power of the Students in the Class*, Journal of Language and Teaching Research, 4(12), 2014, ISSN 1799-2591. © 2014 ACADEMY PUBLISHER Manufactured in Finland. doi:10.4304/tpls.4.12.2581-2587
5. *Students' Problems in Answering the TOEFL Test*, Theory and Practice in Language Studies, 6(1), 2015, by ACADEMY PUBLICATION Manufactured in Finland. doi:10.4304/tpls.4.12.2581-2587.
6. *Gender Differences in English Language Teaching*, ASIAN EFL Journal, Indonesian Conference Paper, Volume 4, December 2016.
7. *Students' Expectations toward Their Teachers: A Study on Teachers' Competence, Gender Issues and Politeness between Teachers and Students in Indonesian Context*, Journal of ELT Worldwide, 2(1), 2015, State University of Makassar. <http://www.ojs.unm.ac.id/index.php/ELT>.
8. *Framing Indonesian Realities: Essays in Symbolic Anthropology in Honor of Reimar Schefold*, Book review at TAPJA (the Asia Pacific Journal of Anthropology), RSPAS, the Australian National University, Canberra, Australia.

She actively participates as editor of the following work:

1. *Journal of Performance*, English Education Department, Faculty of Language and Literature, State University of Makassar.
2. *Proceeding of International Conference on Language Education I*, 23-24 November 2009, hosted by Language Center of the State University of Makassar.
3. *Proceeding of International Conference on Language Education II*, 3-4 Desember 2010, hosted by Language Center of the State University of Makassar.
4. *Proceeding of International Conference on Education (ICE)*, 22-23 Juli 2011, hosted by the Graduate Program of the State University of Makassar.
5. *Proceeding of National Seminar on Gender*, 27 January 2011, held by Women Studies Centre, State University of Makassar.

She also actively participates in seminars and conferences as presenters. Some of her papers had been presented at

1. *Women Studies Centre*, STAIN Parepare, 2005;
2. *Anthropology Joint Seminar and the Seminar of Language and Linguistics*, The Australian National University, 2006;

3. *Konferensi International Linguistik Tahunan, (KOLITA) 7*, UNIKA Atma Jaya, Jakarta, 27-28 April 2009;
4. *Seminar Nasional Kepemimpinan Berperspektif Gender*, Pusat Studi Wanita, Gadjah Mada University, 18 June 2009;
5. *Seminar Internasional dan Persidangan Linguistik dan Pemberdayaan Bahasa Melayu IV*, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, 4-5 July 2009;
6. *UAD TEFL National Conference*, 25-26 July 2009, Universitas Ahmad Dahlan, Yogyakarta.
7. *Conference of Applied Linguistics (CONAPLIN) 2*, UPI Bandung, 4-5 August 2009;
8. *Konferensi Internasional Masyarakat Linguistik Indonesia (KIMLI)*, 5-7 November 2009, Batu, Malang;
9. *International Conference on Language Education (ICOLE)*, Language Center, Universitas Negeri Makassar, 23-24 November 2009,
10. *Konferensi International Linguistik Tahunan (KOLITA) 8*, UNIKA Atma Jaya, Jakarta, 24 April 2010,
11. TEFLIN International Conference at UPI Bandung, 1-3 November 2010,
12. The 2nd ICOLE (International Conference on Language Education) by the Language Center of UNM Makassar, 3-4 December 2010.
13. International workshop on entrepreneurship held in Makati City, Manila, and Phillipine, 2014, held by HELM USAID.
14. *TESOL INDONESIA CONFERENCE*, Lombok, Mataram, 10-13 August 2016.

She actively writes articles in newspaper. Some of her published articles were as follows:

1. *Bahasa Bugis atau Bahasa Indonesia: Pilihan Berkomunikasi Masyarakat Bugis*, daily newspaper, Fajar, 30 October 2008;
2. *Meretas Bahasa dan Budaya di Filipina*, daily newspaper, Fajar Appresiasi, 12 April 2014;
3. *Bahasa dan Pola Kesantunan dalam Perspektif Gender*, Fajar Apresiasi, 12 May 2015;
4. *Masihkah kita santun dalam berkomunikasi*, daily newspaper, Inilah Sulsel, Opini, 13 May 2015;
5. *Prostitusi, Lifestyle, dan Harga Diri*, daily newspaper, Inilah Sulsel, 19 May 2015;
6. *Makna Kontekstual dalam Pemimpin Cinta*, daily newspaper Fajar, 19 May 2015;
7. *Ketika Skripsi jadi Sebuah Pilihan*, Inilah Sulsel, 27 May 2015;
8. *Kehormatan melawan Kepalsuan*, Inilah Sulsel; 10 June 2015;
9. *Yang Plastik, Instan, dan Palsu*, daily newspaper, Fajar, 10 June 2015;
10. *The Lost Angel, Angeline*, daily newspaper, Fajar, 16 June 2015.

She has been teaching in English Department, Faculty of Languages and Literatures since 2001 in the subject of Phonology, Morphology, Sociolinguistics, Psycholinguistics, and Anthropology Linguistics. In the Graduate Program of the State University of Makassar, she teaches the subject of Morphosyntax, Discourse Analysis, and Research Seminar.

She was awarded Professor of Anthropology Linguistics by Directorate of Higher Education (DIKTI), 1 October 2014 and had her inauguration speech on 18 March 2015.



Prof. Murni Mahmud, S.Pd, M.Hum, Ph.D was born in a small village named Pakkang, District of Segeri, Pangkep Regency, on 26 November 1973.

She has published a book entitled *Bahasa dan Gender dalam Masyarakat Bugis* (2008).

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Doing Discourse Analysis AN INTRODUCTION

The writing of this book is inspired by the need to provide appropriate books in the course of Discourse Analysis. The fact is that this course is an important part of the linguistic field of study. This course becomes the main subject studied by university students in all levels, in undergraduate degree, in master degree, and in the doctorate degree. In addition, Discourse Analysis is now a trending method in doing research, especially in qualitative research. Many researchers have been using this method in data analysis, besides the use of quasi-experimental design.

The main intention in writing this book is to explore the theoretical background of Discourse Analysis as a branch of study in linguistics. I attempt as well to examine the methods used in doing Discourse Analysis, and later to give exercises for students in doing Discourse Analysis. This book can become a good reference for students in doing Discourse Analysis.

The Author

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