

People's Democratic Republic of Algeria
Ministry of High Education and Scientific Research
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Pedagogical Support of Discourse Analysis

Level: Master 2 civ and lit

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Discourse Analysis Syllabus

Teaching Unit:	Level: Master two civ	Weekly time:	The number of teaching Hours:
Discourse Analysis		2h	10h
Coefficient: 2			
Credit: 4			

This course provides a thorough notion as to the features, approaches and patterns of applying discourse analysis

Learning Objectives

By the end of the course students will be able to:

- **Identify what constitutes knowledge of language**
- **be acquainted with the different approaches used to analyze discourse**
- **Uncover the global features of spoken and written discourse**
- **Being able to analyze discourse applying the micro and the macro maxims**

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Course Content

First Semester

The discourse analysis course for master two encompasses the following themes:

1. Meaning of discourse
2. Discourse Formation: Micro and macro structures
3. Discourse analysis
 - Genres of discourse (classroom discourse as a prototype)
 - Functions of language
 - Context in discourse analysis (linguistic and extra-linguistic).
4. Features of spoken discourse
5. Features of written discourse
6. Approaches of discourse analysis (structural and functional)
7. Discourse analysis in practice: Applying the micro and the macro structures (SPRE) pattern

End of Semester I

Assessment and Evaluation

Continuous Assessment

- ✓ The mark of the exam (20pts)
- ✓ Assignments graded upon 10 pts,

<p>and a grade for assiduity 10 pts (participation and presence).</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Assignments should take into account the modus operandi of analyzing discourse ✓ Instruction and evaluation ought to target the theoretical and the practical aspects of discourse analysis. 	
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Introduction

The current pedagogical support in discourse analysis contains a set of important units that are taken from Master 2 civ and lit syllabus. The research may contribute to meet the students' academic needs and requirements in discourse analysis. It is also done to help students increase their awareness as well as understand concepts about discourse analysis and its main approaches and avenues. This discipline is fundamental, it has a coefficient of 2 and a credit of 4. It covers 1 and 30 hours weekly. The syllabus is split into seven units: **The first** one is an introduction to discourse analysis, its scope and main areas. **The second unit** one is discourse formation. **The third** one is genres of discourse. The functions of language are covered in the fourth one. Spoken and written discourse are the two discourse modes covered in the fifth unit. The study of discourse and context is covered in the sixth unit. Unit seven focuses mostly on the application of discourse analysis (using the SPRE pattern). The primary goals and objectives of this research are:

- Determining the various theories and methods of analysis that have been addressed.
- Examination of various textual and discourse genres, considering the many viewpoints, analytical frameworks, approaches, and purposes delineated in the book.
- The useful application of these analyses, together with an explanation of how they benefit the fields of linguistics and humanistic studies in general.

.The development of an open and tolerant mind is another desired and anticipated result of studying discourse, since it will ultimately lead to a better comprehension of the many and varied expressions of language, culture, and communication in human society.

Unit 1: Discourse and discourse analysis

1. Discourse: An overview of its nature

A discourse is a speech, writing, or communication style that is unique to a certain context or group and is governed by norms, shared meanings, and regulations (Jen Renkema, 2009; Jorgensen & Phillips, 2002). It covers the larger sociocultural and historical background in which communication takes place in addition to the words themselves. Using language to communicate ideas, build identities, negotiate power dynamics, and transmit information is all part of discourse. Discursus, a Latin word meaning "conversation" or "speech," is where the word "discourse" originates. Fairclough (2020); Fraser (2021); Wennerstrom (2016) Nonetheless, the idea of discourse has expanded to include a more comprehensive view of language use and communication in modern academic and linguistic contexts. It covers all forms of communication that help create meaning and comprehension in a particular environment, not only one-on-one talks or speeches.

A number of variables, such as power dynamics, historical influences, cultural values, social standards, and particular communication objectives, influence discourses. Written or spoken, formal or informal, they are essential in forming our perceptions and understandings of the world around us (Wang, 2021). Political discourses, for instance, create stories about ideology, policies, and leadership, whereas scientific discourses create common understandings among scientists (Widdowson, 2008; Wodak & Meyer, 2001).

Discourse is essentially the means by which language functions in certain situations to transmit ideas, change meanings, and help create social realities (Hewings, 2001; Moshinsky, 1959a; Richard J. Watts, 2003; Singh & Richards, 2006). According to Tan and Marissa (2022) and Tenbrink (2020), communication and interaction in daily life are shaped by a complex interplay of linguistic factors, cultural influences, and social dynamics.

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In qualitative research, discourse analysis is a methodological mainstay that provides a clear perspective on the complex interactions between language, communication, and the complex fabric of societal dynamics (Fairclough, 2020; Mooney Simmie & Edling, 2019; Wennerstrom, 2016). This method, which is based on the belief that language is more than just a means of communication, aims to reveal the hidden layers of meaning that underlie the representation of human thought in both spoken and written forms (Alek & Nguyen, 2023; Energy et al., 1997; Wuryaningrum, 2023). Discourse analysis is a potent tool for revealing

the frequently subtle but significant linkages between language and the larger social, cultural, and power structures through a methodical examination of these linguistic subtleties (G. Allen, 2000; McIntyre, 2008; Watanabe, 2016).

The realization that language is a tool people use to both reflect and create their perception of the world is fundamental to discourse analysis (Simmons & Hawkins, 2014). Discourse analysts work to uncover the layers of meaning that are hidden behind the surface of words by navigating this complex dance between language and context (Jorgensen & Phillips, 2002; Price, 1998). Discourse analysis is dedicated to dissecting language and communication, which is highlighted by its systematic approach. Strictly examining oral dialogues, written texts, or visual media, researchers analyze linguistic aspects beyond word meanings (Higgs et al., 2011; Kusumaningputri, 2019; Reaves, 2023). The hidden aspects that give structure to the message being given are revealed through an analysis of tone, emphasis, pauses, and even the selection of certain words or phrases (G. Allen, 2021; Guanabara et al., 2000; Matei, 2007).

Beyond deciphering literal meanings, discourse analysis shines a spotlight on the complex relationship between language and identity (Azmi, 2020; Hassani, 2020; Yumarnamto, 2020). With regard to gender, ethnicity, socioeconomic class, and other topics, this method explores the ways in which language is utilized to create and negotiate both individual and collective identities (Ahmed & Morgan, 2021; Motschenbacher, 2019). Scholars can unveil the nuanced ways in which linguistic decisions influence the construction and manifestation of an individual's identity by closely examining the way language is used in various settings (Achugar & Carpenter, 2014; Caroline Tagg, 2020; Darics, 2015).

Nevertheless, the finer points of language are not the only focus of discourse analysis. According to Munalim (2020), the focus is instead shifted to the wider macro-level consequences. It recognizes the social practice of language's integration into broader hierarchical and power structures (Kubanyiova, 2020; Kumaravadivelu, 1999). By using this lens, discourse analysts analyze how language can either support or contradict current power structures, frequently exposing the implicit presumptions and biases that permeate public discourse (Fairclough, 2020; Graaf, 2001; Reaves, 2023; Waring, 2018).

Discourse analysis has taken many different forms as it has developed, each with its own approach and focus. According to Fairclough (2020) and Wennerstrom (2016), critical discourse analysis, for example, explores the ideologies and power structures that language both forms and reflects. Contrarily, conversation analysis focuses on deciphering the patterns and structure of spoken communication. By using a gendered lens to language, feminist

discourse analysis reveals how gender identities and relationships are negotiated through communication (Berg, 2009; Canagarajah & Nunan, 1997; Kumaravadivelu, 1999; Price, 1998; Wang, 2021). Discourse analysis is useful for understanding how language shapes perceptions, attitudes, and behaviors, but its applications in study go beyond this. Through revealing the fundamental principles of communication, this methodology can provide an understanding of the processes underlying social change, cultural transitions, and ideological changes (Digital & Heritage, 2007; Fairclough, 2013; N. X. Liu et al., 2021; Moshinsky, 1959a; Wang, 2021). Discourse analysis reveals the complex dance between language and society, thought and expression, by rigorously examining language beyond the confines of words and syntax.

2. Key definitions of discourse analysis

To begin, discourse analysis might be defined as the study of language. Many people consider discourse analysis to be a subfield of linguistics, or the scientific study of language. Discourse analysis is frequently referred to as a branch of linguistics, the academic study of language. Different linguists focus on various facets of language. The study of language sounds and linguistic usage is done by phonologists. Lexicographers research words, their history, and their meanings. Grammarians look at how words are combined to create spoken and written statements. Additionally, discourse analysts look at how words and phrases combine to form texts and interactions as well as how those texts and interactions fit into our social environment.

Moreso, to understand what it means to take a discourse analysis approach to the teaching of writing, we need to begin by understanding the term *discourse analysis*, which refers to a broad area of inquiry that involves several dimensions and spans a variety of disciplines. Discourse must instead be organized in some coherent way that makes sense in the context of an interaction. Thus, one important aspect of discourse analysis is that texts are regarded as wholes, beyond the level of the grammatical sentence. This extended structure—the sequence in which the language occurs and the connections among the units— becomes an object of study in itself.

Thus, another important principle of discourse analysis is that language is always studied in its social context. As van Dijk (1997b, p. 8) points out, when we speak or write, we seldom do so by accident; rather, we have a social purpose in mind. To understand the social contexts of a text, discourse analysts usually work with naturally occurring—or, to use Schiffrin's terminology, "empirical"—data. To summarize, discourse analysis involves the study of naturally occurring language in the context in which it is used. Discourse analysts, whether

they are concerned with the coherence of extended structure or with the interpretation of more minute texts, are interested in the language choices people make to accomplish their social goals. For many analysts, cultural ideologies that are reproduced in the discourse of a community are the focus of analysis. In this sense, discourse analysis can be used both as a structural tool to better grasp how texts are organized and as an ethnographic tool to broaden one's understanding of cultural dynamics.

Another important characteristic of discourse studies is that they are essentially multidisciplinary, and therefore it can be said that they cross the Linguistics border into different and varied domains, as van Dijk notes in the following passage:

“...discourse analysis for me is essentially multidisciplinary, and involves linguistics, poetics, semiotics, psychology, sociology, anthropology, history, and communication research. What I find crucial though is that precisely because of its multi-faceted nature, this multidisciplinary research should be integrated. We should devise theories that are complex and account both for the textual, the cognitive, the social, the political and the historical dimension of discourse.” (2002,p. 10)

Thus, when analyzing discourse, researchers are not only concerned with ‘purely’ linguistic facts; they pay equal or more attention to language use in relation to social, political and cultural aspects. For that reason, discourse is not only within the interests of linguists; it is a field that is also studied by communication scientists, literary critics, philosophers, sociologists, anthropologists, social psychologists, political scientists and many others. and beyond the sentence, and language in situational and cultural context. **Also,**

Discourse analysis is defined as

1. A concern for language use that extends beyond the confines of a sentence or utterance;
2. An interest in the connections between language and society
3. In terms of the dialogic or interactive aspects of regular conversation.

Discourse analysis in linguistics is inherently linked to spoken or written discourse. In general, it looks at how language is arranged above the sentence or clause, which enables it to examine more extensive linguistic units like written texts or spoken conversations. Thus, language use in social contexts—and particularly, speaker interaction or dialogue—belongs to the purview of discourse analysis. Discourse analysis is sometimes defined as the study of language "beyond the sentence." In linguistics, "discourse" is defined as a structural unit larger than the sentence. Discourse requires at least one sentence to be involved, and the sentences must be contingent. Texts can be created by multiple participants, as in conversation, or they can take the form of various forms of monologue, most notably

narrative and exposition. Relevance in form and especially meaning are requirements for discourse analysis.

Discourse analysis is part of applied linguistics; it is a *multi* disciplinary field, and highly diverse in the range of its interests. (Jaworski & Coupland, 1999: 3) stated that discourse is not merely *beyond* “language use relative to social, political and cultural formations; language reflecting social order, but also language shaping social order and shaping individuals’ interaction with society.” (Jaworski & Coupland, 1999, p. 1–7.)

3. The four principal tenets of discourse analysis

Discourse analysis, however, is more than just the study of language; it is a perspective on language that focuses on how people use it in daily interactions to joke, debate, convince, flirt, and demonstrate that they are particular types of people or belong to particular groups. This approach to language analysis centers on four key tenets. As follows:

1) Ambiguous language is used. It is never entirely obvious what something means. Every form of communication includes figuring out what the other person is attempting to say and what they intend.

2-Language is constantly "in the world." In other words, the context in which a language is used, along with the circumstances surrounding its use, always determine what it signifies.

3-The various social groups we belong to and who we are as individuals are both inextricably linked to the way we use language. We showcase various social identities and demonstrate our membership in various groups via language.

4-Language is never employed in isolation. When we speak, our tone of voice, our facial emotions, and our hand gestures are all integrated with it. The same is true for written texts, where fonts, layouts, and visuals are used. It often depends on how we use language as to what it means and what it might be used for.

A) The vagueness of words

Everybody has had the experience of wondering what someone—a lover, a parent, or a friend—'really meant' to say. In actuality, almost all forms of communication include certain meaning components that are not explicitly represented by the spoken or written words. Even when we believe we are speaking clearly and concisely, we may not be. For instance, you might.

B) Language usage worldwide

Making reference to the social context in which someone is speaking or writing helps us to grasp what they are trying to say when they communicate. Depending on who is saying it,

when and where it is said, and to whom it is said, an utterance's meaning can alter significantly. The same query we mentioned above: "Do you have a pen?" may be posed by a teacher to a student who is ready to take an exam. It is improbable that this is a request or that the teacher is being a little reticent to talk to the pupil. Instead, this statement is likely intended to ensure that the student has the necessary equipment to take the test.

Therefore, if we talk about discourse, we are constantly talking about language that is located in some way. Every language is placed in at least four different ways. First, language exists in the physical world, and the context in which we encounter it—whether it be on a store sign, in a text book, or on a particular website—will affect how we understand it. Second, we may grasp what others mean when they speak or write by thinking about who they are, how well we know them, and whether or not they have any authority over us. Language is located within relationships. Third, language has a place in history, or in relation to earlier events.

Last but not least, language is placed in relation to other languages. Phrases and texts constantly refer to or reply to other phrases and texts, meaning that everything we say or write is a part of a larger network of discourse.

C) Language and social identity

Discourse positions people, including the 'whos' and 'whoms' who say or write these things, in addition to positioning discourse, which is in part determined by who says (or writes) what to whom. This means that every time someone speaks or writes, they are somehow expressing who they are and how they relate to other people through their discourse. They are acting out who they are. The important thing about such identities is that they are multiple and fluid rather than singular and fixed. The persona I project at the dance club on Friday night is not the same persona I project in the office on Monday morning. It's not because I've changed my personality that this happened.

D) Language and other modalities of communication

Discourse analysis used to concentrate nearly entirely on written or spoken language, in part due to its linguistics roots. People are now becoming more aware that we communicate in a variety of non-verbal ways and that we need to pay attention to how language interacts with these other forms of communication if we want to comprehend what people mean when they use language. Discourse analysis is the study of a unit of language above sentence utilized in a social context to carry out social functions since discourse has been investigated as a unit of language above sentence with an emphasis on language usage. The fundamental tenet of discourse analysis is as stated by Brown and Yule (1983: 1): "The analysis of discourse is necessarily the analysis of language in use." It cannot, therefore, be limited to the description

of linguistic forms without regard to the roles or goals that these forms are intended to fulfill in human affairs.

Discourse analysis is a fairly vague word. It is a polysemic phrase. Discourse analysis is not predicated on a preference for studying written or spoken language. On the one hand, it alludes to the in-depth linguistic analysis of writings that are in use from many angles. Discourse, on the other hand, refers to socially accepted patterns of perception, cognition, and conduct that are mirrored in a wide range of writings from many genres. Every field is expanding discourse, including linguistics. It is the viewpoint of text linguistics.

As a distinct field of study, text linguistics has always been connected to written text. Beyond the sentence, verbal or written communication is referred to as discourse. Any further elaboration on such a definition usually refers to ideas about language as meaning in interaction, language in usage, language above and beyond the sentence, and language in situational and cultural context.

4. Discourse analysis methodologies

Adopting one or more combinations of methods to address particular facets of the overall discourse reality is referred to as an approach. There are two types of discourse analysis approaches: internal and external. Finding internal principles that native speakers employ to produce grammatically accurate sentences is the main goal of the internal method. Isolated, perfectly formed statements that lack context and are idealized or invented.

Asking how we use language to communicate, any language that seems cohesive, attaining meaning, in context, and being observed are the main objectives of the external method. Discourse analysis employs a variety of methodologies that have been created from different sources. Rules and principles, contexts and cultures, functions and structures, and power and politics are the four basic areas of analysis for these.

5. Guidelines and precepts

These comprise conversation analysis, politeness theory, and speech act theory. Create speech actions, or the ways that phrases in a conversation serve as a means of communication. Using words to report events, declare what information or action is desired, or to forbid action are a few examples. In accordance with social roles and cultural norms, modify one's language to suit the conversation's social environment. Develop conversational abilities in verbal exchanges with others face to face. These include understanding when and how to switch topics in a discussion, when to take the lead, and how to respond to someone while adhering to the practical guidelines established by the previous statement. These include concerns

about manners, formality, and the status or age of the person being listened to in what have been called "styles" or registers of speech.

5.1. Functions and structures

In systemic functional linguistics, these are categorized as text models of language and grammar approaches to text. It offers a thorough theoretical framework for text analysis.

The goal is to examine language from the outside in, particularly to interpret linguistic processes from the perspective of the social order. Language is not viewed as an independent system but rather as a component of the larger socio-cultural framework, or as "social semiotic." Grammar is viewed as meaning potential, a "potential" that is functionally determined by the need for speakers and writers to manage their relationships with other participants (the interpersonal function), represent experience (the ideational function), and produce cohesive and coherent dialogue or monologue (the textual function) all at the same time.

5.2. Politics and power

These methods emphasize critical analysis and inevitably touch on issues raised by pragmatic and sociolinguistic methods. tries to expose the "hidden effects of power," which might include marginalization, stigmatization of the weak, naturalization of privilege, and the clumsy pretense of passing off ideology as common sense. themes of identity, power, and resistance as well as the search for textual evidence, particularly in relation to political texts, media and commercial texts, and speeches that contain prejudice related to class, gender, ethnicity, and other categories. the difficulties of representation and communication in diverse circumstances.

6. Discourse analysis's attributes

Discourse analysis is a qualitative research methodology that comprises various distinctive elements that direct its methodical investigation of language and communication in social contexts (Badarneh, 2020; Barton & Tusting, 2005; Cook, 2011; Fairclough, 2020; Moon & Murphy, 1999). According to Bondarouk and R  el (2004) and Case & Science (2005), these qualities offer a basis for comprehending the intricacy and profundity that discourse analysis offers to the investigation of underlying social, cultural, and power dynamics present in linguistic words.

1.Discourse analysis is innately sensitive to the context in which language is used. This is known as contextual sensitivity. According to Gonz  lez-Fern  ndez (2022) and Griffiths & Cansiz (2015), it recognizes that meanings are created within certain cultural, historical, and

social contexts and highlights the significance of looking at the larger context of communication.

2. The Constructive Approach to Language: According to Price (1998), language is perceived as a dynamic and productive process that both shapes and is shaped by human experiences. Language actively creates and reflects social realities, identities, and ideologies, as acknowledged by discourse analysts.

3. Power and Ideology: Discourse analysis's fundamental premise is the identification of the ideologies and power relations ingrained in language (Hashemian & Farhang-Ju, 2022; Mair & Fairclough, 1997; Wiggins, 2019). Scholars investigate how language reveals prevailing discourses, reveals latent biases, and challenges established power systems.

4. Interpretive Approach: The nature of discourse analysis is interpretive. Scholars undertake an interpretive process to reveal more profound levels of meaning, investigating how linguistic decisions produce subtle interpretations and discoveries that go beyond the obvious (Digby et al., 2010; Sarah J. Tracy, 2020).

5. Variety of Data Sources: It covers a broad spectrum of data sources, such as spoken dialogues, written texts, visual media, and more. Because of this variety, scholars are able to investigate the ways in which language functions in many contexts (Ayuningsih et al., 2020; Dadze-Arthur, 2012; Nash, n.d.; O'Cathain, 2019; Reaves, 2023; Simmons & Hawkins, 2014).

6. Micro-Level Analysis: Discourse analysis looks closely at language details, not just the words themselves. To enhance the overall meaning of the communication, researchers pay close attention to intonations, pauses, metaphors, and other minute details (Jwa, 2020; Kayzouri et al., 2020; Mair & Fairclough, 1997; Tseng et al., 2019; Wooffitt, 2011).

7. Identity and Subjectivity: The approach emphasizes how language constructs and negotiates individual and collective identities. It investigates how language contributes to the formation and expression of identities, including gender, ethnicity, and social class (D'Cruz, 2008; García Ochoa et al., 2016; Moshinsky, 2022; Roman & Roman, 2014).

8. Representation Power: Discourse analysis emphasizes how language shapes representation. Through emphasizing some parts and marginalizing others, it explores how language creates social realities, forms public opinion, and affects perceptions (Apsari et al., 2022; Fairclough, 2020; Gollobin, 2020; Truan & Oldani, 2021).

9. Flexibility: Discourse analysis can be readily customized by researchers to fit a range of situations and research concerns. Because of its versatility, the methodology can be applied to

a wide range of subjects and fields (L. K. Allen et al., 2019; Hidayat et al., 2021; Shabat et al., 2021; Zhai, 2021).

10. Discourse analysts recognize their own subjectivity and place in the research process through critical reflexivity. They consider their function, prejudices, and possible effects on how data is interpreted and analyzed critically (Kumaravadivelu, 1999; Moss, 2006; Rogers et al., 2016; Wang, 2021).

11. Multidisciplinary Nature: According to Van Dijk (2016), discourse analysis has applications in linguistics, sociology, anthropology, media studies, and other disciplines, spanning disciplinary boundaries.

12. Understanding Communication Practices: This area of study aims to comprehend spoken interactions such as turn-taking, pauses, and interruptions, in addition to the content of communication (R. H. Jones et al., 2015; Price, 1998).

13. Multiplicity of Meanings: Discourse analysis acknowledges the possibility of several levels of meaning in a single text or utterance. Scholars investigate the emergence of diverse interpretations contingent upon the contextual factors and participant viewpoints (Clerke & Hopwood, 2014; Kumaravadivelu, 1999).

14. Social Construction of Reality: This is consistent with the theory that language has a role in how reality is constructed. According to Gollobin (2020), Molzahn et al. (2020), Sara Rachel Chant et al. (2014), Sarah J. Tracy (2020), and Strongman (2013), discourse analysts examine how language shapes shared understandings and helps frame social events and phenomena.

15. Language as Action: Language is viewed as a social action in discourse analysis. It looks into how language can do more than just transmit information—it can also be used to carry out acts, such as expressing ideas, making demands, or imposing authority (Fişekcioğlu, 2022; Sharma & Sievers, 2022, 2022).

16. Local and Global Views: Discourse analysis can look at micro-level interactions like daily conversations as well as macro-level discourses like political rhetoric. Researchers can understand language functioning at many sizes thanks to this duality (Lillis & Curry, 2013; N. X. Liu et al., 2021; Munalim, 2020; Wang, 2021).

17. Changes and Transformations: Discourse analysis pays attention to how language use changes and evolves throughout time. Discourse patterns can be tracked by researchers to provide insight into the evolution of social, political, and cultural contexts (Fairclough, 2013; McCarthy, 1992).

18. Qualitative and Inductive: The methodology is qualitative by nature, emphasizing comprehension of the subtleties and depth of language over quantitative measures. Inductive reasoning is employed, which facilitates the extraction of insights from the data (Barkhuizen, 2019; Maxwell & Reibold, 2015; Miles et al., n.d.; Sarah J. Tracy, 2020).

19. Dialogical aspect: The dialogical aspect of communication is acknowledged by discourse analysis. It looks into how interactions among participants influence the meanings that surface and result in understanding being co-constructed (Fairclough, 2013; Goodyear et al., 2014; Higgs et al., 2011).

20. Critical Analysis: Discourse analysis frequently draws on critical theory, although it is not restricted to critical viewpoints, to investigate how language use is influenced by power relations, societal injustices, and prevailing ideologies (Carter Andrews et al., 2019; Hernández, 2022; Margolis, 2007; Smith, 2021).

21. Emphasis on the Unspoken: Discourse analysis considers both the things that are spoken and the things that are not. Researchers investigate communication gaps, silences, and omissions that might have important meaning (Mair & Fairclough, 1997; Rogers et al., 2016; Wang, 2021).

22. Integration of Theory and Data: To provide an organized perspective on the data, scholars frequently include theoretical frameworks into their analysis to direct their investigation of particular discursive patterns or phenomena (Kayi-aydar, 2015; Levitt, 2020; Usanova & Schnoor, 2021).

By adding these further features to the ones that were already discussed, we can gain a deeper comprehension of how complex and all-encompassing discourse analysis is. It emphasizes how the method can shed light on the complex relationships that exist between language, society, and cognition, enhancing our understanding of human communication and its broad ramifications.

7. Discourse analysis typologies

There is a wide range of approaches and types that fall under the umbrella of discourse analysis; each provides a different perspective on language, communication, and how these interact with larger social dynamics (Fairclough, 2020; Gollobin, 2020; Li, 2009; Putra et al., 2021; Rahardi, 2022; Siddiq et al., 2021; Van Bergen the Hogeweg, 2021). Specific techniques and foci are offered by these kinds of discourse analysis to address various research questions and contexts:

1. Discourse analysis that is critical (CDA): The power relationships, ideologies, and social injustices ingrained in language are examined in depth by this kind of analysis (Nasution et

al., 2021; Van Dijk, 1993; Widdowson, 2008). The goal of CDA is to expose the ways that language may uphold or subvert prevailing narratives and hierarchies of power. It frequently focuses on exposing prejudices, covert goals, and the ways that language upholds social inequalities.

2. Feminist Discourse Analysis: This method examines how language creates and maintains gender roles, stereotypes, and power disparities. It is centered on gender and sexuality (Criado et al., 2016; McIntyre, 2008; Wooffitt, 2011). It looks at how language can either support or contradict patriarchal norms and how gender identities are mediated through communication.

3. Conversation analysis: Conversation analysis focuses on spoken interactions and analyzes the composition and flow of talks (Fairclough, 2020; Steensig, 2004). It investigates turn-taking, pauses, interruptions, and other conversational aspects to learn how people work together to create meaning in real-time encounters.

4. Narrative Discourse Analysis: This method, which focuses on storytelling, looks at the stories people tell themselves to make sense of the world around them. In order to show how people construct and share their individual and collective stories, it examines the themes, structures, and discursive techniques found in narratives (R. Jones, 2012; R. H. Jones et al., 2015; Moshinsky, 1959b; Saracho, 2020; Sindoni, 2019).

5-Social Discourse Analysis: This approach focuses on larger social discourses that influence how we see particular subjects. It explores the ways in which language is employed in public discourse, media, and institutional settings to shape certain narratives and sway public opinion (Arvaja & Sarja, 2020; Badarneh, 2020; Galloway et al., 2020; Khodke et al., 2021; Rahardi, 2022).

6. Discourse Analysis in Multiple Modes: Multimodal analysis incorporates textual, visual, and auditory components in addition to spoken or written language. It looks at how diverse communication channels work together to convey meaning in a variety of settings, including movies, TV shows, and online platforms (Insights & Directions, 2019; kay I O'Halloran, 2020; Marefat & Marzban, 2014; Smith, 2021).

7-Ethnographic Discourse Analysis: This method, which has its roots in ethnography, looks at language in the context of culture. To comprehend how language is used to negotiate identity, social norms, and power dynamics, researchers immerse themselves in a community or context (Mokoginta & Arafah, 2022; Tang et al., 2021; Wang, 2021).

8. Analysis of Historical Discourse: This kind, which focuses on historical literature, looks at how language both influences and reflects changes in culture, politics, and society across

time. To shed light on historical developments, it tracks shifts in ideologies and discursive patterns (Y. Liu et al., 2022; Moshinsky, 2022; Vittorio Tantucci, 2021; Waring, 2018).

9- Comparative Discourse Analysis: This method looks for commonalities and underlying themes in discourses from many contexts, languages, and cultures. It draws attention to the ways that language reacts to different contextual or cultural cues (Esau, 2021; Mair & Fairclough, 1997; McCarthy, 1992).

10. Analysis of Poststructuralist Discourse: This kind, which is in line with poststructuralist philosophy, focuses on the ways in which language shapes identities and knowledge. It investigates how language undermines established interpretations and demonstrates how flexible language is in influencing reality (Rogers et al., 2016; Thurlow & Mroczek, 2012; Wang, 2021).

11. Mediated Discourse Analysis: This method, which focuses on media and communication technologies, looks at language use on online platforms, social media, and digital places. It explores the ways in which these platforms impact communication practices and public debate (Fairclough, 2020; Moshinsky, 1959a; Salomaa & Lehtinen, 2018).

12. Cognitive Discourse Analysis: This kind aims to comprehend how language both represents and changes cognitive processes, such as mental models, reasoning techniques, and thought patterns. It looks at how language use reflects fundamental cognitive structures (Reaves, 2023; Roman & Roman, 2014; McCarthy, 1992).

13. Institutional Discourse Analysis: This method examines language use in particular institutional contexts, with a focus on institutions like education, healthcare, or the legal system. It looks at how language both perpetuates and reflects power structures, institutional practices, and professional identities (Rodgers et al., 2016; Salama et al., 2022; Fairclough, 2020; Guo & Ren, 2022; Hamid et al., 2021; Kanno, 2021).

14. Analysis of Rhetorical Discourse: This kind, which has its roots in rhetoric, looks at the persuasive language that is used to persuade people. It investigates how language creates arguments and appeals, rhetorical devices, and persuasive techniques (Christison & Murray, 2021; Hart, 2008; Moshinsky, 2022; Murodi et al., 2021; Wang, 2021; Wooffitt, 2011; Xiong & Qian, 2012).

15. Symbolic Discourse Analysis: This method concentrates on the representations and symbolic meanings that are ingrained in language. It looks at the ways in which semiotic components, symbols, and metaphors help to create shared cultural meanings and values (Al Smadi et al., 2022; Moshinsky, 2022; Wang, 2021).

16. Analysis of Postcolonial Discourse: This kind, which is based on postcolonial theory, looks into the ways that language has been employed historically and presently to support or subvert cultural hegemony, colonial power dynamics, and subaltern voices (Alexander et al., 2007; Kumaravadivelu, 1999).

17. Environmental Discourse Analysis: This method, which focuses on environmental issues, examines how language affects public attitudes, policies, and perceptions of the environment. It looks at how discourses affect people's awareness of the environment and their actions (Graaf, 2001; Sarah J. Tracy, 2020; Susanti et al., 2019; Wodak & Meyer, 2001).

18. Discursive Psychology: This branch of psychology is concerned with how language shapes psychological processes. It explores the ways in which language shapes identities, emotions, and cognitive experiences, illuminating the relationship between language and psychology (Ariana, 2016; Levitt, 2020; Waring, 2018; Wooffitt, 2011).

19. Political discourse analysis: this method looks at how language is used in political settings to define issues, sway public opinion, and advance political objectives. The study explores the communication and persuasion tactics employed by politicians (Akdemir, 2018; Alek et al., 2020; Connolly, 1974; Fairclough, 2013, 2020; Hart, 2008; Moshinsky, 1959a).

20. Analysis of Global Discourse: This kind looks at language use in a worldwide society, going beyond specialized settings. It looks into the way discourses move across. Every one of these categories provides a unique perspective for examining the intricacies of language, communication, and their interplay with diverse facets of society and culture. Depending on their goals and the particular setting they want to study, researchers might choose the best kind.

8. Discourse analysis: Benefits and Drawbacks

Many remarks may be made in order to comprehend the benefits and drawbacks of this culture, but the study of this discourse emphasizes the benefits over the drawbacks. For example, discourse analysis can either be utilized for positive or negative. These strategies can be used to describe behaviors of those who, for whatever reason, find it difficult to control what they say and are prone to having conversations in which their words are misinterpreted or not understood at all, leading to the emergence of a negative aspect of society. However, with the alternatives that have been made available, it is possible to overcome it and take actions that will benefit the most vulnerable members of the society and ensure their happiness as well as the prosperity of the community.

Regarding the promotion of health, enhancing the accessibility and caliber of treatment programs, enhancing services for the weak, and lowering health disparities, this discourse

analysis aims to empower patients and enhance the general public's physical and emotional well-being. Discourse analysis as a constructive social psychological critique of an existing occurrence or phenomena was also covered by researchers. While discourse analysis generally has the relevance and practical and easy application to certain individuals, certain places, and certain times, every culture typically has a more specific benefit.

Discourse analysis operates within a more specialized framework. Conversation analysis, when examining its application studies, talks about how each topic's design is repeated through the organization of interactions to be looked at, and then it gathers information on a variety of social phenomena. Nevertheless, further topics are also covered about this discursive construction, which affects a social process that is commonly understood, as well as the unfavorable outcomes. Discourse analysis presents more difficult challenges to theory, as well as conventional policies and practices in a variety of available contexts. This is understandable given that the function of discourse and language will have an impact of change, whether in the social environment or the individual or self into positive.

Discourse analysis thus presents more difficult problems to theory, as well as conventional policies and actions in a variety of possible contexts, whether in the social environment or the person or self into positive. Because of the reflexive mindset, the researcher cannot remain an objective observer. Discourse analysis has several limitations, two of which are the community's decision to make the methodology problematic and the wide range of viewpoints regarding the culture. Because each culture or tradition has its own processes, unique conceptions of discourse and discourse analysis, and epistemological stances. Once more, the drawbacks of discourse analysis are highly particular to each culture; generally speaking, discourse analysis is supported by the idea that "meaning" may mediate conflicting viewpoints and be inclusive of all. This notion can be quite difficult to understand because the provisions are always available to study and investigation. If a new interpretation is made, this is where comments and criticisms that are likely to be prevalent can be made, and they won't stop. Remarks and criticisms that are prevalent and won't go away.

Task evaluation questions: Choose the right answer

1. According to Schiffrin (1994) and other authors, Discourse Analysis...

- a) involves only the study of context.
- b) is devoted to the study of text.
- c) includes the analysis of both text and context.

2. Discourse studies are...

- a) restricted to the field of Linguistics.
- b) devoted mainly to social phenomena.
- c) essentially multidisciplinary.

3. Discourse studies are...

- a) restricted to the field of Linguistics.
- b) devoted mainly to social phenomena.
- c) essentially multidisciplinary.
- c) describe language in the context of human interaction.

4. Zellig Harris (1951, 1952)...

- a) was a functionalist.
- b) was the first scholar that used the term *Discourse Analysis*.
- c) criticized Chafe's view of Discourse Analysis.

5. Discourse is multi-modal because it...

- a) embodies one semiotic system.
- b) includes laughter in its study.
- c) uses more than one semiotic system.

6. Discourse analysts are...

- a) more interested in the grammatical aspects of language than in the details of its context.
- b) more concerned with the actions of speakers or writers than with the formal relationships between sentences.
- c) not particularly interested in body language.

7. In general, we may say that discourse analysts are...

- a) only interested in different types of conversations.
- b) not interested in the written language.
- c) mainly concerned with the study of language in use.

Unit 2: Discourse Formation: Micro and Macro features

1. Formation of a Discourse

Because sentence is at the top of the grammatical rank-scale, grammatical study of language is limited to sentence analysis. Grammar does not allow for analysis above the sentence level. Discourse emerges from the need to examine language beyond the level of phrase. Various academics have defined discourse as the organization or unit of language above the sentence (Stubbs 1983:1, Schiffrin 1987a: 1, T. Onadeko 2000: 82). The structuralists and formalists are interested with universal language linguistic aspects such as phonology, syntax, and semantics, which do not involve related sentences or utterances. Connected sentences are the foundation of conversation. Schiffrin (1994) contends:

Consistent with the definition of discourse as language “above the sentence,”

many contemporary structural analyses of discourse view the sentence as the

unit of which discourse is comprised. (25)

Even linguists who struggled to define discourse succinctly could agree that discourse is language that extends beyond the sentence. Language use larger than sentence is the term used to describe it. In a naturally occurring utterance, connected phrases are extremely important in the development of discourse. Discourse must occur in a certain context, be coherent, and transmit a social meaning in order to be considered discourse. Without a strong sense of unity, sentences can be combined. Such a string of phrases can't be considered as discourse. Discourse lacks the characteristics that discourse is supposed to have. In her definition of discourse, Crystal (1992) writes, "Discourse: a continuous stretch of (especially spoken) language larger than a sentence, often constituting a coherent unit such as a sermon, argument, joke, or narrative" (p.25)

His justification supports the idea that coordinated language used in a social context, rather than a random collection of sentences, creates discourse. Discourse is present in all academic disciplines where language is utilized to facilitate communication, including law, science, medicine, education, fashion, engineering, sport, politics, and more. Based on the aforementioned, Crystal and other academics only consider spoken language to be conversation. Therefore, we should be aware that discourse can be either oral or written.

When Egbe (1996, p. 72) refers to "talk and text" as "connected speech and continuous writing," he contextualizes both as "a stretch of natural language that is longer than the sentence," which is discourse. Discourse creation, or the arrangement of words beyond the sentence but beyond a paragraph, necessitates abilities. Discourse is divided into two major structures: micro and macro. The microstructure of discourse is made up of smaller chunks of language that makes up the word, phrase, clause, and sentence. The discourse proper is the macro-structure of language organization since it aids in the examination of language beyond the sentence level.

At this level of language organization, important factors such as purpose, the topic or subject matter, thesis statement and the audience are to be considered to produce a meaningful discourse. These factors are better discussed in the composition section. In another perspective, discourse is considered as a social function of language in use. When Schiffrin (1994, p. 20) defines discourse as "a particular unit of language (above the sentence), and a particular focus (on language use)," she provides a thorough definition. The explanation includes both academic viewpoints on discourse as a fragment of language outside the sentence and as language in usage. The two approaches to discourse are formalist and functional. Fasold (1990, p. 65) is one of the researchers who examined discourse from a functional standpoint. "The study of discourse is the study of any aspect of language use," he argues.

Participants use language in a context to carry out certain tasks; it is not employed in a vacuum. Because of this, utterances are contextualized. The statement made by Schiffrin (1994) that "discourse is viewed as a system (a socially and culturally organized way of speaking) through which particular functions are realized" (p.32) supports this point of view. Discourse's social functions help to distinguish its communicative function and the numerous spheres of endeavor to which it belongs. The best way to explain discourse is to do so from both structural and functional perspectives in order to demonstrate how language is utilized in social contexts and what it is used for. Discourse is both structurally and functionally based.

Evaluation task:

Task 1:

1. What are the two distinctive structures of discourse?
2. What are the factors to be considered to produce a meaningful discourse?

Task 2:

1. What are discourse analysis's guiding principles?
2. Where did discourse analysis get its start?

3. How do you distinguish between text and discourse?
4. What does the intertextuality principle entail?
5. Is discourse analysis dependent on theory? How come?
6. What does discourse analysis's interdisciplinarity entail?
7. How is the discourse analysis method of interpretation understood?

Unit 3: Textual Formats and Genre

1. Meaning of genre

The phrase "genre" has historically been employed to "distinguish between theatre, fiction, and poetry. When 'genre' started to refer to a far broader range of text kinds in the 1980s (letters, memos, essays, and proposals), it also started to influence writing instruction. These applications of the term genre were restricted in that they "simply identified text types and made generalizations about their usual forms." As a result, instruction concentrated on formats and structures, or on what and how to write a letter or a proposal rather than why we write these genres.

- A genre is a collection of communication-related activities whose participants share a common set of communication-related goals (Swales, 1990).
- A genre is a social action or speech event with communicative objectives shared by a specific speech group.
- The term "genre" describes the sort and structure of language that is commonly utilized for a certain purpose in a specific setting.

Swales and Feaks (2000) assert that a genre may be either open (public) or supported (occluded).

In discourse analysis, the concept of genre extends beyond studying the customary structures and features of various types of texts to questioning what these structures and features might tell us about the people who use the texts and what they use them for. Vijay Bhatia defines genre as follows in his book *Analyzing Genre*, building on the work of John Swales:

“(A genre is) an identifiable communication event defined by a set of communicative goals that are identified and shared by members of the community in which it happens. Most of the time, it is highly structured and conventionalized, with limitations on acceptable contributions in terms of intent, positioning, shape, and functional value. However, expert members of the discourse community frequently use these limits to attain private intents inside the context of the socially recognized purpose(s)”. (Bhatia 1993, p. 13)

First, genres are not defined as types of texts but rather as types of communicative events; second, these events are characterized by constraints on what can and cannot be done within them; and third, expert users frequently exploit these constraints in novel and unexpected ways. These three crucial aspects of this definition need to be further explained.

2. Genre as a communicative event

However, viewing genres as 'events' highlights the fact that all texts are essentially examples of people engaging in activities with or for other people. For example, a newspaper article is

an example of someone informing another person about a recent event; a recipe is an example of someone showing another person how to prepare a specific type of food; and a job application letter is an example of someone asking another person to consider him or her for a job. Genres are how things are done when language is employed to accomplish them, as Martin (1985: 250) notes. Thus, the organization of various texts is inextricably linked to the goals they seek to achieve in a certain historical, cultural, and social setting.

3. Norms and Restrictions

The way genres are organized and the characteristics they contain are mostly influenced by what people want to achieve with them because genres are about "getting things done." For instance, the material I may give in a job application would be intended to persuade a potential employer that I am the ideal candidate for the position. My chocolate brownie recipe and my thoughts on a newsworthy occurrence would likely not be included in this material. As a result, genres have limitations built into them regarding the types of things they may and cannot include based on the activity they are intended to accomplish.

How well I am able to achieve the communicative goal of the genre is frequently determined by the order in which I carry out the actions in the genre, or what genre analysis refers to as the 'move structure' of a specific genre. In order to set the stage for the material that follows, it is more effective to state which position I am applying for at the beginning of my job application letter.

3.1. Creativity However, the significance of these rules and restrictions lies not only in the fact that they improve the effectiveness of communication, but also in the fact that they serve as proof that the author of the text is familiar with "how we do things." In addition to learning what position an applicant is seeking for and what credentials or experience they possess, prospective employers read application letters to determine the applicant's writing skills. In other words, it is assumed that the writer is a "certain kind of person" with a "certain level of education" who "knows how to communicate like us" if they can effectively generate this type of genre while adhering to specific standards.

Here, there are a number of crucial points to be emphasized. The first is that without norms and restrictions, such inventiveness would not be possible, and innovations can work because they "play off" or take use of previously created expectations. The second is that the communication goal of the genre and the environment in which it is used must somehow relate to such innovation. If I want to land a job as an editor at a literary magazine, for instance, writing a job application letter in the style of a sonnet might be more successful than

if I want to land a job as a software engineer. Last but not least, mastering the art of skillfully "bending" and "blending" genres

3.2 .Discourse communities

By this point, it should be abundantly evident that the notion of belonging is at the core of the genre concept. We create and employ genres not just to complete tasks but also to identify ourselves as members of specific groups and to prove that we are capable of engaging in specific activities. Genres are constantly connected to specific social groups that share certain objectives and strategies for achieving them. In order to treat patients, doctors employ prescriptions and medical charts. Therefore, genres not only connect people to one another but also connect people to specific identities, duties, and responsibilities. Therefore, in a very real sense, genres assist in regulating and controlling what individuals can do and who they can be in a variety of circumstances (see Section A8).

There are various methods used to implement this regulation and control. First of all, it becomes far more challenging to challenge those aims since the goals of the community and the means by which those goals are to be achieved are "built-in" to the texts that members of a discourse community employ on a regular basis. Members must 'buy in' to the community's objectives because mastery of the genre is a prerequisite for membership.

Evaluation task:

1. What are the different genres of discourse?

Unit 4: Language functions

1. Language functions

There are various categorizations of language functions as put forth by various experts. According to Stubbs (1995:46), language can serve the following purposes: it can be directive, conative, persuasive, poetic, contact, metalinguistic, referential, contextual, and situational. According to Brown and Yule (1983), language serves two purposes. Transactional and Interactional are these. While interactional function deals with the expression of social ties and personal attitudes, transactional function is concerned with the expression of content.

1.2. Language function classification by M. A. K. Halliday

In the opinion of Ogunsiji (2001, p.77), "human language is essentially functional in that language is used for various purposes in society." Halliday (1970), cited by Adeyanju (2008, p.86–87), is said to have identified three general functional levels of language. Ideational, interpersonal, and textual functions are those. We will investigate each of these linguistic functional levels.

1.2.1. Ideational function

The ideational function, in the words of Halliday (1970), "implies that language serves as an instrument for the encoder (speaker, writer), to express and articulate his idea and experience internally." The conceptualizing process that underlies all of our mental operations is referred to as ideational function. We are able to comprehend what is happening around us through language. The experiential function, which deals with words and how they relate to the outside world, is a different term for this.

1.2.2. Interpersonal function

According to Ogunsiji (2001, p.77), this function is employed to create and maintain social bonds. The interpersonal function of language underlines that it is primarily a social phenomena, but it also gives the speaker the ability to project themselves in the way they want and to represent themselves. Additionally, it serves as a tool for fostering social solidarity.

3. Textual function

This function, according to Adeyanju (2008, p.87), denotes "the availability of an internal structure which makes it possible for the writer or speaker to construct texts that are not only coherent but also situationally appropriate." Textual competence is the capacity to produce lengthy writing or spoken expressions that are both coherent and cohesive. Contrary to animals, people have the ability to compose lengthy texts and sentences using specific language techniques.

1.3.The Functions of language by Roman Jakobson

After looking at additional language functions put forth by other academics, let's concentrate on those that Jakobson (1960) emphasizes. The majority of these duties overlap or are incorporated into those of other academics. He lists the following language's communicative purposes:

1.3.1. The emotive function

This function highlights the addresser's personal attitudes toward the message's matter by examining the speaker's emotional response to it. According to Danesi (2004, p.106), this role is "emotive in the sense that, regardless of how literal the message may be, its mode of delivery invariably involves the latent presence of the addresser's emotions, attitudes, social status, etc." When a speaker speaks to express their sentiments instead of a fact, they are speaking more for themselves than for the listeners who may or may not be present.

1.3..2.The Conative function

The addressee is involved in this function. The 'vocative' provides a good illustration of this. The vocative deals with the grammatical case of someone being addressed, which denotes that the speaker is addressing that person or thing directly. Regardless of the message's content, the manner the addresser delivers it incorporates such subjective elements as tone of voice, individual word choice, and other things. This effect, known as the message's "conative," is what causes the recipient to respond. When one tries to persuade others to do something, conative comes into play. Orders and prayers go under this. The vocative and imperative are the grammatical forms of conative that are most pure.

1.3.3. The Referential function

Here, the background is crucial. Dealing with a contextual issue, or contextual meaning, is the goal here. That's what "representative" means. In this instance, the meaning cannot be comprehended without a thorough understanding of the utterance's context. A referential function is present in any communication intended to provide information. The most evident use of language is in denoting objects or events, which is why words are employed. According to Osisanwo, the language user performs this duty by ensuring that the physical object that the utterance stands for is the meaning of a word or expression (2003).

1.3.4.The Phatic function

This relates to the means of communication or the vocabulary employed by two speakers to stay in contact or exchange information. Phatic communication is the use of language for all social purposes, such as communicating emotions, promoting kindness, or creating a pleasant social atmosphere, aside from asking questions or giving information. Stated differently, it

establishes, recognizes, or fortifies social bonds. These verbal exchanges—like casual remarks on the weather, more-or less-formal health inquiries, or digressions into irrelevant subjects—confirm "ties of union."

1.3.5.The Metalinguistic function

This category includes all notifications meant to disclose the code used. One example would be "The word noun is a noun." Jakobson's method states that spoken communication accomplishes goals much in excess of mere information transfer. In other words, it involves determining who says what to whom, where and when it is spoken, as well as how and why it is stated. Put differently, it is shaped and prompted by the participants, the message's substance, the setting, and the goals of each interlocutor. When there is conversation in a social context, everyone there experiences something. When language is used to discuss language, as in a dictionary or grammar, the metalingual function is at work. According to Jakobson:

“Logicians and linguists are not the only scientists who use metalanguage as a vital scientific tool. It is utilized in everyday discourse. Without being aware of it, we use metalanguage in our daily interactions. Speech is focused on the code if the addresser and/or addressee need to confirm that they use the same code; this is known as a METALINGUAL (or glossing) function.”

4. Communication Mechanism

According to Jakobson (1960), language should be studied in all of its facets. He saw that it was difficult to identify spoken signals that served only one purpose. According to the theory underlying these functions, stating something to someone includes the following mechanism:

- A Message is sent to an Addressee by an Addresser.
- The Message cannot be comprehended apart from its context.
- The Code must be understood by both the Addresser and the Addressee in order to explain the relationship between the Message and the Context.
- To transmit the Message, they must create physical contact.

Jakobson (1960) asserts that "each of these six features (Addresser-Message-Context-Contact-Code-Addressee) determines a different function of language." According to Jakobson (1960), the following traits correspond to the following language functions:

Language functions	PURPOSE
Emotive Function	Conveying Emotions
Conative Function	Conveying Commands
Referential Function	Conveying Information
Phatic Function	Concerning Contact
Metalinguistic Function	Conveying Code Analysis
Poetic Function	Conveying Play, Pleasure

Source: Yaguello, M. (1998) Language through the Looking Glass: Exploring Language and Linguistics.

6. Discourse as Action

In the actual world, we don't always create and engage in the same kind of discourse. We orient ourselves differently through the diverse forms of communication we engage in. Discourse structure, which displays typical speech acts, contexts, themes, participants' purposes, and other context elements, is a predictable relationship between all diverse activities and specific situations and speech events. There are several speech occurrences that correspond to various subjects. Expectations regarding the venue, participant role, and internal structure within a given culture also seem to increase with the conventionalization of speech acts and events; discourse structure differs among social, professional, age, gender group, and other contexts. Sociolinguistic studies on expression have mostly recorded the situational, social, and cultural variations of speech acts and events.

6. Speech act theory identification:

The smallest meaningful unit is a speech act. The more widely used social term for speech activities such as lectures, discussions, and conversations is speech event. Speech serves a variety of purposes in social interactions. The speech act's conceptual schema serves a variety of objectives. Most schemes fall into the first group, which acknowledges that a speech act conveys the speaker's mood or mental state. Another purpose of a speech act is to preserve social connections or phatic communication by putting the participants in contact or in a relationship with one another. (Austin 2003: 4) outlines distinct performatives, or statements that can be true or untrue but must have a certain social impact in order for them to serve a performative purpose.

According to linguistics and language philosophy, a speech act is an utterance that has a performative purpose in language and communication. Kent Bach states that "almost any speech act is really the performance of several acts at once, distinguished by different aspects of the speaker's intention: there is the act of saying something, what one does in saying it, such as requesting or promising, and how one is trying to affect one's audience." The term's current usage originates from J. L. Austin's theory of locutionary, illocutionary, and perlocutionary acts as well as his formulation of performative utterances. Speech acts are often understood to comprise actions like greeting, commanding, congratulating, inviting, warning, and promising.

Austin presents a novel differentiation between three distinct "aspects" of a speech in response to the broad assertion that all speech acts are essentially performative. "How to do things with words" or speech act theory's central tenet is this broad claim. Language users carry out one or more social behaviors by uttering words. We refer to these as "speech acts." The distinction between three different kinds of action is one of them. By utilizing a locution, for example, you can accomplish the social act of promising something (illocution: what the speaker does with the utterance) and persuade your audience of your commitment (per locution: what the speaker has done after making the utterance). A person's locution is their spoken pattern.

Illocution is the natural purpose of a speech act, or an action that is carried out by writing or speaking. The idea of a speech act revolves around the idea of an illocutionary performance. While there are differing views on the definition of "illocutionary acts," certain types of actions are commonly recognized as such, such as making a promise, giving someone an order, and leaving a bequest. The concept of a "illocutionary act" can be summed up by

highlighting the idea that "by saying something, we do something," such as when someone says, "Go!" to direct another person.

Perlocution: is the effect of the act, whether intended or actual. The effects may be fighting, winning, playing and enjoying oneself or passing the time.

Generally, based on the purpose of utterances Speech act divided into six kinds.

- Assertive utterances
- Commissive utterance
- Phatic utterances
- Directive utterance
- Expressive utterance
- Performative utterance

1) Assertive utterance

In the assertive function speakers and writers use language to tell what they know or believe; assertive language is concerned with facts. The purpose is to inform. Assertive utterances are either true or false, and generally they can be verified or falsified not necessarily at the time of the utterance or by those who hear them, but in a general sense they are subject to empirical investigation.

2) Commissive utterance

Speech acts that commit a speaker to a course of action are called **commissive utterances**. These include promises, pledges, threats and vows. Commissive verbs are illustrated by *agree, ask, offer, refuse, swear*, all with following infinitives. They are prospective and concerned with the speaker's commitment to future action.

3) Phatic utterances

It is quite unlikely that inquiries such as "How are you?" or "How are you doing?" are genuinely intended to elicit information. We don't presume that phrases like "I'm glad to meet you" or "It's nice to see you again" are always indicative of the speaker's true feelings. Phatic utterances, such as these ones, are used to build rapport between people who belong to the same society. Compared to the six categories covered above, phatic language has a less evident purpose, yet it is still quite significant. Phatic utterances include hellos, goodbyes, and courteous expressions like "Thank you" and "You're welcome." They also contain a variety of weather-related remarks, inquiries about people's well-being. When wishing someone well when they are about to start eating, embark on a journey, start a new business, or celebrate a social or personal festival, stereotyped expressions are frequently used.

4. Directive utterance

When someone gives a directive, they are attempting to persuade the listener to do something or not do something. Therefore, whether or not the word "you" appears in a directed speech, it is referred to as the actor in the utterance. It is possible to distinguish between three types of directive utterances: requests, instructions, and suggestions. Only when the speaker has some degree of control over the addressee's actions can a command be considered effective. A request is a statement of what the sender wishes the recipient to do or not do. A request does not imply that the speaker has authority over the recipient. The statements we make to others to advise them on what they should or shouldn't do are known as suggestions.

5) Expressive utterance

Expressive utterances are thus retrospective and speaker-involved. The most common expressive verbs (in the sense of 'expressive') are: acknowledge, admit, confess, deny and apologize.

6) Performative utterance

Speech acts that bring about the state of affairs they name are called **performative**: bids, blessings, firings, baptisms, arrests, marrying, declaring a mistrial. Performative utterances are valid if spoken by someone whose right to make them is accepted and in circumstances which are accepted as appropriate. The verbs include *bet, declare, baptize, name, nominate, pronounce*.

7. Relevance and politeness theory

One way to define politeness is as a social norm, or a set of prescriptive social 'rules'. Numerous linguists have studied politeness, such as Brown and Levinson (1987), who founded their "face theory" on the ideas that people want to be liked and not forced to do anything against their will. First, it's critical to comprehend what 'face' is. Face is the public representation of each adult that needs to be considered during social interactions. Positive and negative aspects comprise the face.

-The desire to be liked and respected is the positive face.

-The desire for independence and to not be forced upon is known as negative face.

-Use of communication techniques to establish and preserve social harmony is referred to as politeness. Numerous methods exist for achieving this:

- adhering to social and cultural norms;
- fitting in with the setting;
- meeting face needs in a way that promotes social interaction

As our goal in conversation is usually cooperation, we tend to utilize a greater numerical method the more "dangerous" we think our face-threatening deed is.

8.Conclusion

Language, discourse, and the various functions language plays in discourse were examined in this lecture using the viewpoints of Halliday and Jacobson. Given that language is essential to social cohesion and facilitates human connection and communication, we conclude that human pursuits would not be possible in the absence of language. In essence, language is a phenomenon that serves a purpose. Discourse is woven together using this thread, and the thread that language chooses to use to produce the discourse relies on the specific context that requires it. This, in turn, influences the eventual usage of the discourse. Stated differently, there exists a strong relationship between language as the basis of discourse and language as discourse itself.

Self-Assessment Exercise

Identify and discuss the functions which language performs in society?

Unit 5: Discourse in communication: Spoken and written discourse

Humans communicate mostly and exclusively through combinations of linguistic units, also known as texts, which are unique units of expression in and of themselves. Texts are defined as the entirety of linguistic organization and action, including voice, writing, gesture, posture, and all of these combined. The combination of a language's phonemes, morphemes, syntax, and semantics is suggested by the text, which must be composed of meaningful units formed from its rules.

Observe the subsequent arrangement of coherent sentences.

A: *Excuse me, could you tell me where forth street is?*

B: *Thank you, so much. . The response you would expect from a complete stranger you ask for directions from is not, by any means, "thank you so much." In this particular context, the sentence's combination is meaningless. This brings us to a basic principle of the study of language combination: humans use language not merely to express ideas but also to act out tasks. Our phrase is made up of communicative units that serve purposes in context in addition to grammatically sound units taken alone.*

1. Form and Function

Form is the study of syntactic organization up to the level of sentences, i.e., the arrangement of words and morphemes within larger group, clause, and sentence units. Another component of form is the relationship between words in sentences and clauses. For example, saying "I'm taller than you" is not the same as saying "You're taller than I am." The propositional meaning of the sentence changes when "I" and "you" are switched around in the comparative adjective. Function, on the other hand, is focused on the speech's goal or intended outcome. For example:

Father: Get the tools down off the shelf.

Son: You're taller than I am!

The son uttered "You're taller than I am" for the purpose of refusing to comply with a command. This is a very different function of than that of:

A: Which of us is taller?

B: You're taller than I am

In this instance, "You're taller than I am" answers a query with information. We were unable to determine the function of the speech based on its form, which refers to its grammatical structure or the relationships between its words.

Form and function are not entirely separated. The observation made by Hymes (1972) is that "how something is said is part of what is said." As an illustration:

I. shut the door.

II. Can you shut the door? The preceding clauses bear the form-classifications of, (I.) imperative and (II) interrogative, yet both could be assigned the functional classification of 'directive'. The verb "shut" and everything that comes after (the door, the window, your mouth, etc.) serve as the basis for the above sentence's "directive" function. Although the question in example II above appears to be "Are you willing to shut the door?" this Can you equals Would you agree that the paraphrase is flawed in "Are you willing to be quiet?" does not equate to "Can you be quiet?" However, in II, there is a purpose for the grammatical pieces (forms) that come before "shut," namely a "politeness function."

An indirect speech act is what Searle (1975) refers to as this. In other words, an utterance that indirectly fulfills a base function by acting out what appears to be a different speech act (function) form.

In II, an imperative fulfills a directive function directly; instead, an interrogative form—which is frequently employed for inquiries or "questions"—performs it indirectly. What a speaker functionally meant or indicates is understood by the listener. Grice (1975) states that an utterance satisfies four maxims for the speaker:

1. Relationship, meaning that your input should be pertinent.

2. Quality: Be truthful and genuine in your participation.

A) Never state something you feel is untrue; B) Never state something for which you have insufficient proof

3. Quantity, or giving just enough data.

a) Provide only the necessary amount of information in your submission; b) Avoid providing more information than is necessary.

4. Etiquette, is, keeping your input concise and arranging it logically

Avoid ambiguity, avoid obscurity in phrasing, be succinct, and maintain order.

There are several circumstances in which these adages could be disregarded or infringed upon. One of these plays a crucial role in explaining the communication of implicatures.

Summary of approaches to discourse

Approaches to Studying Discourse		Focus of Research	Research Question
Structural	CA	Sequences of talk	Why say that at that moment?
	Variationist	Structural categories within texts	Why that form?
Functional	Speech Acts	Communicative acts	How to do things with words?
	Ethnography of Communication	Communication as cultural behaviour	How does discourse reflect culture?
	Interactional Sociolinguistics	Social and linguistic meanings created during communication	What are they doing?
	Pragmatics	Meaning in interaction	What does the speaker mean?

2. Literary language and electronic discourse

Written and spoken discourse have always been used to think about and teach the concept of discourse. Nonetheless, a new discourse known as electronic discourse has emerged as a result of the development and widespread use of information technology in the 20th century. It can be found on homepages, Internet-relay conversations (IRC), and emails that are used for cross-border and cross-time communication. Yates (2001) defines electronic discourse as the "imaginary space created by the Internet in which people interact and form social relationships".

Internet connection through a computer, smartphone, or other device has become commonplace for many people in many so-called first world countries. Over the course of just over two decades since the public gained access to the Internet, computer-mediated communication has evolved from mostly informative websites and email exchanges to highly participatory and social forms of Internet usage. As stated by Crystal (2011, p. 149), "the Internet is the largest area of language development we have seen in our lifetimes." Yus (2011) similarly noted that "text-based communication was the main form of Internet-mediated communication in the past, and users' textual input is still crucial in virtual interactions today."

As a result, linguists began to investigate language use, and today we are able to review studies that span two decades. This could be due in part to the fact that this new kind of discourse is hard to classify because it combines elements of both spoken and written

discourse at the same time, making it neither exclusively written nor spoken. The vocabulary employed in literary criticism and general discussions about certain literary works is known as literary language. The language used in literature before the eighteenth century was very different from the language spoken or written by the average person. Thus, the average person found it difficult to understand literature. Only the most highly educated and qualified individuals could find pleasure in reading literature.

The language of literature has evolved significantly since then. Contemporary literature is composed in languages that the average person actually speaks and uses on a daily basis. Literature has grown in popularity in our day and age for this reason. Since books are now published in the same language as the reader, anyone who can read can now enjoy reading any kind of literature. Thus, literature has become more accessible to the public these days, which has led to a rise in its readership. Writing in common and everyday language has now become the norm for writers.

3. Discourse markers

Discourse markers are connecting words or phrases that are used in writing and speaking to guide the discourse or conversation in different directions. They are typically employed in formal, academic writing and have a formal tone. In contrast, they serve a variety of purposes when speaking, such as guiding the listener or demonstrating interest, and are informal.

Discourse markers are fascinating because their purpose is secondary to their meaning. They are frequently described to as "sign posting" language because they are employed to manage or shift the subject, initiate and conclude a discussion, and arrange and sequence what we say.

By doing this, we make it easier for those listening to understand what we are saying. Moreover, addition (moreover, in addition), cause and effect (as a result, because), comparison (similarly, resembling), contrast (although, however...), generalization (in general, on the whole...), emphasis (surely, especially...), illustration (for example, for instance...), time makers and sequence (first, previously...), repetition (in other words, to clarify...), and conclusion (to summarize, to sum up...) are a few examples of discourse markers. Discourse markers are typically used to:

- Mark a boundary in discourse (shift/partial shift in topic);
- Act as a filler or delaying tactic;
- Effect an interaction or sharing between speaker and hearer;
- Mark either fore grounded or back grounded information, according to Laurel, Brinton's (1990:47) justification. A large and diverse variety of linguistics elements share the role of conveying various textual interactions between units.

4. Highlighting coherence, cohesiveness, and rhetorical structure in spoken and written discourses

In addition to expressing everything coherently and in line with what they believe their listeners know or don't know, speakers must arrange the discourse to include both structure and substance. Discourse analysis, seen from a structural perspective, focuses on the aspects of textual organization that are typical of various text forms, such as opinion expression, commentary, storytelling, and instructions, as well as the explicit relationships between sentences that foster cohesiveness.

According to Rhetorical Structure Theory, ideal relationships are essential to the text's overall effectiveness. Rhetorical Structure Theory states that relationships can be classified on multiple levels. The power that holds a sentence together in a certain arrangement is referred to as structure. It alludes to the few number of conceivable configurations as well as the part-whole interactions as they occur in the phrases.

5. Grammar and Discourse Analysis

As we have indicated, the concept of "coherence" holds significant value in the analysis of discourse. We also mentioned that speech does not need to follow grammatical rules or consist of perfectly constructed phrases. Cook (1989, p.14), however, notes that formal and contextual links can also be used to account for discourse. They enable us to perceive or sense the coherence or unity of a particular spoken or written language piece. The context, the people involved, their actions, and their knowledge are some examples of non-linguistic components that form the contextual links. These properties enable us to form linguistic units that make sense to us both as a speech and as a whole.

Discourse analysis looks at the formal elements that operate across sentences, going beyond the focus that mainstream linguistics has historically placed on the formal aspects that function within sentences. Cohesive devices are the formal connections that exist between sentences and clauses. As was previously said, linguistic experts like M. A. K. Halliday (see Halliday and Hasan, 1976) have had a significant impact on discourse grammar and formal characteristics. A linguistic unit that allows a text to function as a single unit is called coherence. It alludes to the relationships between meanings found in the text. The discourse's interpretations are interdependent in cohesiveness. In this case, one need the other to be comprehended in its entirety. Thus, the semantic relationship that exists inside the text is referred to as cohesiveness. It is present when one aspect of a discourse's interpretation depends on another. In other words, one cannot properly understand the meaning of a certain premise without using or referring to another. "Cohesive resources make it possible to link

items of any size, whether below or above the clause, and to link items at any distance, whether structurally related or not," assert Halliday and Matthiessen (2004, p.536). Thus, in this section, we will talk about the grammatical terminology associated with the subject at hand.

The significance of grammar is taken into consideration since it may be difficult to produce a natural and complex discourse without a grasp of the resources provided by the language's grammar. In spoken and written discourses, grammatical relationships between individual clauses and utterances are demonstrated. These grammatical connections fall within the categories of conjunction, ellipsis, reference, and substitution.

Lexical, grammatical, and other relationships that connect different textual elements together form the network of cohesion. Because the reader or listener must interpret words and phrases in light of other words and expressions in the surrounding sentences, these relations, in a sense, organize and even generate a text. The real words and expressions that we can see or hear are connected by cohesion, which is a superficial relationship. Ellipsis, conjunctions, reference, substitution, and lexical cohesiveness are the five primary cohesive mechanisms in the English language. unity.

7.1. Reference: In semantics, the term "reference" refers to the connection that a word has with its actual meaning in the world. As a coherent device, reference is restricted to the identification link between two verbal expressions rather than signifying a direct relationship between words and extra-linguistic objects. As an illustration, Mr. Smith has quit. This morning, he declared his choice. He refers to Mr. Smith using the pronoun within the paragraph itself. In textual context, a reference is made when the reader or listener needs to use another statement in the immediate context to determine and identify what is being discussed. The consistency of reference accounts for the cohesiveness of that results.

The relationships between language and extralinguistic reality are the subject of reference. It is related to the retrieval of data for semantic meaning. Reference can also be seen as the connection that exists between an expression and its external meanings. Essentially, co-reference links come in two varieties. These substances are both exophoric and endophoric. Endophoric reference interpretation takes place within a text. Stated differently, the text forms cohesive ties. It is further separated into allusions that are cataphoric and anaphoric. Conversely, an exophoric reference is one that does not contribute to the coherence of the text. This interpretation is not contained in the text. An easier approach to phrase them would be as follows:

Exophoric Reference: Looking Outside

Endophoric Reference: Looking Inside

Anaphoric Reference: Looking Backward

Cataphoric Reference: Looking Forward

Exophoric Reference (Looking Outside): This refers to a circumstance in which an expression has an extratextual meaning. Put differently, the language in question does not have the referential meaning. To fully understand the meaning of a given document, the reader or analyst might need to think outside of it. For example, in a text, if a politician states, "I will only allow that after May 29," the reader or analyst must be aware that May 29 is Nigeria's Democracy Day in order to fully comprehend what the politician is saying. This marks the formal transfer of power from political office holders to their successors following a four-year term. As a result, it is anticipated that the analyzer here will search outside the text for the entire meaning in reference.

Therefore, exophoric references are frequently employed to allude to a reality that both the sender and the recipient of the linguistic communication share, independent of their cultural backgrounds; nevertheless, allusions that are culturally specific and outside the language learner's experiences also occur frequently (McCarthy, 1991). The phrase "We have to go for private employment since the government has placed an embargo on employment" is another example. The reader does not have to scan this example's text forward or backward. It is anticipated that the reader will look outside the text to understand that the government refers to the individuals in charge in that specific nation due to shared information or opinions between the writer and the reader.

Endophoric Reference (Looking Inside): This refers to a circumstance in which an expression has an intratextual meaning. Put otherwise, the text at hand contains the referential meaning. To find what it relates to, the analyst or reader might just need to glance forward or backward. Under the anaphoric and cataphoric references below, there are examples of endophoric references.

7.1. Anaphoric Reference (Looking backward): This is an example of a reference that looks backward. The analyst must turn this around in order to derive the intended meaning. In general, the personal pronouns "he," "she," and "it" have anaphoric meaning. In addition to personal pronouns, demonstratives such as that and the definite article the can also be employed to create anaphoric references. You can also use alternative words like one, did, above, aforesaid, the former, etc. Take a look at this instance: The president had better make an impression on his supporters during his first term if he plans to run for reelection.

7.1.2. Cataphoric Reference (Looking forward)

This type of reference is prospective in nature. To derive the intended meaning in this case, the analyst must look forward. Basically, pronouns that anticipate the noun phrases they co-occur, such as he, she, it, and they, are used as personal pronouns. One of the oldest strategies for grabbing the reader's interest in a cataphoric reference is to withhold referents. This is occasionally possible for lengthy text passages. For instance, if the president plans to run for reelection, he would be better off impressing his supporters during his first term. The analyst must look forward in the second case (cataphoric reference) to determine who the he and his refer to, but in the first example (anaphoric reference), he must look backward to determine who the he and his refer to. The terms "he" and "his" designate the president in both instances.

7.1.3. Substitution

They are grammatical ties rather than semantic ones, in contrast to reference. When something is substituted, it is done so with another item: For instance, A: Are you a movie buff?

B: Indeed, I do.

Do is used in place of like movies in the example above. The terms do, one, and the same are frequently substituted in English. Ellipsis is the removal of something. Stated differently, ellipsis is the replacement of an item with nothing. This is an example of something being understood even when it is left unsaid.

We use ellipsis when zero element appears to link to a previous part of the text. Here is an example: *Joan brought some carnations and Catherine some roses.* (brought in the second clause is ellipted.) the *he* and *his* refer to the president.

The relationship between linguistic units, such as words and sentences, is the subject of substitution. Similar to ellipsis, substitution can be used at the nominal, verbal, or clausal levels in English. The following things are frequently substituted in English: One or more ones do, the full sentence

-Substitution Nominal: One or more: I extended a drink to her. That's not what she wanted to hear.

-Verbal Substitution: Did Ayo notify the school about the modifications? Maybe he did.

Currently, John reads more than Sade does.

-Clausal Substitution: He responded that he believed they were all invited to the party when I asked.

7.1.4. The ellipsis

Ellipsis relates to deletion only. It is the leaving out of parts that are often necessary according to a language's grammar but that the author or speaker believes are clear from the context of the text. Therefore, the speaker or writer believes that there won't be any significant changes if such items are removed. The main goal of this kind of deletion is to allow language to have more grammatical coherence. There are basically three different kinds of ellipses: clausal, verbal, and nominal ellipses.

-Nominal Ellipsis: A nominal element is highlighted at this level. To put it another way, a noun item could be purposefully removed. A noun headword is frequently omitted when there is nominal ellipsis. For instance, Daniel chose the white car, whereas David liked the blue one.

-Verbal Ellipsis: A verbal element is emphasized at this level. Put otherwise, it is possible to purposefully remove a verb item.

A: Will someone be waiting, for instance?

B: Jude is going to.

.-Clausal Ellipsis: The clausal aspect is emphasized at this level. Individual clause components, particularly the subject-operator omissions, may be omitted while using clausal ellipsis in English.

A: What assignments are you due tomorrow?

B: Have fun and rest.

C. Conjunction: relates sentences, clauses, and paragraphs to one another by using formal indicators. The usage of a conjunction does not require the reader or listener to fill in structural gaps or hunt for missing information elsewhere in the text, in contrast to reference, substitution, and ellipsis. Rather, it conveys how the author/speaker wants the audience to connect the dots between what is about to be said and what has already been said. could be left out, particularly the operator-subject omissions.

A: What do you have to do tomorrow?

B: Play and sleep.

7.1.5. Conjunction

The conjunction is another grammatical device that can be used to achieve coherence. It makes use of conjunctions such as and, yet, although, but, etc. A conjunction presumes a textual sequence and indicates a link between discourse fragments. There are a lot of conjunctive items. In actuality, they are rarely exhaustive; when analyzing natural data, particularly spoken data, one will find a handful of conjunctions (and, but, so and then).

Among other meanings, conjunctions might be additive, adversative, causal, continuative, or temporal. Let's consider the following examples. Joshua does a good job. In addition, he is quite dependable (additive). I have traveled a lot, but I have never come across a place as destitute as this one (adversative). His tumble off the slope caused his injured bones (causal). She must admire you because you fulfilled all the requirements for marriage (continuative). Because I got up early, I was the first student in the classroom. (time in sequence).

Additive, oppositional, causative, and continuative conjunctions are all possible. Causative examples are but, yet, although, instead, on the other hand, nevertheless; additive examples are and, or also, in addition, additionally, besides, for example; continuative examples are now, of course, well, anyway, surely, after all.

6. Discourse analysis and Vocabulary

Lexical cohesiveness is another term for this feature. Lexis is often thought of when the term "vocabulary" is used. Lexical cohesion involves the use of lexical devices to achieve cohesion. Words maintain links of meaning that are referred to as cohesiveness. There has also been a significant impact of Halliday and Hasan (1976) on discourse vocabulary patterns. The analysis of related vocabulary words that cross act, move, and turn boundaries in speech as well as phrase and sentence boundaries in written texts is the basis for this. The two main forms of lexical coherence are collocation and reiteration.

8.1. Reiteration is the act of stating or performing something more than once or multiple times. Reiteration can take two forms: using lexical relations to reiterate the meaning of an item or directly repeating it in a later section of the discourse. Repetition, where a word is used twice to emphasize a point, and hyponymy, where a superlative phrase is used in place of a word (rose and flower, for example), are two examples of how it can appear. Rose is a synonym (when two different but related words are used interchangeably) and hyponym of flower.

Collocation is the phrase for words that seem to flow together naturally in a particular speech. These are words that flow along with one another. One brings the other to mind right away when the other is spoken. These terms are considered collocates. Different collocation kinds exist. Part and whole (building and door), part and part (driver's seat and passenger's seat), co-hyponyms (fork and knife), complementaries (brother and sister), converse (winning and dining), antonyms (coming and going during numerous seasons), and connections (teachers and students) are among them. It is impossible to overstate the importance of specific words in discourse organization and signaling discourse structure. Consequently, vocabulary is crucial to the understanding of discourse

8.2. Lexical cohesion: *this describes how language choice affects how relationships are arranged inside a document. Any lexical item can have a cohesive relation with other things in a text, but no lexical item can be considered to have a cohesive function on its own. Reiteration and collocation are the two primary categories into which lexical cohesiveness falls. As the name implies, repeating of lexical objects is what is meant by repetition. A term that is repeated can be a general word, a synonym or near-synonym, a super-ordinate, or an earlier item.*

As an illustration

A boy is ascending that tree.

If the boy doesn't take precautions, he will fall. (repetition) If he doesn't take precautions, the boy will fall. (Alternative)

If the child doesn't take precautions, he will fall. (Above).

8.3. Collocation is a subcategory of lexical cohesion that includes any situation in which two lexical elements are related to one another in the language, such as a lovely woman and a handsome guy, a husband and wife, and so forth. Similar to this, lexical relations have many types of opposites: such as boy/girl, hate/love, and obey/order

Part-whole relationships: body/arm, bicycle/wheel, car/brake.

Part-to-part relationships: brake/wheel; mouth/chin.

Co-hyponymy: chair/table (furniture); red/green (color).

People typically expect written or spoken communication to be coherent, or to make sense in the context of their everyday experiences. Naturally, each person or culture determines what constitutes "normality." We often provide a coherent interpretation for materials that may lack coherence since coherence is based on familiarity and knowledge. Our automatic interpretations of what is written or unsaid (yet communicated) have to be predicated on existing knowledge frameworks. These structures work similarly to well-known patterns from past encounters that we apply to make sense of fresh events. A schema is the most general name for this kind of pattern. An ingrained knowledge structure in memory is called a schema. Should a fixed, static pattern to the schema it is called a frame. For instance, a frame with slots providing information on what birds eat, how they reproduce, etc., might provide information about birds. Schemata that are more dynamic in nature are more frequently referred to as scripts. An event sequence-based pre-existing knowledge structure is called a script. We have scripts, for instance, that outline the typical course of events for a variety of settings, such as visiting a grocery shop, Movie Theater, restaurant, or doctor's office. We interpret stories of what happened by using scripts. Therefore, the idea of a script is just a

means of identifying a predetermined flow of events. It is rare that script details are given because most of them are presumed to be known.

Generally members of the same culture share the same frames and scripts, but with members of different cultures there may be problems of communication. Schemata and scripts, like the maxims of the cooperative principle, the politeness strategies, the mechanism of turn-taking, etc. are all culturally determined, hence the necessity of *contrastive* and *cross-cultural pragmatics*.

7. Spoken discourse : Conversational analysis

Conversational analysis, or CA for short, is a method for studying social interaction in real-world contexts, including both spoken and non-spoken behavior. As its name suggests, CA started off focusing on informal conversations, but its techniques have now been modified to include more task- and institution-centered encounters, like those that take place in courtrooms, medical facilities, law enforcement, help lines, classrooms, and media outlets. Consequently, the word "conversation analysis" has taken on a misleading connotation, although it still refers to a unique and effective method of analyzing social interactions. Conversation analysis examines spontaneous speech and demonstrates that spoken communication is methodically structured in every way (Atkinson & Heritage 1984, p.21–27). Well, it is distinct from discourse analysis in focus and method.

1. Its focus is on processes involved in social interaction and does not include written texts or larger socio-cultural phenomena.
2. Its approach seeks to ascertain the resources that the interactive .To generate interactional contributions and interpret those of others, participants rely on and employ. As a result, neither the design nor the goal of conversational analysis is to examine the creation of interaction from a viewpoint that is distinct from the participants' own understanding and reasoning about their communication and surroundings. Instead, the goal is to simulate the tools and processes used to generate those understandings. The goal is to create a model of the tools and processes used to generate those understandings.

9.1. Identifying the concepts of turn-taking

During a conversation, individuals are required to speak in designated turns and use a variety of methods to do so. The mechanisms in multi-party conversations are discovered to be more complex when there is a potential of "current speaker selects next" and when individual utterances are regularly adapted for their turn based on "sequential implicativeness." Analyses of announcements and tale prefaces demonstrate the possibility of acquiring not only the next turn, but a sequence of turns (needed, for example, in presenting a joke or story). There may

be some economy in the way that turns are assigned in a conversation. Typical turn-taking guidelines are as follows:

9.2. Turn allocational component: In casual conversation, it can be very problematic to not get your turn. We always have systems in place in our lives to apply sequential or alternating turns to organize our actions. By assigning speakers turns, participants arrange their interaction, as explained by the turn allocational component. Turns in everydayll talk next, how long their turn will last, how many parties will participate, and what each party will say.No one knows who gets to take turns before the game starts.

When a participant controls the actions of the others, this is referred to as interaction management. For example, if the speaker in the lead decides who gets to talk next, it limits the opportunity for other speakers to speak.This turn mechanism is controlled by the participantsAs indicated below, the fundamental guidelines for allocating the next turn are as follows.

1. For every turn, during the first turn building unit's transition-relevance point:

A. Should the turn structure be such that the "current speaker selects next" method is used, then that person has the right and obligation to speak next; no other person has the same rights or obligations, and the transfer takes place at that location.

B. Self-selection for the next speakership may be implemented if the turn has been structured thus far to avoid using the "current speaker selects next" technique. In this scenario, the first starter obtains the right to turn, and transfer takes place at that point.

C. If the turn so far is constructed as not to involve the use of a current speaker selects next" technique, and then current speaker may continue, unless another self selects.It can be summarized that rule 1a deals with the „current speaker selects next“, rule 1b refers to “self select“, and rule 1c with the “speaker continuation”.

9.3. Turn constructional component (TCU)

Turn Constructional Component (TCU): This refers to the fundamental units that are used to create turns. These are developing units that come in several varieties, like sentences, clauses, phrases, and words. Turns can also be thought of as an end boundary, denoted by participant turn-claiming answers. Thus, turns in this context relate to both opportunities for the speaker to take turns in conversation as well as utterances divided by the speaker's modifications.

As an illustration: Lexical TCU: "there," "yes,"

-Phrasal TCU: "out of here" and "in the basket"

-Clausal TCU: "If I get the job" and "When I am free"

-Sentential TCU: "He has my car," "I'm working on my thesis."

9.4. Adjacency pairs: Responding pairs are usually where talk happens, however sometimes the pairings will divide up over a series of turns. To create a "pair type," adjacency pairs split utterance types into "first pair parts" and "second pair parts." Adjacency pairings come in many forms, such as Question-Answers, Offer-Acceptance/Refusal, and Compliment-Response.

Pre-sequences: The primary action is considered to occur before two turns. As an illustration, consider the initial lines of an invitation or request, "What are you doing?" or "Nothing," or an announcement, "Guess what!" or "What?" The employment of "repeats," the elimination of lexical forms, the application of temporal regulators (uhm, you know, and right) in a sequential manner, the use of speech particles (uh, oh), and other consonant-prefaced short-syllabic devices (tih) are some more collections.

Crossing over and switching roles

When several people are speaking simultaneously, there's a potential that their conversations will periodically cross over or be interrupted. Overlapping turn-taking can be challenging for all parties involved. Overlaps come in four varieties: **chordal, continuers, terminal overlaps, and conditional** access to the turn.

1. Terminal overlaps: they occur when one speaker begins to talk before the other gets to the end of their turn or recognizes they have completed.

2. Continuers: demonstrate that the audience has heard and understands what is being said. Two phrases that the continuer uses are "mm hm" and "uh huh."

3. Conditional access to the turn: this implies that the lead speaker forfeits their chance to speak next or politely invites someone else to do so.

4. Chordal: consists of non-serial instances of turns, such laughter, where both speakers' turns happen at the same time.

Gail Jefferson offered a categorization scheme for overlaps and discussed it with three distinct types of overlap onsets. The three types of overlap are **transitional, progressional, and recognitional**.

1. Transitional overlap: when someone enters a conversation right before it might be coming to an end, this occurs. This frequently occurs when speakers participate in the discussion with zeal and speak continuously.

2. The phenomenon known as recognitional overlap occurs when one speaker attempts to finish a sentence for the other by guessing what else might be said. Put another way, the overlap happens when one person tries to finish a phrase while the other speaks "aloud" to convey what he understands of what is being said.

2. Progressional overlap: happens when a speaker chooses to carry on with an ongoing utterance after the preceding speaker's speech stops being fluent. One instance might be when someone is searching for the right word to say while another speaker takes advantage of the silence to begin speaking.

4.1.2. The two Butterworth's models of discourse generation

Language users create the semantic representations, or text base, that underpin a discourse by, among other things, reading pertinent propositions from their situation models under certain limitations. The Context Model and Control System are the two main tenets of Butterworth's (1980) theory of discourse generation.

4.1.2.1.Contextual Model: Discourse production is a crucial component of a communication environment, of course. It does not occur in a vacuum. In order for speakers to effectively integrate their speech into the context, they also need to possess a **context model**, which is a memory representation of context. Information on the speech actors, their objectives, and the nature of the social context in which it is used are all included in this model. What information can or must be retrieved from the scenario model depends on the style and content that are controlled by the context model. Certain subjects are off limits in particular contexts. Therefore, context models keep an eye on the strategic searches both within and through models (what information about the scenario should be addressed) and episodic memories (which models are significant).

The information transfer between short-term and long-term memory is managed by the **control system**. It details which scripts and models need to be enabled, as well as which of their fragments need to be really collected for production. Additionally, the control system includes the type of speech act and communicative objectives that must be fulfilled by uttering a discourse in a specific context (such as an assertion, threat, or accusation), either locally at the level of individual speech acts or globally at the level of macro-speech acts that regulate a longer discourse stretch.

4.1.3. Product and process analysis

Human language activity primarily takes place along two domains: spoken and written word. Some people refer to the former as "conversation," while others commonly term the latter "literature." These, taken together, are the main ways that humans produce written language. In addition to spoken, oral texts and the corresponding talent they represent (often referred to as "orality" or "oracy"), there are written works, usually literary writings. competence (sometimes called "orality" or "oracy"); written works exist, primarily in the literary domain.

4.1.4 Processing and previous knowledge

The concept of prior knowledge is fundamental in the literature pertaining to reading and writing. Interactants can converse with one another through spoken or written text because of their conceptual expertise. Prior knowledge is described as "knowledge about events, persons, and the like which provides a conceptual framework for interacting with the world" by Marr and Gormley (1982, p. 90). Schallert (1982) takes the idea a step further and defines it as all that an individual knows, including explicit and tacit knowledge of protocols and common ways to communicate information.

A conceptual framework of knowledge is developed by Alexander et al. (1991), which includes knowledge of text structure, syntax, and rhetoric as part of one's discourse knowledge and domain and discipline knowledge as part of general content knowledge. The process of language is dynamic. One is tempted to believe that language itself has the same static nature because written language has been the focus of so much linguistic investigation (Linell 1982). However, the image of a flowing stream serves as a more accurate metaphor for language in motion. Actually, there are two streams: a stream of noises and a stream of thoughts. Since sounds can be seen by the public, analysts can deal with them more easily. Because thoughts are experienced inside the mind, they are less tractable to objective research.

However, ideas take precedence over sounds because language is really about organizing and communicating ideas. The sounds follow the thoughts wherever they may go because they exist to serve the thinking. Language advances because of the thoughts that it contains.

Discourse analysis faces the fundamental challenge of identifying the forces that direct the flow of ideas. Listening to a recorded conversation with the intention of identifying topics—discourse segments in which one or more speakers discuss "the same thing"—can be the initial step in the discourse analysis process. In addition to their content, topics can also be identified by phonetic cues: longer than usual pauses before new topics are introduced, increased pitch, loudness, acceleration, or a change in voice quality at the beginning, and a tapering off of these same prosodic features at the end are examples of phonetic cues that may be present. Reduction is a suitable word to use. Ultimately, any conceivable written form that may be created today can capture the whole physical, social, and cognitive context in which it occurred.

4.1.5. Elements of processing:

Discourse processing is sometimes seen as a sentence processing extension. The psychology of discourse processing has highlighted the fundamental component of discourse

comprehension, which is the primarily semantic nature of the processes involved. A language user, such as a hearer or reader, must essentially give each text unit a semantic structure in order for them to be understood. We also have a global interpretation process in discourse understanding. A reader cannot understand a text or a part of a text unless they are able to determine the theme, topic, or essence of the text. When we read and comprehend a text's series of sentences, we will either know or attempt to know what the sequence is about.

Semantic macrostructures are used to explicitly translate this type of global interpretation. Again, at a different level of interpretation, these macro-structures are propositional sequences. Our goal is to maintain a cohesive set of propositional data that embodies the different elements or occurrences of a widely recognized episode in society. Subsequently, we replace the individual propositions with a single proposition that fully captures the episode.

Evaluation task:

Reference: Identify the references in the following texts:

Exercise 1

Every organization, as soon as it gets to any size (perhaps 1,000 people), begins to feel a need to systematize its management of human assets. Perhaps the pay scales have got way out of line, with apparently similar-level jobs paying very different amounts; perhaps there is a feeling that there are a lot of neglected skills in the organization that other departments could utilize if they were aware that they existed. Perhaps individuals have complained that they don't know where they stand or what their future is; perhaps the unions have requested standardized benefits and procedures. Whatever the historical origins, some kind of central organization, normally named a personnel department, is formed to put some system into the haphazardry. The systems that they adopt are often modelled on the world of production, because that is the world with the best potential for order and system.

Exercise 2

We all tend to complain about our memories. Despite the elegance of the human memory system, it is not infallible, and we have to learn to live with its fallibility. It seems to be socially much more acceptable to complain of a poor memory, and it is somehow much more acceptable to blame a social lapse on 'a terrible memory', than to attribute it to stupidity or insensitivity. But how much do we know about our own memories? Obviously we need to remember our memory lapses in order to know just how bad our memories are. Indeed one of the most amnesic patients I have ever tested was a lady suffering from Korsakoff's syndrome,

memory loss following chronic alcoholism. The test involved presenting her with lists of words; after each list she would comment with surprise on her inability to recall the words, saying: 'I pride myself on my memory!' She appeared to have forgotten just how bad her memory was'.

Substitution and ellipsis

Identify examples of substitution and ellipsis in this text:

Exercise 3

The human memory system is remarkably efficient, but it is of course extremely fallible. That being so, it makes sense to take full advantage of memory aids to minimize the disruption caused by such lapses. If external aids are used, it is sensible to use them consistently and systematically - always put appointments in your diary, always add wanted items to a shopping list, and so on. If you use internal aids such as mnemonics, you must be prepared to invest a reasonable amount of time in mastering them and practising them. Mnemonics are like tools and cannot be used until forged. Overall, however, as William James pointed out (the italics are mine): 'Of two men with the same outward experiences and the same amount of mere native tenacity, the one who thinks over his experiences most and weaves them into systematic relations with each other will be the one with the best memory.'

Exercise 4

This conflict between tariff reformers and free traders was to lead to the "agreement to differ" convention in January 1932, and the resignation of the Liberals from the government in September 1932; but, until they resigned, the National Government was a genuine coalition in the sense in which that term is used on the continent: a government comprising independent yet conflicting elements allied together, a government within which party conflict was not superseded but rather contained - in short, a power-sharing government, albeit a seriously unbalanced one.

Exercise 5

The number of different words relating to 'camel' is said to be about six thousand. There are terms to refer to riding camels, milk camels and slaughter camels; other terms to indicate the

pedigree and geographical origin of the camel; and still others to differentiate camels in different stages of pregnancy and to specify in-numerable other characteristics important to a people so dependent upon camels in their daily life (Thomas, 1937)

Exercise 6

There were, broadly, two interrelated reasons for this, the first relating to Britain's economic and Imperial difficulties, the second to the internal dissension in all three parties.

Conjunction

Identify examples of conjunction in the following texts:

Exercise 7

These two forms of dissent coalesced in the demand for a stronger approach to the Tory nostrum of tariff reform. In addition, trouble threatened from the mercurial figure of Winston Churchill, who had resigned from the Shadow Cabinet in January 1931 in protest at Baldwin's acceptance of eventual self-government for India.

Exercise 8

These two sets of rules, though distinct, must not be looked upon as two co-ordinate and independent systems. On the contrary, the rules of Equity are only a sort of supplement or appendix to the Common Law; they assume its existence but they add something further.

Lexical cohesion

Identify examples of lexical cohesion in the following texts:

Exercise 9

The clamour of complaint about teaching in higher education and, more especially, about teaching methods in universities and technical colleges, serves to direct attention away from the important reorientation which has recently begun. The complaints, of course, are not unjustified. In dealing piece-meal with problems arising from rapidly developing subject matter, many teachers have allowed courses to become over-crowded, or too specialized, or they have presented students with a number of apparently unrelated courses failing to stress

common principles. Many, again, have not developed new teaching methods to deal adequately with larger numbers of students, and the new audio-visual techniques tend to remain in the province of relatively few enthusiasts despite their great potential for class and individual teaching.

Exercise 10

When we look closely at a human face we are aware of many expressive details - the lines of the forehead, the wideness of the eyes, the curve of the lips, the jut of the chin. These elements combine to present us with a total facial expression which we use to interpret the mood of our companion. But we all know that people can 'put on a happy face' or deliberately adopt a sad face without feeling either happy or sad. Faces can lie, and sometimes can lie so well that it becomes hard to read the true emotions of their owners. But there is at least one facial signal that cannot easily be 'put on'. It is a small signal, and rather a subtle one, but because it tells the truth it is of special interest. It comes from the pupils and has to do with their size in relation to the amount of light that is falling upon them.

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Unit 6: Context and discourse analysis

1. Introduction

In his 1923 paper, "The Problem of Meaning in Primitive Languages," anthropologist Bronislaw Malinowski argued that we cannot understand the words spoken by members of societies very different from our own through simple translation, which is where the idea that the meaning of utterances depends on the context in which they are produced originated. To put it another way, meaning is conveyed not just through words but also through the ways in which words are incorporated into histories, social structures, aims and activities, and the values, beliefs, and ideologies of a specific cultural group.

Determining precisely which elements of the circumstance or of "cultural knowledge" must be taken into consideration in the creation and interpretation of utterances is a challenge with this concept. "Context" can refer to almost anything, including the speaker's political or religious convictions, the location and time of day of a speech, the color of their attire, and more. How does the discourse analyst distinguish between context's relevant and irrelevant elements for the creation and interpretation of conversation? More importantly, how do those having a conversation figure this out?

2. Context relevant and irrelevant elements :Discourse analysts' views:

Numerous academics have put forth models to answer this question since Malinowski. For instance, linguist John Firth (1957) suggested that there are three distinct components to context:

The result of the linguistic action;

2) The pertinent items in the circumstance; and

3) The pertinent characteristics of the participants, persons, and personalities.

Even while Firth's approach emphasizes what are unquestionably important context-related factors, one still questions why some context-relevant elements are included while others are omitted. For example, why does his model not include the time or place?

Furthermore, Firth does not adequately explain how such relevance is to be established, despite the fact that his insight—that only elements that are "relevant" to the communication under analysis should be considered context—is one of the most significant features of his model.

..The most well-known model of context is arguably the one created by linguist Michael Halliday, whose theories regarding text structure and language functions we have already

covered. With a strong reference to Malinowski and Firth's research, Halliday also put forth a three-part model of context. According to him, there are three components to context:

- 1) Field, which is the social action occurring;
- 2) Tenor, which is the participants, their roles, and their relationships; and
- 3) Mode, which is the symbolic or rhetorical channel and the function that language serves in the circumstance.

With his idea of register, Halliday goes a little bit further than Firth in clarifying the connection between actual language use and context. According to Halliday, "register" refers to the various ways that language is employed in various contexts, taking into account elements like the formality and content of speech. Said and written language are the two main categories of register differentiation .

Hymes's research centered on the relationship between language and social life and how knowledge of broader social and cultural contexts might be gained through language usage and comprehension. He maintained that language proficiency on its own is insufficient for effective communication. In addition, individuals must become proficient in a variety of guidelines, customs, and norms pertaining to who to say what to, when, where, and how—a skill he dubbed "communicative competence.". He wrote: It is insufficient to just share grammatical rules (variety). There might be people whose messages I can understand properly, but whose English escapes me. I might not know what constitutes a cohesive sequence, request, statement that needs to be answered, required or prohibited topic, emphasis or ironic marking, normal length of silence, normal volume of voice, etc., and I might not have the metacommunitative means or opportunity to learn such things. (Hymes 1974, p. 49)

Hymes consequently posed the following query: "What kinds of things do participants in particular activities or speech events need to know in order to demonstrate that they are competent members of a particular speech community?" Hymes defined a speech community as a collection of individuals that adhere to the same standards and guidelines for utilizing and understanding at least one language variety in certain settings, rather than just being speakers of the same language.

Hymes created a model of what he believed to be the fundamental components of context, just as Halliday and Firth. However, Hymes's has eight components, each of which starts with a letter from the word "**SPEAKING**," as opposed to merely three.

S represents setting,

P represents participation,

and E represents ends.

A represents act sequence.

K represents key.

I represents instrumentalities.

G represents genre, and N stands for social norms.

3. The Three approaches to discourse analysis

Discourse analysis has been approached in many various ways over the years, and in this book we will examine some of these approaches and practice using them to analyze texts and conversations from our own experiences. For the time being, it suffices to note that discourse analysts have essentially approached the problem from three different angles, each based on a different interpretation of what discourse is.

Those who start with this definition frequently attempt to comprehend the kinds of guidelines and customs that control the ways in which we combine clauses and sentences to form writings. Some adopt a more practical perspective, characterizing speech as "language in use." This definition raises concerns about how people use language to request things, give warnings, and apologize in various contexts, as well as how we understand what other people are attempting to say when they write or talk.

Lastly, there are many who define speech as a type of social practice and adopt what is known as a social approach. This means that the way we form various social identities, connections, and engage in various organizations and institutions is closely linked to the way we use language. Lastly, some adopt what could be referred to as a social approach, viewing discourse as a form of social practice. This means that our language use is influenced by the various social identities and relationships we create, as well as the various organizations and institutions we engage in. It has to deal with questions of morality and ethics, power dynamics, and what we should say and do in order to "fit in" with our cultures in various contexts.

The stance we will be taking in this study is that, despite the fact that these three distinct approaches to discourse are frequently treated as distinct and are undoubtedly connected to various historical traditions and discourse analysts, it is necessary to consider all three of these perspectives in order to conduct a good discourse analysis. It would be more accurate to view them as three interconnected discourse features rather than three distinct definitions of discourse. It is actually impossible to separate how people use language from how it is constructed, and it is also impossible to separate how people use language to express who they are and what they think from the things they use language for in specific contexts.

3.1.The language used above the clause

Zellig Harris, a linguist who aspired to further linguistics research in the 1950s, is most likely credited with coining the term "discourse" to refer to language that is above the level of a phrase or clause. Prior to this, linguists had made significant progress in their comprehension of the relationship between sounds, words, and sentences. Harris's goal was to comprehend the construction of phrases into texts. Even before Harris coined the term "discourse analysis," the notion that texts could be examined in terms of their formal structure was widely accepted in the early and middle of the 20th century, particularly in the literary community. For example, the Russian Formalists were a group of literary critics who attempted to evaluate stories and novels using the same techniques used to study sentence structure. Vladimir Propp, who attempted to create a "grammar of stories" by researching Russian folktales, is arguably the most well-known.

The approach to discourse analysis that Harris put forward, which he named "distributional analysis," was largely similar to grammatical analysis techniques. The goal was to pinpoint certain linguistic traits and ascertain their position within texts in relation to other traits, or which traits appeared "in the same environment" as other traits. He also wanted to know how these characteristics link to non-linguistic activity outside of texts, or how the form that texts take is influenced by the social contexts in which they occur. Discourse analysts who followed him, however, were actually the ones who had to find out exactly how to study the relationship between texts and the social contexts in which they are utilized. When examining the formal side of discourse, our primary attention is on the way that various textual or conversational components are combined to create cohesive wholes. We typically search for two different types of things in this regard. We search for linguistic elements (words and grammar) that serve to connect the various sections of the text or conversation, and we also consider the text's overall structure. These two concepts are coherence (the overall pattern or sequence of elements in a text or conversation that conforms to our expectations about how various types of texts or interactions ought to be) and cohesiveness (how pieces of the text are "stuck together," as we stated in Section A2).

3.2.The language in use

Discourse analysts also pay attention to how individuals really use language in particular settings to accomplish goals. This is known as the second element of discourse. As was mentioned in Section A1, it is very frequently very difficult to interpret the meaning of a piece

of language without taking into account the social context in which it is being used and the intention of the person using it.

This understanding of discourse emerged from the work of several significant academics, such as Michael Halliday, whose method of studying grammar was very different from previous methods in that it placed more emphasis on the social purposes that language served than on the forms that language took. The study of language in use can be done in many different ways. One approach is to view discourse as a form of action in and of itself, and to investigate how, we are genuinely acting when we write or say something. Examples of these actions include apologizing, promising, threatening, or making requests. Examining the function of discourse in particular activities and how various discourses make particular acts or activities simpler or harder to complete are additional ways to analyze language in use (Lastly, we may think about how people intentionally use language to try to convey how they understand a situation or to manage their relationships with the people with whom they interact.

3.3. Language and "Social practice"

The function of language in "social practice" is the subject of discourse's third component. Not only is language considered a means of conveying meaning, but it is also considered an integral of more extensive structures that individuals use to create their social identities and realities. Language is used in different ways by different people. A hip-hop musician speaks in a different way than an English teacher. And these many linguistic idioms serve to illustrate our individuality as well as our varied worldviews, worldviews, and worldviews.

The French philosopher Michel Foucault, who maintained that discourse is the primary means by which humans create "knowledge" and exercise control over others, is most likely responsible for this understanding of discourse. Various "systems of knowledge" and types of individuals are linked to distinct discourses, often known as "discourses." Foucault (1972, p. 111) discussed several forms of speech, including the natural history discourse, clinical discourse, economic discourse, and psychiatric discourse. To set this discourse theory apart from the others we have discussed, American discourse analyst James Gee utilizes a capital "D." Talks are "ways of being in the world, or forms of life which integrate words, acts, values, beliefs, attitudes, and social identities," according to him (1996, p. 127).

This discourse feature invites us to investigate how language is used to promote particular worldviews and power structures, as well as how discourse shapes and sustains our social structures, values, and beliefs. This perspective on discourse places a strong emphasis on the

idea that discourse is always "ideological," which implies that it always has "an agenda" and ultimately serves the interests of some individuals over those of others.

4.Examining discourse and social context

Discourse analysis considers the ways in which linguistic formalities and situational aspects provide texts coherence and cohesiveness. Cook (1989, p. 12) distinguished sentence linguistics and discourse analysis as the two primary approaches to language. The study of language's formal linguistic features, particularly a sentence's structure, is the primary focus of the former. Contextual features, or our understanding of the world outside of language, allow us to interpret and give meaning to our communication activities. According to this approach to language, contextual features should not be included in language analysis. According to them, the laws governing a certain language should be the foundation for language analysis, not any outside factors. Sentence linguists, therefore, limit their research to sentence-level phenomena. Discourse is defined as a specific linguistic unit that is used above the sentence or clause by sentence linguists. According to Schiffrin (1994, p.20), this is a formalist paradigm or discourse perspective.

The functionalist paradigm is the alternative discourse approach that acknowledges the critical role that situational and cultural contexts play in the interpretation of language, according to Schiffrin (1994,p.20). Discourse is defined by functionalists as the use of words. Schiffrin states that discourse is "viewed as a system (socially and culturally organized way of speaking) through which particular functions are realized" (p.32) in the functionalist approach. Discourse's functional definitions presuppose that language and context are interdependent (34). This method investigates the relationship between language, culture, and social setting. According to Barbara Johnstone (2002, p.50), "As people construct discourse, they draw on the resources provided by culture," functionalists hold this belief. Every conversation reinforces the grammatical patterns and culturally-associated beliefs since every instance of discourse is another example of a belief being expressed or laid out. In addition, individuals behave in novel ways throughout discourse, which implies novel patterns and perspectives on the world.

Therefore, in the study of data, discourse analysis considers non-linguistic factors such as the speaker's race, sex, age, class, occupation/profession, nationality, religion, geography, and so on. conversation from a functional perspective holds that a thorough knowledge of conversation or text requires more than just a grasp of language's formal characteristics. The influential work of J.R. Firth and other neo-Firthians, such as M.A.K. Halliday, Ruqaiya

Hasan, John Spenser, and Michael Gregory, is greatly acknowledged in this understanding of language or discourse.

5. The five domains of discourse construction

When we write or talk, we modify our words to suit the audience or situation we are speaking to. Language has a magical power. However, the exact setting or context that we write or speak about is also created by us. The implication seems to be that we adapt our language to fit within a framework or circumstance that our language first contributed to. Together with language use, non-linguistic symbol systems, actions, relationships, objects, tools, technologies, and unique ways of thinking, valuing, feeling, and believing, we constantly and actively construct and reconstruct our reality. Sometimes the things we make are pretty similar to the things we've already built. There are moments when the work we do is strikingly similar to previous work, and moments when it is not. However, language is a dynamic activity that is used everywhere and at all times. Five things, or five domains of reality, are always and concurrently constructed by us when we talk or write:

1. Aspects of the material world and their significance: assign meanings to the material world.
2. Activities: We engage in "chit-chat" prior to the formal start of the meeting, or we engage in one manner of speaking and acting while formally starting a committee meeting.
3. Relationships and identities: one minute we are speaking and behaving as the "chair" of the committee, and the next we are acting and chatting with a peer or colleague.
4. Connections: We speak and behave in a way that makes the points we are making here and now relevant to the experiences of more minority listeners.
5. Semiotics: we speak and behave according to various symbol systems and knowledge forms that are significant, or not, in order to elevate the legal profession's expertise and language above that of the general public.

6. Topics of discourse

Argument, narrative, description, and exposition are the four conventional categories of discourse. Though most authors, writers, and speakers employ multiple approaches simultaneously, discourse is typically believed to include nearly all forms of communication, both written and oral. In certain instances, entire papers or speeches rely solely on one style. There are typically some rather distinguishable qualities that make each type better suited for a particular set of situations. Moreover, the objectives frequently vary. When it comes to communicating their ideas and reaching their target audiences, authors and speakers typically employ the strategies they believe would work best.

6.1. Argumentation:

The act of approving or rejecting the opinions, theories, and recommendations of an arguer is known as contention. Using reasoning and appealing to the audience's sense of reason, an author or speaker aims to persuade an audience that their point of view is valid through argumentative writing or speaking. You can use this format for almost anything, including political speeches, sermons, essays, and lectures. A thesis statement is an unambiguous declaration of the writer or speaker's thoughts or opinions that comes first in an argument. The evidence must then be organized and presented in a comprehensible manner. The audience should concur with the argument if they accept the evidence. While the two are frequently used interchangeably, argumentation is not always the same as persuasion.

The distinction typically comes down to strategy, with many linguists viewing persuasion as more a question of voice and style than a real discourse level. Argumentative authors and speakers provide proof to support their positions and persuade listeners that they are rationally correct on a certain issue. On the other hand, the goal of persuasion is to persuade a listener to adopt a certain viewpoint and to act on it. For instance, a persuasive argument may persuade the audience to support a certain political candidate on a given subject, but a persuasive persuasion should convince the audience to vote for that candidate.

6.2. Description: It is a demonstration of the appearance of anything. In order to make anything instantly memorable and relevant, those who employ description typically depend on one or more of the five human senses.

Its primary purpose is to aid viewers in visualizing characters and locations, but it can also evoke a specific feeling or atmosphere in the audience. In order to give readers and listeners an idea of something's tangible characteristics, the writer or speaker use nouns and adjectives.

6.3. Exposition

The purpose of the "exposition" tool is to educate the reader about a certain subject that can be covered in writings such as essays, theses, summaries, and so on. Writers and presenters can utilize a variety of explanatory techniques, such as definition, analysis, comparison and contrast, problem and solution, and cause and effect. Every kind of exposition has a distinct function and a variety of strengths and drawbacks. Giving someone the meaning of a term, for instance, conveys one kind of information, but contrasting and comparing two opposing viewpoints frequently creates a very different impression.

6.4. Storytelling

Telling a tale is usually the primary objective of narrative writing and speaking, frequently with the intention of changing the audience's perspective on a particular subject. Stories can be told through plays, novels, folktales, memoirs, or myths. This kind of communication typically appeals to the humanity of the audience by illustrating situations that spark the imagination or by referencing to shared experiences or emotions. One of the most excellent and well-researched subfields in the multidisciplinary study of discourse is narrative analysis. It is the encoding of past experiences that happened in a past time story world at a certain moment in time or over a given period of time.

Stories are connected to past occurrences in history. Events in narratives are created not in a vacuum, but rather as a component of social directives on certain circumstances, with particular objectives and goals in mind. From the perspective of psycholinguistics, narrative is not a static system; rather, it has the ability to choose and arrange stored information into meaningful patterns. There are two main types of narrative discourse: narrative and non-narrative.

1. The goal of narrative discourse is to create a community of rapport between the narrator and the audience in order to strengthen and increase closeness between participants.

While nonnarrative discourse focuses on rationality, narrative discourse explores our inner imagination process.

2. In non-narrative conversation, knowledge is presented along with the needs of persuasion, proof, and refutation. According to Siddiq et al. (2021) there is a difference in the prototype function between the two modalities.

7. Conclusion

A wide range of insights into the complex link between language, communication, and the various facets of society are revealed by the investigation of discourse analysis (Suparno et al., 2023, 2023). Discourse analysis is a methodological compass that helps researchers navigate the ever-changing landscape of language use since it is equipped with a deep knowledge of contextual nuances. Its attributes provide a framework that goes well beyond the surface level of language (Gollobin, 2020; Oruç Ertürk & Mumford, 2017; Simpson, 1993). These attributes range from interpretive attitude and identity negotiation to contextual sensitivity and power dynamics. The variety of discourse analysis approaches broadens the scope of this methodology by providing specific lenses for analyzing language in a range of circumstances. Understanding how language functions as a medium for meaning, influence, and representation is enhanced by the various types of discourse analysis, which range from

the examination of power dynamics in critical discourse analysis to the study of personal narratives in narrative discourse analysis (Ariana, 2016; Fairclough, 2013; Jen Renkema, 2009; Xiong & Qian, 2012).

Discourse analysis is more than just an intellectual endeavor, though. It is the secret to deciphering the complex society narratives, identity formation processes, and reality construction processes. While historical and postcolonial discourse analysis reveals layers of ideologies and legacies imprinted in language in the past and present, their examination of the increasingly digital landscape of today reveals the changing nature of language in online spaces (Bergman et al., 2022; Esau, 2021; R. H. Jones et al., 2015; Moreno-Almeida, 2021; Moshinsky, 2022; Susilo & Sugihartati, 2019).

Discourse analysis is not limited to its immediate uses. It highlights the ability of words to shape reality, affect perceptions, and upend established norms. Discourse analysis explores how words, silences, and visual clues interact to shape public opinion, cultural norms, and even individual mental processes. These hidden forces can be revealed via careful examination (Arief et al., 2020; Lee, 2018; Munalim, 2020; Stubbs, 2017).

Discourse analysis provides a means of accessing the mechanisms that underlie language's function as a social construct in a world where communication is the fundamental component of human relationships (Andrew, 2017; Bloome et al., 2004; Gollobin, 2020). We may negotiate the complexities of language with heightened sensitivity and a critical eye thanks to its voyage into the core of meaning-making, the negotiation of identities, and the navigation of power dynamics. Discourse analysis ultimately serves as a reminder that words have enormous power and have consequences that go well beyond syntax and semantics; they mold the stories that define our lives (Fasold Deborah, 1989; Leymarie & Makoni, 2017; N. X. Liu et al., 2021; McKeown et al., 2018; Mirian Urgelles-Coll, 2010; Munn & Smith, 2013; Robin Cooper, 2016).

Evaluation task

Task 1:

-What are the three approaches to discourse analysis?

-What are the main topics of discourse?

Task 2:

1. How does discourse function in relation to society?

2. What contextual elements influence discourse structure?

3. Discuss the following passages:

"Discourse is in fact how society is performed" (Bowers & Iwi 1993: 387).

"Using language is invariably and always putting oneself in specific positions" (Kress 1990: 90)

"Literary works are intricately consubstantial with ongoing processes of discourse in society as a whole, far from being airless aesthetic heterocosms" (Sell 1991: xxi)

Unit 7: Discourse analysis in practice

1. Classroom discourse

1.1. Introduction

Discourse in the classroom is centered on the exchanges between the instructor and the pupils. There are various models for classroom discourse that can be used to support teacher-student conversation in the classroom. The Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) model is one of these models. This paradigm, which is built on a hierarchy of discourse units, was created to explain teacher-student conversation. It is assumed that classroom conversation "consists of three parts: a teacher's initiation, a student's response, and a teacher's conclusion." Feedback is often referred to as IRE (Initiation, Response, and Feedback/Evaluation), or IRF for short. Some authors and practitioners prefer to use IRE to represent the reality that instructor feedback is typically an assessment of a student's work. Instructors are always evaluating students' utterances for accuracy and providing them with feedback.

The discourse of a teacher is the language they employ to accomplish their goals (Sinclair and Brazil, 1982). Because of the imbalance of power between the teacher and the students, classroom discourse is distinct in its context. Instructors often take charge of the class, exert dominance during encounters, and start conversations. A typical discourse consists of the instructor posing a question, getting an answer from one or more students, and then assessing the student's response (Nunan, 1999). In a classroom context, natural language elements like turn-taking, intonation, and exchanges are modified (McCarthy, 1991). In the classroom, turn-taking is scheduled and mostly under teacher supervision (Brazil, 1995). To emphasize key information, teachers commonly employ tonal units with significant syllables because they play a dominant role in the classroom.

2. Classroom discourse models

There are various theories for classroom discourse analysis that explain the discourse in the context of teaching and learning as well as the power dynamics that exist there. The project's instructions insisted that the student researcher select one model and examine classroom conversation from the perspective of that model in order to see the power connection and the observed discourse analysis. The student researcher chose Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) model for this purpose.

2.1. The model proposed by Sinclair and Coulthard

Based on a hierarchy of discourse units, they created a model for characterizing teacher-pupil dialogue. This model makes the assumption that classroom conversation "follows a fairly typical and predictable structure, comprising three parts: an instructor-initiated discussion, a

student-responded discussion, and an instructor-provided feedback, commonly referred to as IRF or IRE: Initiation, Response, and Feedback/Evaluation." Certain authors and practitioners favor IRE because they acknowledge that instructor feedback is typically an assessment of a student's work. Instructors are always evaluating students' speech and providing them with constructive criticism. "A triadic structure used in recitation scripts is called an RF.

(The term "triadic" merely means that there are three steps in every exchange: usually an inquiry, a response, and a follow-up.) It is challenging to provide a sound interpretation, though, in order to evaluate how well the talk enhanced learning. It is teacher centered and guided. It also has a mechanical appearance. That means there is no learning but teaching in the classroom (Hailom B., 2016 Lecture).

One of the model's drawbacks is that it presumes English instruction in an English-speaking environment, which may be challenging for non-native English speakers. According to Duranti and Goodwin (1992) and van Dijk (1998)b, context is the mentally represented structure of the social situation's characteristics that are significant for the creation or understanding of discourse. Ethiopians who are learning English as a second language or from abroad are unable to completely comprehend the context if it is defined in terms of mentally represented structure since they do not have a mental representation of the English property structure. However, the model views instruction as being directed and centered around the teacher. Learning cannot be promoted by this type of instruction since students wait for the teachers' guidance. They are unable to act on what they have learned on their own. Similar critiques have been leveled at language schools whose discourse is perceived as fitting too neatly into the S&C three-stage paradigm. In support of his claim that this type of discourse heavily relies on teacher display questions—questions in which the teacher already knows the answer and is only interested in knowing if the student can correctly answer it—De Boer (2009) references Chaudron (1988), Long & Sato (1983), Ohta (2001), and Wells (1999). This is detrimental since it prevents students from having the chance to engage in meaningful communication due to their excessive use (Thornbury, 2000, cited in de Boer, 2009).

The Sinclair and Coulthard model's definition and methods include the following components.

2.1.1. The Rank Scale

A hierarchical structure based on Halliday (1961) is used in the S&C model. According to Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), lessons are the highest rank and consist of "an unordered series of transactions." Analysis of this rank is moot since there is no constraint on the sequence in

which transactions must occur within a lesson. A pursuit such as "ordering varies from teacher to teacher" could not lead to a structural declaration (ibid., p. 60).

2.1.2. Exchanges and Moves

In classroom discourse, Sinclair and Coulthard distinguish between two sorts of exchanges: teaching exchanges and boundary exchanges. Teacher-initiated boundary exchanges mark the change from one lesson segment to the next, whereas teaching exchanges involve questioning and answering as well as providing feedback on responses.

2.1.3. Acts and Moves

Acts, which comprise movements, are 'the lowest rank of speech' (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975, p. 27) and are 'similar to morphemes (...) in grammar' (ibid, p. 23) in that they are not fragmentable into smaller parts.

Classroom discourse analysis

Initiation	Response	Feedback
Opening move (elicit) Making students to remember the previous class. Ex: what is the use of "but.... For"?	Discussion with groups	Follow-up: teacher was moving here and there to check the discussion Ex: I think you have finished?
Opening move (elicit) Ex: who can give me an example?	Answering (with conditional type 2 and 3)	Teacher gave a feedback by writing the answers on board
Opening move (elicit) Okay, this group?	Answering (with conditional type 2 and 3)	Teacher gave positive feedback. Ex: okay, good.
Focusing move Ex: anyone else?	Answering (with conditional type 2 and 3)	Teacher gave positive feedback. Ex: thank you very much.

3. Analysis of written text

The task that follows is centered on text analysis and is laid out as follows:

- Details regarding the author's objective, target audience, and text's purpose.
- The text's genre and textual structure.

The lexical cohesiveness of the first two paragraphs is thoroughly examined.

A comprehensive examination of the third and subsequent paragraphs with regards to lexical coherence.

- A succinct synopsis of the conclusions drawn from the two sorts of analysis.
- A list that includes references at the end.

To begin with, the text selected for the analysis was Mary Shelley's first chapter of "Frankenstein". Only the first six paragraphs were used to be analyzed.

I am by birth a Genevese, and my family is one of the most distinguished of that republic. My ancestors had been counselors and syndics for many years; and my father had filled several public situations with honor and reputation. He was respected by all who knew him for his integrity and indefatigable attention to public businesses. He passed his younger days perpetually occupied by the affairs of his country. A variety of circumstances had not prevented his marriage early, nor was it until the decline of life that he became a husband and a father of a family.

As the circumstances of his marriage illustrate his character, I cannot refrain from relating them. One of his most intimate friends was a merchant, who, from a flourishing state, fell, through numerous mischances, into poverty. This man, whose name was Beaufort, was of a proud and unbending disposition, and could not bear to live in poverty and oblivion in the same country where he had formerly been distinguished for his rank and magnificence. Having paid his debts, therefore, in the most honorable manner, he retreated with his daughter to the town of Lucerne, where he lived unknown and in wretchedness. My father loved Beaufort with the truest friendship, and was deeply grieved by his retreat in these unfortunate circumstances. He bitterly deplored the false pride which led his friend to a conduct so little worthy of the affection that united them. He lost no time in endeavoring to seek him out, with the hope of persuading him to begin the world again through his credit and assistance.

Beaufort had taken effectual measures to conceal himself, and it was ten months before my father discovered his abode. Overjoyed at this discovery, he hastened to the house, which was situated in a mean street, near the Reuss. But when he entered, misery and despair alone welcomed him. Beaufort had saved but a very small sum of money from the wreck of his

fortunes; but it was sufficient to provide him with sustenance for some months, and in the meantime he hoped to procure some respectable employment in a merchant's house. The interval was, consequently, spent in inaction; his grief only became more deep and rankling when he had leisure for reflection; and at length it took so fast hold of his mind that at the end of three months he lay on a bed of sickness, incapable of any exertion.

His daughter attended him with the greatest tenderness; but she saw with despair that their little fund was rapidly decreasing, and that there was no other prospect of support. But Caroline Beaufort possessed a mind of an uncommon mould; and her courage rose to support her in her adversity. She procured plain work; she plaited straw; and by various means contrived to earn a pittance scarcely sufficient to support life.

Several months passed in this manner. Her father grew worse; her time was more entirely occupied in attending him; her means of subsistence decreased; and in the tenth month her father died in her arms, leaving her an orphan and a beggar. This last blow overcame her; and she knelt by Beaufort's coffin, weeping bitterly, when my father entered the chamber. He came like a protecting spirit to the poor girl, who committed herself to his care; and after the interment of his friend, he conducted her to Geneva, and placed her under the protection of a relation. Two years after this event Caroline became his wife.

INFORMATION ABOUT THE TEXT

THIS SECTION PROVIDES SOME BACKGROUND INFORMATION ABOUT THE MAIN CHARACTER, WHOSE IDENTITY HAS NOT YET BEEN DISCLOSED. THE STORY'S NARRATOR, WHO SERVES AS THE PRIMARY CHARACTER, GIVES THE AUDIENCE BACKGROUND INFORMATION BY DESCRIBING IN GREAT DETAIL THE SERIES OF EVENTS THAT LED TO HIS PARENTS' MARRIAGE. THE AUTHOR'S OBJECTIVE THUS FAR HAS BEEN TO BUILD THE SCENE IN WHICH SPECIFIC EVENTS PREDISPOSE TO THE FUTURE EVENT. FURTHERMORE, DUE OF THE TEXT'S WIDE VOCABULARY, ITS TARGET AUDIENCE IS COMPRISED OF BOTH YOUNG AND OLD. THE VOCABULARY AND READING COMPREHENSION TECHNIQUES THAT AUDIENCE POSSESSES WOULD ENABLE THEM TO DEDUCE THE STORY'S MEANING.

GENRE

These paragraphs' content indicates that the text type is narrative. Recounting would be the genre classification for it. Maxim (2011) claims that the text fits into this particular genre because of the following traits:

- Recalls previous occurrences.
- Explains what transpired to the reader.
- Offers a progression.
- Employs past tense.

- **ORGANIZATIONAL PATTERN**

- As a result, the text presents events in a particular temporal sequence; thus, the pattern can be considered chronological. "In this pattern, ideas are presented in the order in which they occurred in time," claims Imperial (2011) (p. 13). The events are presented in the text in the order that they happen. Although they are not mixed together, the author's usage of this kind of pattern gives them a logical order.
- GE stands for General Statement, SS for Specific Statement number, and EMS for Even More Specific Statement, according to the text's macro structures.

GE
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◦ EMS <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ EMS ▪ EMS ▪ EMS
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • GE • GE <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◦ <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ EMS ▪ EMS ◦ SS2 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ EMS ◦ SS3
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • GE <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◦ EMS <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ EMS ◦ SS1 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ EMS
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • GE <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◦ EMS <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ EMS
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • GE <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◦ SS1

- EMS
 - SS2
 - SS3

This section revealed that the text consistently begins with a general remark, followed by a few particular statements or even more specific statements. The rationale must be that in order to prevent the reader from being disoriented while reading, every sentence in the text needs to make sense and relate to what has come before it.

GRAMMATICAL COHESION

People rely on specific strategies that can aid in avoiding repetition in order to be understood when speaking and writing. We refer to them as devices for grammatical cohesiveness. References, ellipses, substitutions, conjunctions, tense and aspect, themes, and rhymes are a few of them. Nonetheless, the following components were found in this text.

Citations and Conjunctions

- Tense and Aspect

REFERENCE

A word that is connected to something in the text is called a reference. In accordance with McCarthy's (1991) exaphoric and endophoric references, it can be split into two major branches. The first one has to do with the extratextual association. When the association is found inside the text, the other one manifests. Only endophoric references were found in the chosen text. Additionally, McCarthy divides endophoric references into two categories: anaphoric references and cataphoric references. The anaphoric reference compels the reader to go back and read the passage again in order to identify who or what the term is referring to. The color blue served as an identifier in the text. On the other hand, a cataphoric reference draws the reader in and forces them to finish reading in order to understand what or to whom the term is referring. It was denoted by the color green in the text.

ELLIPSIS

Elimination of an element results in ellipsis. This one might be grammatically required, but the author assumes that since it is part of a shared context, it is not required to mention that particular element. McCarthy (1991) distinguished between three forms of ellipses: nominal, verbal, and clausal. The type of ellipsis that was found in the text was nominal. A nominal ellipsis is when a headword or noun is omitted; this is indicated in the text by the symbol

CONJUNCTION

Words that allow relationships to be created between texts are called conjunctions. They are classified into groups according to Blankenstijn (2003), depending on the function they fulfill.

- Additive: words falling within this group are meant to provide details. Pink is how you may recognize them.
- Adversative: The words in this category contrast concepts; typically, one has a positive connotation while the other conveys a negative one. Orange is the hue that distinguishes them.
- Casual: The terms in this category relate ideas and have a cause-and-effect meaning. Red is a color that helps to identify them.
- Temporal: not included in the text, although it has to do with time order.

TENSE AND ASPECT

The term "tense" describes the moment at which an activity occurs. One of three time periods—the past, present, or future—can witness the action (McCarthy, 1991). The text was designated in purple because it describes a sequence of events that happened at a specific historical period. However, the narrative portion is currently in progress and has been designated in yellow.

The aspect relates to the instantaneous moment when the verb action takes place within or between certain intervals. McCarthy separates them into:

- The ongoing nature of the action is a progressive element.
- Perfect aspect: when the activity occurred between them at an unspecified moment in the past and present and was completed by speech.

In the text, the presented actions were concluded at the moment of speaking so their aspect could be considered perfect.

The following chart has the name of the grammatical device and the color used within the text for its identification.

Anaphoric Reference	Color
Cataphoric Reference	color
Ellipsis	^
Additive Conjunction	color
Adversative Conjunction	color
Casual Conjunction	color
Present Tense	color
Past Tense	color

I am by birth a Genevese, and my family is one of the most distinguished of that republic. My ancestors had been for many years counselors and syndics; and my father had filled several public situations with honor and reputation. He was respected by all

who knew him for his integrity and indefatigable attention to public businesses. He passed his younger days perpetually occupied by the affairs of his country. A variety of circumstances had prevented his marrying early, nor was it until the decline of life that he became a husband and a father of a family.

As the circumstances of his marriage illustrate his character, I cannot refrain from relating them. One of his most intimate friends was a merchant, who, from a flourishing state, fell, through numerous mischances, into poverty. This man, whose name was Beaufort, was of a proud and unbending disposition, and ^ could not bear to live in poverty and oblivion in the same country where he had formerly been distinguished for his rank and magnificence. Having paid his debts, therefore, in the most honorable manner, he retreated with his daughter to the town of Lucerne, where he lived unknown and in wretchedness. My father loved Beaufort with the truest friendship, and was deeply grieved by his retreat in these unfortunate circumstances. He bitterly deplored the false pride which led his friend to a conduct so little worthy of the affection that united them. He lost no time in endeavoring to seek him out, with the hope of persuading him to begin the world again through his credit and assistance.

LEXICAL COHESION

According to McCarthy (2011), lexical cohesion can be defined as:

to mean only exact repetition of words and the role played by certain basic semantic relations between words in creating textuality, that property of text which distinguishes it from a random sequence of unconnected sentences (p. 65).

Put another way, words cannot be detached from their roles and meanings inside texts. They have a goal that forges connections between them so as to give significance. The following devices within lexical coherence can aid in creating what was previously mentioned: repetition, synonyms, antonyms, hyponyms, hipernyms, and meronyms. These were those mentioned in the text:

- Repetition
- Synonyms
- Antonyms
- Hyponyms

- Hypernyms

REPETITION

Repetition is defined as the placement of the exact same word within the text (McCarthy, 1991). When this happens is because there is not another word that carries out the same connotation, and because of that the word is repeated. In the text all the repeated words were marked with blue.

SYNONYM

Synonym is defined as “one word of two or more words or expressions of the same language that have the same or nearly the same meaning in all senses (Merriam Webster, 2011). This means that their connotation can be almost the same or similar. In the text all the synonyms were identified with green.

ANTONYM

It is the opposite to synonyms, and can be defined as words that have the opposite meaning in relation with others in all senses (Merriam Webster Dictionary Online, 2011). Within the text, all the antonyms were identified with red color.

HYPONYMS AND HYPERNYMS

McCarthy (1991) points out that a hyponym can be defined as a general word, while a hyponym would be a super ordinate from that general word. This means that hyponym is wider and might be very general even it can be like a category, but hyponym is like very specific, but within the general category. For instance, the word work, considered from an isolated perspective would be very general. However, the text mentions something about plain work which is a very specific type of work.

The following chart has the name of the lexical device and the color that eases its identification and each of the synonyms and antonyms are numbered.

Synonyms	Color
Hyponyms and Hypernyms	

Repetition	color
Antonyms	color

Beaufort had taken effectual measures to conceal himself; and it was ten months (1) before my father discovered his abode. Overjoyed (1) at this discovery, he hastened (1) to the house, which was situated in a mean street, near the Reuss. But when he entered, misery (2) and despair (2) alone welcomed him. Beaufort had saved but a very small sum of money (2) from the wreck of his fortunes (2); but it was sufficient (3) to provide him with sustenance for some months (1), and in the meantime he hoped to procure some respectable (3) employment (3) in a merchant's house. The interval was, consequently, spent in inaction; his grief (1) only became more deep and rankling when he had leisure for reflection; and at length it took so fast (1) hold of his mind (4) that at the end of three months he lay on a bed of sickness, incapable of any exertion.

His daughter attended him with the greatest tenderness; but she saw with despair (2) that their little fund (2) was rapidly (1) decreasing, and that there was no other prospect of support (5). But Caroline Beaufort possessed a mind (4) of an uncommon mould; and her courage rose to support her in her adversity. She procured plain (3) work (3); she plaited straw; and by various means contrived to earn a pittance scarcely sufficient (3) to support (5) life.

FINDINGS OF BOTH ANALYSES

What the text possesses the most are grammatical cohesive devices because the author uses them frequently. Specially, anaphoric references were the most used in the form of pronouns.

She also uses one single cataphoric reference, but is the one that keeps readers engaged to find out the name of the narrator.

Regarding, conjunctions, the additive ones are the most seen throughout the text. The author barely uses time conjunctions, but the sequence provided is logical and organized. There is also a clear distinction of present and past events. In relation to the use of ellipsis, they are not as used as reference devices; however, substitution and exophoric references were not found.

In regards to lexical cohesion, the author used repetition, synonyms, antonyms and one example of hyponyms and hypernyms, but not about meronyms. The use of a preferred grammatical or lexical cohesive device perhaps has to do with the author's writing style.

CONCLUSION

The importance of being aware of the grammatical and cohesive devices can contribute to the improvement of reading and writing skills. Hence, analyzing a text can tell what the type of cohesive devices used mostly and the ones that need to be worked on to build up coherence when writing and ease comprehension when reading.

Key terms in discourse analysis

assimilation

According to van Leeuwen (1996: 48–50), assimilation is a way of representing social actors as groups. There are two main types of assimilation:

AGGREGATION and COLLECTIVIZATION.

Attitudes

An attitude is a person's judgement towards something. Attitudes are generally positive or negative, although people can potentially also possess ambivalent attitudes (e.g. be both positive and negative) or profess to have no attitude (e.g. not really care). In traditional social science research, attitudes were often measured by using questionnaires or surveys which asked people to tick a box to indicate where their attitude fell on a scale (with one end representing an extreme negative attitude and the other end being extreme positivity). These scales are often referred to as Likert scales (see Likert 1932). A typical Likert scale would have 5 points (although sometimes point 3 is removed in order to force respondents to make a choice):

1. Strongly agree
2. Agree
3. Neither agree nor disagree
4. Disagree
5. Strongly disagree

cataphora

A cataphoric reference is an expression which refers to a later expression. As with **ANAPHORA**, cataphoric references are often pronouns or determiners. The example below is from a newspaper article – here the cataphoric reference 'he' occurs in the headline, referring to the later reference of 'David Blunkett' in the main body of the story. He'll be cleared says Tony Blair threw a protective shield around David Blunkett yesterday, insisting he would be cleared of using high office to help his ex-lover Kimberly Quinn. (BE06, A02)

categorization

1. In terms of discourse analysis, this can involve assigning something to a particular category; for example, words can be assigned to grammatical or semantic categories, whereas utterances could be assigned to pragmatic categories according to their function (apology, request, disagreement etc.). Categorization schemes can sometimes be difficult to implement if ambiguous cases are found. In addition, categories can proliferate if instances are found that do not fit into the existing set. Such schemes may therefore develop during the process of categorization, although a final scheme ought to be robust enough to cover all instances, including dealing with those which are ambiguous. A categorization scheme also ought to be transparent so that other researchers could arrive at the same decisions.

classroom discourse

The language used by teachers and students to communicate with each other in the classroom. Here, the use of *discourse* refers to the type, genre or context of language used. An analysis of classroom discourse may not only use recordings of actual speech but could also involve reflexive feedback interviews with participants or consultation of teaching texts.

clause

A set of words consisting of a **SUBJECT** and a **PREDICATE**, and expressing a proposition. Halliday's **SYSTEMIC FUNCTIONAL GRAMMAR** considers the clause, rather than the sentence, as the basic unit of grammatical analysis. A clause can exist on its own as a sentence, for example, '*The man replied*' (BNC, A0R), but more complex sentences can contain multiple clauses or clauses embedded within clauses.

coherence

Coherence refers to the ways that a text is made semantically meaningful (as opposed to **COHESION**, which is concerned with grammar). Coherence can be achieved through techniques like **IMPLICATURE** or **BACKGROUNDING** actors. De Beaugrande and Dressler (1981: 4) view coherence as one of seven 'standards of textuality', being concerned with 'the ways in which the components of the **TEXTUAL WORLD**, i.e. the configuration of **CONCEPTS** and **RELATIONS** which *underlie* the surface text, are *mutually accessible and relevant*'.

relevant'.

cohesion

Cohesion refers to the way that a text makes sense syntactically. Halliday and Hasan (1976) note that common cohesive devices include forms of reference

e.g (ANAPHORA and CATAPHORA), ELLIPSIS, SUBSTITUTION, LEXICAL COHESION, conjunction and replacement. De Beaugrande and Dressler (1981: 3) view coherence

as one of seven 'standards of textuality', claiming that coherence 'concerns the ways in which the components of the **SURFACE TEXT**, i.e. the actual words we hear or see, are *mutually connected within a sequence*.

collocation

Collocation refers to the ways that certain words tend to regularly occur next to or close to each other. It can be thought of as the 'company that a word keeps'.

community of practice

A term developed by Lave and Wenger (1991) to describe the ways that

people who have shared sets of common goals interact with each other, particularly related to contexts where people learn to carry out certain practices in ‘apprenticeship’ situations. It is ‘a set of relations among persons, activity and world, over time and in relation with other tangential and overlapping communities of practice.

context

An important aspect of many strands of **DISCOURSE ANALYSIS** – which helps in the interpretative process of linguistic phenomena as well as providing explanations.

The analysis of context forms part of most **CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS** approaches.

Van Dijk (2001: 108) makes a distinction between local contexts which are ‘properties of the immediate interactional situation in which a communicative event takes place’ while global contexts are ‘defined by the social, political, cultural and historical structures in which a communicative event takes place’. Wodak (2001: 67)

identifies four levels of context that are used in the **DISCOURSE-HISTORICAL APPROACH**:

1. the immediate, language or text internal **CO-TEXT**
2. the intertextual and interdiscursive relationship between utterances, texts, genres and discourses
3. the extralinguistic social/sociological variables and institutional frames of a specific “context of situation” (middle-range theories)
4. the broader sociopolitical and historical contexts, which the discursive practices are embedded in and related to (grand theories).

conversation analysis (CA)

A form of linguistic analysis which focuses on transcripts of real-life spoken interactions. It is often referred to as the study of talk in interaction. While analysts study private, informal conversations, they also examine institutional interactions (e.g. doctor–patient, legal interactions, police interviews, talk in the classroom; see Drew and Heritage 1992).

critical linguistics

A socially concerned approach to linguistics, which was first pioneered by Roger Fowler and Gunther Kress in the 1970s, emerging from the book *Language and Control* (Fowler et al. 1979). Critical linguistics used Halliday’s **SYSTEMIC FUNCTIONAL GRAMMAR** to

examine how phenomena are represented in texts, for example, via the use of nominalizations or agentless passives, pointing out that grammatical systems are closely related to social and personal needs. However, critical linguists have also adopted other models such as **SPEECH ACT THEORY** and **CONVERSATION ANALYSIS**. Critical linguistics was used as the basis for the ‘descriptive’ level of Fairclough’s **CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS** and has also been influential in the development of other critical approaches to discourse analysis such as the **DISCOURSE-HISTORICAL APPROACH** or the **SOCIO-COGNITIVE APPROACH**.

deixis

Expressions in language that point to referents (or put more simply ‘refer to things’). Such referents can be concrete (e.g. objects, people) or abstract (e.g. points in time, ideas). Examples of deixis include the words *this, that, here, there, now, then, I, you, he* and *she*. Such words can only be understood by reference to context (e.g. by considering the words, sentence setc. around the word or by addressing extralinguistic context – for example, in a conversation a person may say ‘look at that’ and point to something).

description

A form of analysis which attempts to accurately describe the features of a particular language without making value judgements, such as the extent to which the language is correct, clear or manipulative in some way. This is different to **PRESCRIPTIVISM**. Description is usually an initial stage of **CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS** which usually comes before **INTERPRETATION** and **EXPLANATION**. It would involve identifying a set of formal linguistic features in a text, such as pronoun use, metaphor, modality, nominalizations and agency.

discourse markers

Sometimes called discourse particles or pragmatic markers, the term is often used to refer to words or phrases that appear to have no grammatical or semantic function, such as *you know, like, oh, well, I mean, actually, basically, OK* as well as connectives like *because, so, and, but* and *or*. Schiffrin (1987.p.31) defines them as ‘sequentially dependent elements which bracket units of talk’.

explanation

Usually the final stage of critical discourse analysis, coming after the stages of **DESCRIPTION** and **INTERPRETATION**. Fairclough (1995, p. 163) writes, ‘The object . . . of explanation is to portray a discourse as part of a social process . . . showing how it is

determined by social structures and what reproductive effects discourses can cumulatively have on these structures, sustaining them or changing them’.

genre

A genre refers to a categorization of a particular type of text or social practice.

Such categorizations are normally subjective and can often be broken down into sub-genres.

participants

Human participants are people who take part in a social activity. In discourse analysis research that could involve acting as a subject – for example, interview participants are the people who are reviewed by a researcher.

2. In grammatical theory, participants are components of a clause. In English clauses, for instance, there are three components: the participants, the process and the circumstances.

pragmatics

Pragmatics is a branch of linguistics that is concerned with the communicative functions of language (Levinson 1983, Thomas 1995, Yule 1996), particularly examining language and interaction in context. Pragmatics can be thought as subsuming or overlapping with other fields and theories such as **SPEECH ACT THEORY**, **POLITENESS** theory, **CONVERSATION ANALYSIS** and **INTERACTIONAL SOCIOLINGUISTICS**. (Fairclough 1992, p. 119–120).

schema

A schema (plural schemata or schemas) is information that is stored as packages in our long-term memories which we then use to interpret and understand social phenomena.

scripts

Scripts are schemata (see **SCHEMA**) that are ordered sequentially. Schema theory distinguishes between these sequentially ordered schemata and nonsequentially ordered schemata (**FRAMES**) (Minsky 1975). Scripts thus contain assumptions which involve the order in which things should happen. For example, in a church, a Sunday service starts with a prayer followed by announcements and then other rituals. The key event, the sermon, then follows and so on (depending on which church each individual is familiar with). Frame assumptions, however, include what a church service is about, who is responsible for what activity, who gives the sermon (pastor, priest) and who confesses and to whom.

speech community

The term speech community has been traced back to Bloomfield (1926.p.153–154): ‘Within certain communities successive utterances are alike or partly alike . . . Any such community is

a speech community'. It was also used by early sociolinguists like Gumperz (1968), Hymes (1972) and Labov (1973). Speech communities have been associated with forms of language that are learnt from a community that one grows up in (and are passed on via inheritance or adoption).

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