BADAN PENGEMBANG BISNIS UNNES
UNNES PRESS
Penerbitan & Percetakan

Discourse Studies In English Language Education

Sri Wuli Fitriati
Agatha Lisa

DISCOURSE STUDIES IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATION

DISCOURSE STUDIES IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATION

Sri Wuli Fitriati
Agatha Lisa

Penerbit
UNNES PRESS
Jl. Kelud Raya No. 2 Semarang 50237
Telp./Fax. (024) 8415032

Dicetak oleh UNNES Press.
Jl. Kelud Raya No. 2 Semarang 50237 Telp./Tax. (024) 8415032.

DISCOURSE STUDIES IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATION

Sri Wuli Fitriati
Agatha Lisa

Lay Out : Muntaalim
Desain Sampul : Muntaalim

Discourse Studies In English Language Education/Sri Wuli Fitriati and Agatha Lisa; -Cet.1.--illus,-Semarang: UnnesPress, 2019;
xii + 176 hal. 23,5 cm.

1. Pendidikan;
I. Sri Wuli Fitriati;   II. Judul

ISBN 978-602-285-212-4

CONTENTS

List of Figures and Tables

Figures

Tables

FOREWORD

I am delighted to write the Foreword for this book, *Discourse Studies in English Language Education*. I am inspired by the authors, Sri Wuli Fitriati and Agatha Lisa, who have worked with the complexities of *discourse*, which is a slippery concept for everyone, including those of us who are native speakers of English. I remember the day, many years ago, when I decided to search every book, academic article and resource that I had, to work out how those authors had defined the term. Perhaps that was the day that I realized my interest in discourse and I began to understand how important it is to know about discourse.

What is different for me, however, is the context. Australia is a multicultural country. As indicated by the most recent Australian Government census, conducted in 2016, around 300 languages are spoken in Australian homes. Nevertheless, around 75 per cent of people speak only English at home. In contrast, Wuli and Agatha are living and working in a context where multiple languages are spoken, but English is a Foreign Language. With English recognized globally as the lingua franca of today, being able to communicate in English is regarded as an important attribute. This, of course, creates particular challenges for those living in places where English is a foreign language.

This book presents discourse studies through theory, explanation, diagrammatic representations, readings and examples. It highlights the importance of learning language and learning about language. Readers are invited to engage with the content through lists of what they should be able to do by the end of each chapter, discussion questions, further reading and useful websites. Importantly, the book addresses current day texts, including a range of multimodal texts, along with the traditional print texts that have always been associated with English language learning. This brings both strength and breadth to the book's content. The chapters are well organized and offer insights for students from the experiences of both authors as students and learners of English, and the experiences of one author as a university teacher. This means that the readings and activities have been custom-designed for the context and the audience.

I congratulate the Universitas Negeri Semarang (UNNES) for supporting the writing and production of this book and I invite readers to enjoy and learn from its content.

Robyn Henderson, Ph.D.
Associate Professor
University of Southern Queensland (USQ)
Australia

PREFACE

The idea to write this book *Discourse Studies in English Language Education* came from the first author's teaching experience for several years and the second author's learning experience in *Discourse Studies* class at Universitas Negeri Semarang (UNNES). During teaching and learning process we tend to use many references of discourse studies books from various authors and experts. This too many options of books have made novice students who just begin learning discourse studies feel confused. This is mainly because many of those books present theories and principles on discourse studies in diverse fields and disciplines. While, what the many first-time students learning discourse studies importantly need is a practical guide book as they want to obtain basic knowledge, relevant examples and exercises in discourse studies in relation to English language education in particular.

Taking a note of the students' need and their support for a more practical book on discourse studies in English language education, we write this textbook. The central purpose of this book is to help students understand the major concepts and issues in discourse studies and its applications in English language teaching and learning. Keeping in view that the users of this book are mainly students of English as a foreign language, we begin this book by explaining in simple English definitions of discourse studies and the importance of discourse studies in English language teaching and learning. We intend to raise students' awareness that discourse studies will help them to be better language users as well as will help them improve and develop their future students' communicative competence in the English language.

This book consists of eight chapters. It starts with Introduction (Chapter I) which explains definitions of discourse studies, the importance of discourse studies in English language teaching, and organization of the book. Chapter II explains the model of language with the purpose of helping students to gain deeper insights on features of language use and differences of spoken and written language. Chapter III discusses communicative competence which is the ultimate goal of language education. Chapters IV to VII, the writers attempt to examine particular approaches in discourse studies by providing reviews of important literature, examples of research reports on the approaches to illustrate the principal issues concerned and also the implications of the studies on the

English language teaching and learning. The last chapter (Chapter VIII) is conclusion which summarizes and synthesizes some pedagogical implications of discourse studies research presented in the previous chapters. This will broaden students' horizon that there are many ways in the application of findings of discourse studies in the teaching of English in classrooms.

We have written this book mainly for upper undergraduate and graduate students, but this is equally useful for postgraduate students, too. What makes this book unique is that at the end of every chapter we always provide questions for discussion, further readings, helpful websites, and references. Questions for discussion will stimulate students to explore further the topic of discussion in the chapter designed to foster critical thinking and engagement with the topic covered. Further readings and helpful websites will assist them to quickly access reading materials. In addition, this book is essential since for each conceptual framework of discourse studies in each chapter there is a selection of illustrations by providing one to two examples of research which we take from valid and reliable journal articles published by reputable international and national journals. In such a way, students will not only enhance their understanding of different concepts, but also they will be able to apply the concepts in their own discourse studies research.

This book by no means covers extensively a broad range of approaches in discourse studies in the field of English language education. We realize that in order to present the most comprehensive book, separate complementary books are needed. Therefore, readers are advised to refer to the books and websites listed in the references of this book. We hope that students will develop variety and choice of approaches to discourse and develop confidence and ability to conduct discourse studies.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We are most thankful to the many students in Discourse Studies and Advanced Discourse Studies classes at the Postgraduate Program, Universitas Negeri Semarang (UNNES) who have inspired us to shape this book. They made us feel encouraged and motivated to finish this book. We are deeply indebted to our Rector of UNNES, Prof. Dr. Fathur Rokhman, M.Hum., for his motivational quotes every day to all UNNES civitas academica. Also, we benefited from the Faculty of Languages and Arts management board, especially Dr. Sri Rejeki Urip, M.Hum. (Dean), and, Dr. Hendi Pratama, S.Pd., M.A. (Vice Dean of Academic Affairs) for the funding provision to this book. We appreciate Prof. Dr. Januarius Mujiyanto M.Hum. the coordinator of Postgraduate Program who have assigned the first author of this book to teach Discourse Studies and Advanced Discourse Studies since 2015. We are grateful to Ibu Helena Indiyah Ratna Agustien, Ph.D., our senior colleague, mentor, and teaching partner at the Postgraduate Program of UNNES. As always, we are grateful to the English Department Undergraduate Program and the English Language Education Postgraduate Program of UNNES. Also, we are very pleased to have Associate Professor Robyn Henderson, from University of Southern Queensland (USQ) Australia, for being an amazing mentor and an advisor for the first author's academic writing. Finally, members to our families – first author husband's, Amir, and two children Muna and Fayaquna, and second author's parents, Bawono and Listiyani, and brother Buwana, thanks so much for providing us with time to spend long hours and days writing this book. Thank you all.

Sri Wuli Fitriati

Agatha Lisa

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Discourse analysis examines patterns of language across texts and considers the relationship between language and the social and cultural contexts in which it is used. Discourse analysis also considers the ways that the use of language presents different views of the world and different understandings. It examines how the use of language is influenced by relationships between participants as well as the effects the use of language has upon social identities and relations. It also considers how views of the world, and identities, are constructed through the use of discourse.

At the end of this chapter, the students are able to:

- Define discourse studies
- Describe the importance of discourse studies in language teaching

Chapter 1 presents the definitions of discourse studies and the scope of discourse studies.

1.1 Definitions of Discourse Studies

Discourse analysis is concerned with the study of the relationship between language and the contexts in which it is used. It grew out of work in different disciplines in the 1960s and early 1970s, including linguistics, semiotics, psychology, anthropology and sociology. Discourse analysts study language in use: written texts of all kinds, and spoken data, from conversation to highly institutionalized forms of talk.

The term discourse analysis was first introduced by Zellig Harris (1952) as a way of analyzing connected speech and writing. At a time when linguistics was largely concerned with the analysis of single sentences, Zellig Harris published a paper with the title 'Discourse Analysis'. Harris had two main interests: the examination of language beyond the level of the sentence and the relationship between linguistic and non-linguistic behavior. He examined the first of these in most detail, aiming to provide a way for describing how language features are distributed within texts and the ways in which they are combined in particular kinds and styles of texts. An early, and important observation he made was that:

> connected discourse occurs within a particular situation – whether of a person speaking, or of a conversation, or of someone sitting down occasionally over the period of months to write a particular kind of book in a particular literary or scientific tradition (Harris, 1952, p. 3).

There are, thus, typical ways of using language in particular situations. These discourses, he argued, not only share particular meanings, they also have characteristic linguistic features associated with them. What these meanings are and how they are realized in language is of central interest to the area of discourse analysis.

There are various usages of the term discourse, but we will begin here by defining it broadly as language in its contexts of use. In considering language in its contexts of use, the concern is also with language above the level of the sentence. The emphasis on contexts of use and the suprasentential level is important, because for much of the history of modern linguistics, under the influence of the generative linguist Chomsky, language has been analyzed as separate from context, as decontextualised sentences. The rationale for a contextualized and suprasentential consideration of language is based upon the belief that knowing a language is concerned with more than just grammar and vocabulary: it also includes how to participate in a conversation or how to structure a written text. To be able to do this, it is necessary to take into account the context, or situation, in which a particular use of language occurs and how the units of language combine together and structure the overall discourse.

Different scholars use their perspective to define discourse. Gumperz (1977), for example, defines discourse as certain communication routines which are viewed as distinct whole, separated from other types of discourse, characterized by special rules of speech and non-verbal behavior, and often distinguished by clearly recognized openings and closings. Stubbs (1983) asserts discourse analysis as a field of research, which is concerned with 1) the use of language over the level of a sentence/utterance, 2) the interrelationships between language and society and 3) the interactive properties of daily communication. Widdowson (1984) defines discourse as a communicative process by means of interaction. Hoey (1991) summarizes discourse as any stretch of spoken or written language, longer than one sentence, which is self-contained in a reasonable way. Moreover, discourse analysis is the area of linguistics that concerns itself with the study of these multi-utterance acts of communication.

Schiffrin et al. (2003) note that there are ‘three main categories’ of discourse definitions. Discourse and discourse analysis are defined, briefly, in three ways: 1) as language beyond the sentence, 2) as language in use, and 3) as larger social processes that precede and are produced by language. There are no any kind of concise definition of discourse, but the definition should sum of these three categories.

On the basis of the above definitions, it can be concluded that discourse studies refers to the study of language in its contexts of use. It may focus on any sort of text, written or spoken. The term ‘text’ refers to any stretch of spoken or written language. In written text, discourse analysis may consider texts as diverse as news reports, textbooks, company reports, personal letters, business letters, e-mails and faxes. In spoken discourse, it may focus on casual conversations, business and other professional meetings, service encounters (buying and selling goods and services) and classroom lessons, among many others.

In short, discourse analysis, or discourse studies, is a general term for a number of approaches to analyze written, vocal, or sign language use, or any significant semiotic event. The object of discourse analysis – discourse, writing, conversation, communicative events - are variously defined in terms of coherent sequences of sentences, propositions, speech, or turns-at-talk. Contrary to much of traditional linguistics, discourse analyst not only study language use ‘beyond the sentence boundary’, but also prefer to analyse ‘naturally occuring’ language use, and not invented examples. Put simply, discourse is the way that language – either spoken or written – is used for communicative effect in a real-world situation. Discourse analysis is the study of such language, and the analysis of the features and uses of texts – or text analysis – is an integral component of discourse analysis.

1.2 The Scope of Discourse Studies

Discourse analysis is not only concerned with the description and analysis of spoken interaction. In addition to all our verbal encounters we daily consume hundreds of written and printed words: newspaper articles, letters, stories, recipes, instructions, notices, comics, billboards, leaflets pushed through the door, and so on. We usually expect them to be coherent, meaningful communications in which the words and/or sentences are linked to one another in a fashion that corresponds to conventional formulae, just as we do with speech; therefore, discourse analysts are equally interested in the organization of written interaction. The term discourse analysis is used to cover the study of spoken and written interaction. In other words, it is the study of the language of communication – spoken or written.

In this book we use a more recent term, d*iscourse studies*. It can be defined as the study of language in its contexts of use and above the level of the sentence. According to Flowerdew (2013), the more recent term *discourse studies* is perhaps more appropriate than the older term, discourse analysis, because it gets away from the misconception that the field is only concerned with analysis (that it is just a method), while it is also concerned with theory and application (and it comprises a host of methods). Both terms will be used interchangeably in this book.

1.3 Organization of the Book

This book is divided into eight chapters, with the final chapter presenting the contributions of discourse studies in relation to English language teaching.

Chapter 1 concerns the introduction of discourse studies in English language education. It commences by presenting the definitions of discourse studies, the scope of discourse studies, and organization of the book.

Chapter 2 discusses the model of language and the relationship between spoken and written language. It also explores how an explicit understanding of how language works enables learners to make informed choices in their use and understanding of texts.

Chapter 3 presents a brief history of communicative competence, the definition of communicative competence, the model of communicative competence and the relationship of communicative competence and language teaching.

Chapter 4 explores some key concepts in written discourse. They are cohesion and coherence, theme and rheme, thematic progression/development, appraisal analysis and pragmatics.

Chapter 5 explains the characteristic and components of spoken discourse, including classroom interaction analysis, conversation analysis, coherence and relevance, speech acts, politeness strategies and appraisal analysis.

Chapter 6 provides the concept clarification of critical discourse analysis and principles in critical discourse analysis. It also provides ways how to uncover out-of-sight norms and values which underlie texts which are key to understanding the roles that texts play in particular social, cultural and political contexts.

Chapter 7 covers the concept clarification of multimodal discourse studies and types of social meanings in the use of language. It includes an overview and theoretical background of multimodal discourse analysis, an approach which considers how texts that employ more than one mode of presentation, such as words and graphics, make meaning.

Chapter 8 provides the application of written and spoken discourse analysis in English language teaching, the importance of discourse analysis for language teachers, and ends with closing remarks.

Discussion Questions

- In your own words, what is meant by discourse studies.
- Explain the relationship between discourse studies and language teaching!

Further Readings

Erton, I. (2000). Contributions of discourse analysis to language teaching. *Hacettepe Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi* 19, 201-211.

Rodríguez-Vergara, D. (2018). The Importance of Discourse Studies in Linguistics, Language Teaching and Translation. *US-China Foreign Language*, Vol. 16 (6), 297-310.

Helpful Websites

http://www.english.ugent.be/da
http://www.discourses.org/introductions.pdf
https://www.ericdigests.org/2002-2/discourse.htm

References

Gumperz, J. (1977). Sociocultural knowledge in conversational inference. *Georgetown University Roundtable on Languages and Linguistics.* Washington, D.C.: Georgetown University Press.

Harris, Z. (1952). Discourse analysis. *Language* 28, 1-30.

Hoey, M.P. (1991). Some properties of spoken discourse. In R. Browers & C. Brumfit (eds.) *Applied Linguistics and English Language Teaching*: 65-84. Basingstoke: Macmillan/MEP.

Krashen, D.S. (1987). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition.* New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Stubbs, M. (1983). *Discourse Analysis*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.

Widdowson, H.G. (1984). *Explorations in applied linguistics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Widdowson, H.G. (1979). *Teaching English as communication.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

CHAPTER 2

The Model of Language

Language is at the heart of the learning process. We learn through language. Our knowledge about the world is constructed in language – the worlds of home and the community, the worlds of school subjects, the worlds of literature, the worlds of the workplace, and so on. We interact with others and build our identities through language. Teachers' explanations, classroom discussions, assessment of student achievement, and students' understanding, composing and evaluation of texts are all mediated through language.

At the end of this chapter, the students are able to:

- Define language
- Understand how language works
- Describe the model of language
- Discuss the relationship between language and learning

This chapter discusses the model of language and the relationship between spoken and written language.

2.1 The Model of Language

A functional model of language draws on the work of Professor Michael Halliday, one of the leading linguists of modern times. Halliday sees language as a meaning making system through which we interactively shape and interpret our world and ourselves. According to Halliday, the language system can be seen as a complex network of choices that have evolved to serve our needs. His interest is in language as 'a resource for making meaning' and in ensuring that all students have access to the linguistic resources needed for success in school. Based on the work of Halliday, educational linguists s and colleagues developed a 'genre-based approach' with the goal of making the language demands of the curriculum explicit so that all students have access to the powerful ways of using language in our culture.

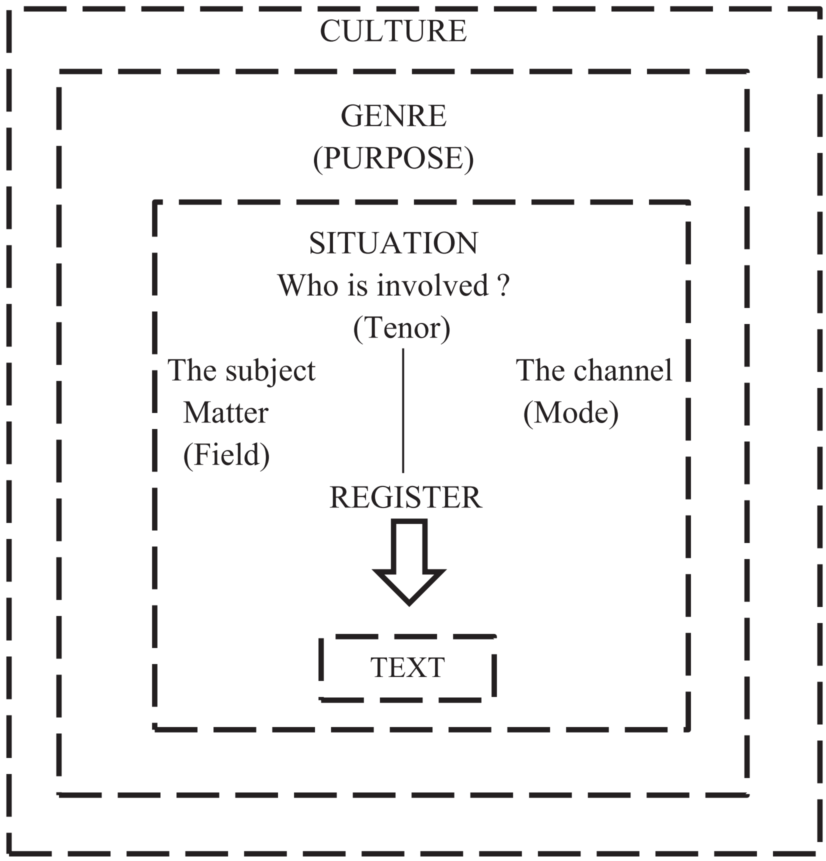
Systemic-functional linguistics has a number of tenets that make it particularly useful as a basis for developing literacy programs:

- Language is functional, that is, language is the way it is because of the meaning it makes. The theory suggests that resources available within the systems of discourse, grammar and vocabulary are utilized in specific ways to make specific meanings.
- It is a theory of language in context, and suggests that language can only be understood in relation to the context in which it is used. Thus, different purposes for using language and different contexts result in different language texts. The construction of language texts in turn impacts on the context. There is thus a two-way relationship between text and context.
- The theory focuses on language at the level of whole text. By text is meant any connected stretch of language, that is doing a job within a social context. Thus, the term 'text' is used to refer to stretches of spoken and written language. Text may be as short as one word, e.g. EXIT or may be as long as a book such as a training manual. This theory differs from most other approaches to language study, notably traditional grammar, which offers systematic analyses of language only up to the level of sentence, and provides little guidance to the language

learner, who needs to know about structure, organization and development in connected oral discourse and written texts.

The following model (Derewianka, 1990) demonstrates this more clearly as follows:

Figure 1.1 The Model of Language



2.1.1 Culture

A functional model describes how language varies from context to context. It shows, for example:

- How the language of science differs from the language of literature;
- How the language we use when talking to close friends differs from giving a formal oral presentation;
- How spoken language differs from written language

In Figure 1.1, the outer layer represents the context of culture in which any language interaction takes place. The context of culture can be thought of as deriving from a combination of all of the genres which make up a particular culture. The context of culture incorporates:

- The attitudes, values and shared experiences of any group of people living in the one culture
- Culturally evolved expectations of ways of behaving
- Culturally evolved ways of getting things done or of achieving common goals.

We might imagine an activity where students are debating the issue of global warming. At the level of the cultural context, the language choices will probably reflect a community in which argumentation is highly valued as intrinsic to the democratic process and where the social purpose of arguing has been formalized into the genre of the debate. In this particular situational context, the field being developed by the debaters is concerned with the science of global warming and people's perceptions of the issues. The language choices will therefore express the kinds of happenings involved in global warming (increasing temperature, melting ice, rising sea levels), the kinds of participants in these processes (animate? human? physical? economic?), and the circumstances surrounding the activity (how quickly? to what extent? where? why?). The tenor will probably be relatively formal, with students engaging with their peers in front of an audience, trying to persuade the adjudicator to their point of view. The language choices will therefore involve the use of rhetorical devices such as repetition, intensification, emotive vocabulary, rebuttals, and so on. And while the mode is spoken, it will have features of the written mode in that the students have had time to research, make notes and prepare their arguments.

The language choices will therefore reflect certain features of the oral mode (intonation, gesture, facial expression, pausing, volume, fluency) as well as features of the written mode (resources for organizing the flow of the text, careful structuring of the points, and so on). Therefore, it is the teacher who creates the contexts for learning. Knowing about genre and register helps the teacher at the level of planning, teaching and assessing. The explanation of genre and register can be seen in the following discussion.

2.1.2 Genre

When we talk about culture, we are considering the purpose of language used in a particular situation. At a broader level, the language system has evolved within the context of a certain culture (including beliefs, values and behavior) to meet the needs of that culture. Our language choices will therefore be sensitive to the cultural context as well as the context of a particular situation. Therefore, the term 'genre' in this book refer to ways of achieving a specific social purpose through language within a particular cultural context. In particular, following the work of Derewianka (1990), here we are concerned with the various purposes for which language is used in the culture. The culturally evolved ways of getting things done typically involve language in one way or another and are referred to as genres in the model above. In our daily lives, we use language to achieve a variety of social purposes. The examples of genres include:

- Buying and selling goods
- Instructing someone how to make a recipe
- Telling friends what we did on the weekend
- Directing someone to the bank
- Recounting recent events
- Explaining how a computer application works
- Arguing a point of view
- Persuading parents to buy a treat and so on

We can refer to these as genres (or text types): goal-oriented ways of using language that have evolved in our culture to enable us to do things. Genres are seen as social practices which is dynamic, evolving ways of doing things through language. If our purpose was to obtain employment, for example, then a relevant genre to use would be a job application. If our purpose was to draw up a legally binding agreement, then an appropriate genre would be a contract. Or if we wanted to tell someone how to use a video camera, then we might choose the genre of instructions.

So, in order to identify the genre of a particular text, we first ask what purpose the text is serving — describing, counselling, lobbying, instructing, recommending, informing, and so on. Rather than seeing genres simply as 'products' or 'things', we will also be thinking of them as 'processes'. We employ them to do things — to persuade someone to our point of view, to share experiences, to complain about a service, and so on.

In school contexts, we encounter a range of genres over which students need to gain control in order to succeed in their academic lives. In this book, we will be introducing some of the key genres of schooling:

Table 2.1 Some of the key genres of schooling

Purpose	Genre	Example
To amuse or entertain with a story.	Stories	Narratives Legends Fables Folktales Example: The Story of Lake 'Toba', The Story of Fox and Cat, and so on.
To tell what happened in chronological sequence (who was involved, when the events took place, and when it happened).	Recounts	Recounting one story, action or activity, i.e. My vacation with my lovely family in Bali, Travel overseas for the first time, and so on.
To instruct how something works, how to do something through a sequence of actions or steps.	Procedures/Instructions	How to use tape recorder How to make spaghetti How to make orange juice How to make tomato soup How to check in at the airport
To provide information about a topic.	Information reports	Types of transportation Rainforest
To explain how things, work or why things happen (relating to forming of natural, social, scientific and cultural phenomena).	Explanations	It is often found in science, geography and history text books Examples: What causes earthquakes How does rain happen? How a fuel light works
To influence, convince or reveal that something is correct, something was an important topic to be discussed by way of providing arguments and opinions.	Arguments/Exposition	The power of music in our life Garbage service need improvement The important of library Jogging is good exercise for everyone The important of breakfast
To appreciate literary qualities of language	A variety of genres represented in poetry	Poems that tell a story Poems that reflect on life

in expressing original ideas.		Poems that critique society

Each genre has a particular structure and goes through a number of stages to achieve its purpose. Each genre is characterized by a distinctive schematic structure, that is, by a distinctive beginning, middle and end structure through which the social function of the genre is realized. The various stages are generally ordered in a relatively predictable way. While some purposes for speaking and writing remain constant across cultures, the ways in which these purposes are realized vary. Thus, it is likely that there will be considerable variation of genres between cultures.

We believe that it is useful for students to be aware of how genres are organized differently according to their purpose. It is important, however, that genres are not taught as rigid formula, but rather that knowledge about core and optional stages be used as tools for exploring texts.

2.1.3 Register

Language is used in a context of situation as well as a context of culture. Halliday (e.g. 1978) suggests that there are three variables within any context of situation that largely determine the language choices that are made in the construction of any language text. These variables function together as the key factors and are responsible for the configuration of a language features found in any text. This configuration of language features constitutes the *Register*. The contextual variables are field, tenor and mode.

- Field

The field refers to the content, subject-matter or the social activity taking place. In a school context, for example, our language choices will vary depending on the curriculum area. The language choices we make in Science, for example, will be quite different from those made in History. The topic of crystallization will employ quite different language features from the topic of life in ancient Rome.

- Tenor

The tenor refers to the roles we take up (student, parent, customer, employee) and our relationships with others in any particular situation. Relationships can be described in terms of power (equal or unequal status), status, level of expertise, age, ethnic background, gender, contact (how often you have contact with the person to whom you are speaking or writing), or affect (attitudes and feelings towards topics and participants). The relationships that exist between participants or the audience for whom a text is written, have a considerable impact on the language that is used. Language choices will vary according to how well they know each other, how frequently they meet and how they feel about each other. If you are having a conversation with a close friend that you meet with regularly, the choices will be quite different from a tutorial session with a senior lecturer and a group of students you have hardly met. In writing, it involves being sensitive to the needs of an unknown reader, using language to engage with the reader and create a certain rapport.

- Mode

The mode refers to the channel of communication being used: the mode and the medium. Here we are concerned with the difference between the spoken mode and the written mode and the different roles these play in the learning process – an important consideration as students move from the oral language of the home and schoolyard to the increasingly dense and compact language of the written mode in academic contexts. Mode can also refer to visual and multimodal texts presented through a range of media. It involves two perspectives on distance:

(i) distance in space and distance in time between speaker/listener and reader/writer

(ii) distance between text and the events being referred so, such as listening to a cooking demonstration on TV; relating the TV demonstration to a friend; reading a recipe. These two notions of distance frequently relate to the transition from spoken to written language.

Field, tenor, and mode determine the choices that the speaker or writer makes from the systems in the language of discourse, vocabulary and grammar. Some of the ways in which these choices operate are as follows:

Field : choice of vocabulary, selection of verbs of doing, being or feeling
Tenor : use of modality and modulation, choices of personal pronouns
Mode : cohesive ties operating in spoken or written texts.

Any combination of these contextual features creates the register of a situation. In one situation, we might find a couple of old friends (tenor) discussing (oral mode) their holiday plans (field). In another situation, we might imagine a young child interacting with a favorite author (tenor) writing in a blog on the author's website (written mode) about a book she has just enjoyed (field). As you can imagine, the language choices will differ considerably.

Being able to identify the register of a situation allows us to predict the kind of language our students will need to use in that situation. If we are planning a particular geography lesson, for example, our students might need support in using language to explain the movement of tectonic plates (field) to an unknown audience (tenor) in the written mode (mode).

2.1.4 How Genre and Register Work Together

Here is an illustration of the way genre and register work together in the text.

Text 1.

> One of our colleagues, Harvey Preston-Cooper was bitten by a 2m long Freshwater Crocodile that was being moved at a zoo. The crocodile refused to let go and eventually two screwdrivers were needed to open its jaws. As it was, the bite left two rows of punctures either side of her leg, but had not a co-worker held the crocodile and stopped it spinning, the injury could have been much worse. (Webb & Manolis, 1989, p. 113)

Text 2.

> The main criteria used to distinguish members of the three subfamilies are associated with the head, in particular the skull and jaws. The skull and jaws of all crocodilians function identically and are composed of the same suite of bones, but there is variation in the extent to which different bones compose certain structures. Fortunately, there are some external characteristics of the head that allow members of the three subfamilies to be distinguished. (Webb & Manolis, 1989, p. 117)

Text 1 is a short recount genre of a crocodile attack and Text 2 is part of a report genre providing information on different types of crocodiles. The purposes of each text are clearly different. In Text 1 the writers recount a dramatic incident while in Text 2 the writers provide factual information on crocodilians. Consequently, the writers have shaped and organized the texts differently and have made different choices regarding vocabulary and grammar in the construction of these two texts.

Text 1 – Structure

Orientation	the attack is located in time and place and the major participants (Harvey Preston-Cooper and the crocodile) introduced
Event	the crocodile bites and refuses to let go
Event	the screwdriver is used to prize open the crocodile's jaws
Coda	how the co-worker prevents injury from being worse

Text 2 – Structure

General Statement	the topic of classification of crocodile families is introduced
Description	details of similarities and differences between sub-groups of crocodiles are given.

A closer analysis of the two texts reveals the links between the overall purpose and organization of the texts and the language features. This is done by relating the contextual variables of field, tenor and mode to the choices that the writers have made at the level of vocabulary and grammar. Field is most obviously reflected in the choice of vocabulary. Thus, in the above texts choices in vocabulary include:

Text 1	*Freshwater Crocodile, crocodile, jaws, bite, injury*
Text 2	*Subfamilies, head, skull, jaws, skull, crocodiles, bones*

Since both texts draw on the field of crocodiles there is some overlap in vocabulary choices such as *crocodile* and *jaws.*

Field is also realized through the patterns of 'goings on' in the texts. Thus, while in Text I we have mainly verbs of action (e.g. *bitten, let go, open, held, stopped, spinning*) and specific participants (*Harvey Preston-Cooper, her, a 2m long Freshwater Crocodile, the crocodile, a co-worker*), in Text 2 we have mainly verbs of being or having (e.g. , *are associated, are composed, is, composed, are*) and generic participants (e.g. *Members of the three subfamilies, skull and jaws of all crocodilians, members of the three subfamilies*).

Tenor is somewhat neutral in both texts, as is typical in written mode. There are, however, differences between Texts 1 and 2, as can be seen in the following features:

Text 1 uses personal pronouns (*her, it*) and some indication of the writer's attitude is given through the choice of words such as *refused*, *much worse*.
Text 2 maintains strictly neutral tenor through frequent use of passives (e.g. *are associated, are composed, to be distinguished*).

Each text is in the written mode, however there are differences between the texts in regard to distance from action. For example: Text 1 recounts a recent crocodile action, whereas Text 2 provides abstracted information about crocodiles. A more detailed discussion of mode is included in the section on relationship between spoken and written language.

The knowledge of social context and the relationship of language to this context enables

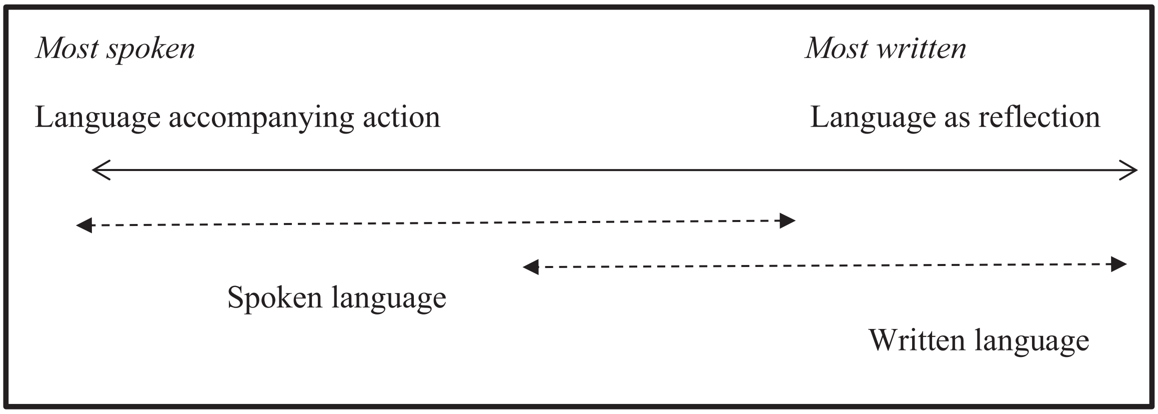
- Teachers to analyze texts and make explicit to learners why language choices are made.
- Learners to understand the intricate relationship of language to context and move towards independence as writers

2.2 Relationship Between Spoken and Written Language

The model of language outlined above provides the basis for looking more closely as the nature of spoken and written modes of language. An understanding of the relationship between these modes is central to developing a view of what the term 'literacy' means within the context of an industrialized society. The view of literacy held by teachers has, in turn, direct implications for the nature of literacy programs that are taught in classrooms.

The relationship between spoken and written language can usefully be viewed as a continuum, from 'most spoken' on the one hand to 'most written' on the other. This view can be presented diagrammatically as shown in Figure 2.2.

Figure 2.2 Spoken and written continuum



The term 'most spoken' refers to language interactions where language most closely accompanies action, and where there is least physical distance between participants. Examples of 'most spoken' texts include the language that accompanies tennis matches, basketball games, shared games, construction of buildings, etc. The term 'most written' refers to language texts where distance from action is greatest and where distance between participants is maximal. Examples of 'most written' texts include abstract reflections on causes and effects of distant events, such as history or economies, theoretical arguments and where an author writes for an unknown future audience.

There is no clear dividing line between spoken and written language. Some texts are neither exclusively spoken nor written. Examples of such texts include political speeches that have been written in order to be spoken, or plays that have been written in order to be spoken as if spontaneous speech. Some spoken texts have features typically associated with written language, such as a clearly articulated spoken argument in defense of a point of view. Some written texts contain features commonly associated with a spoken language, e.g. a chatty letter to a close friend.

The advantages of conceptualizing the relationship between spoken and written language as that of a continuum is that it highlights important similarities as well as differences between the modes. The major similarity is that the fact that both speakers and writers draw on the same language systems of discourse, vocabulary and grammar. A comparison of texts from the spoken and written ends of the mode continuum however, clearly highlights important differences. A recognition of both similarities and differences is important for a clear articulation of the term 'literacy.'

On the spoken end of the continuum are texts with features that are typical of spoken languages. Such texts are dialogic in nature, in that they are jointly constructed by two or more participants. Even when one participant simply nods and says 'Mm', the physical presence and feedback from this participant contribute to the construction of the text. Spontaneous spoken texts are not pre-planned and edited in the way that written texts are planned and edited, although some editing through self-correction frequently occurs in spoken language. Spoken texts are usually very much dependent on and related to the context in which they are produced. For example, in utterances such as '*put it here please*' interpretation of the term 'it' and 'here' are dependent on speaker and listener sharing the same physical context. In this sense, such a text can be said to be cohesive with the context.

On the written end of the continuum, texts have very different features. They are essentially monologic, in that they are constructed by one person writing alone although the writer may discuss the construction of this or her text with a reader. Typically, written texts are preplanned, drafted and edited before reaching their final version. The writer cannot assume a shared context or shared knowledge with the reader you may be separated from the writer by both time and geographical distance. Thus, written texts must be decontextualized in the sense that they must be independent of the actual physical context in which they were created. The cohesive ties must link into the text rather than out into the context. Unlike spoken texts, a written text must be cohesive within itself.

The general differences described above are reflected in different patterns of language choice in spoken and written texts. These patterns can be demonstrated through a comparison of texts as shown below.

Text A

X: Can I come and <u>show</u> you?
Y: Yes, OK?
X: I've <u>finished</u> this bit. Do you <u>think</u> that should <u>go</u> here?
X: Yeah, that's <u>fine</u>.

Text B

<u>Colleagues worked</u> on the <u>task. Sue</u> <u>wrote</u> the <u>introduction;</u> <u>Jenny wrote</u> the <u>body</u> of the <u>article</u> and then they <u>edited</u> it. They <u>made</u> sure that the two parts were <u>consistent</u> in style.

Text C

The completion of the document was achieved through the collaborative participation of colleagues. The editing process necessitated ensuring consistency of style between the various segments of the document.

The language patterns of Texts A, B and C are described under the heading of Reference, Lexical Density and Nominalization.

2.2.1 Reference

Text A is an example of a spoken text where the participants are face-to-face and the language is accompanying the action. The speakers are able to make their meaning clear simply by referring to their immediate physical surrounding. If we remove the text from their physical surroundings, we cannot be sure who or what is being referred to. Such texts are sometimes described as being 'context embedded' (Cummins & Swain, 1986).

It is not immediately apparent whether Text B is spoken or written. It is apparent, however, that is no longer language accompanying an action -but is instead reflecting on a previous action. The people and things referred to in the text are no longer present in the immediate physical setting of the writer/speaker. When people and things are introduced into such a text whey need to be labelled fully. (*Colleagues, the task*). Follow-up reference to those people and things can be made by using pronouns (*they, it*). Use of such reference items serves to link parts of the text together into a cohesive whole.

Text C, which is more clearly a written text, contains no pronominal reference. Instead chains of related vocabulary items serve to tie the text together into a cohesive passage (*document, editing process, consistency of style, segments*).

2.2.2 Lexical Density

Spoken and written language differ in the ratio of content words to grammatical or function words. Content or lexical words include nouns and verbs, while grammatical words include such things as prepositions, pronouns and articles. The number of lexical or content words per clause is referred to as lexical density. This can be seen in Texts A, B and C by the different proportions of lexical items, or content words, in the texts. The lexical items in Texts A, B and C have been underlined, and they are distinct from the grammatical or structural words. A useful way of systematically comparing the amount of information in each text is through a calculation of lexical items per clause in the text. Following the procedure lexical density in Texts A, B and C is as follows: Text A: 1,2; Text B: 2,7; Text C: 7, 5. AS the figures indicated, as texts become 'more written', lexical density increased. That is, more content information is packed into each clause.

If we look more closely at Texts A, B and C, we get some indication of how this happens. The clauses in written texts become longer because more information is packed into the noun/nominal group. A comparison of the nominal groups in the texts is shown in Figure 1.3 below.

Table 2.2 A comparison of nominal groups in texts A, B and C

Text A	I; you; I; this bit; you; that
Text B	Colleagues; the task; Sue; the introduction; Jenny; the body of the article; they; the two parts
Text C	The completion of the document; the collaborative participation of colleagues; the editing process; consistency of style; the various segments of the document

Through the addition of modifying adjectives and qualifying phrases to nominal groups, the writer of Text C has managed to pack information into a small number of clauses. This feature is typical of other written texts.

The density of written language is also reinforced by the tendency to create nouns from verbs. The example of this process are as follows:

Spoken	Written
Good writers reflect on what they write.	Reflections is a characteristic of good writers.

Halliday (1985b) calls this process of turning verbs into nouns grammatical metaphor. He suggests that the spoken forms are in a sense more basic than the written forms and that, in writing, by turning verbs into nouns, we have altered the normal state of events. In other words, processes and functions which in the grammatical system of English would normally be represented as verbs have been transformed into 'things' and represented as nouns. It is this transformation which led Halliday to use the term 'metaphor'.

These linguistic differences between spoken and written language are not absolutes. Some written texts share many of the characteristics of spoken texts, and vice versa. Ultimately, the linguistic shape of the text will be determined by a range of factors relating to the context and purpose for which it was produced in the first place.

2.2.3 Nominalization

Another feature appears in the nominal groups of Text C, which is also typical of other written texts. The nominal groups -*the completion of the documents, the collaborative participation of colleagues, the editing process* -all represent action as things. That is, actions, which would usually be coded at verbs in spoken texts, have been coded as nouns or things, in the written texts. The process changing actions into things in written texts is often referred to as nominalization (Halliday 1985b). Once actions have been turned into things in written texts, they can do what other nouns can do, that is, they can act on other things or they can themselves be acted upon. As the text becomes increasingly nominalized, there are fewer people doing the actions. Thus, in Text C, the subjects in the clauses are: *the completion of the document; the editing process*. Compare this with text A where the subjects in the clauses are: *I; I;* and *you.*
The different natures of spoken and written language, as shown in the language pattern described above, have evolved because of the different functions that spoken and written texts fulfil in society. These different functions are particularly significant in the educational context and are reflected in the units of work outlined later in this book.

Example of Research Report on Model of Language

Topic	Lexical Density
Source	*Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, Vol. 7 No. 2, September 2017, pp. 436-444 (doi: dx.doi.org/10.17509/ijal.v7i2.8352).
Title	Text Complexity in Senior High School English Textbooks: A Systemic Functional Perspective
Writers	Dhani Aldila Putra and Iwa Lukmana
Abstract	Textbooks have been considered to play a key role in the processes of education by researchers and educators, and the need to explore the language

of textbooks has become increasingly recognized. However, although textbooks are an important learning tool, textbook language and composition have not been widely explored especially from textual perspectives. The purpose of the present study is to investigate text complexity progression in the reading texts of English textbooks published for senior high school students in Indonesia. The nature and rate of that progression are addressed within the framework of Systemic Functional Linguistics. Being largely qualitative, this study examines three consecutive textbooks issued by the Ministry of Education, which are available online for classroom use. Data were collected and sampled from the reading texts found in the textbooks and were analyzed with regard to lexical density, lexical variation and grammatical intricacy in order to find the complexity of the texts. The results of the analyses show that regardless of the inconsistent progression of text complexity within each textbook, there is a consistent pattern of text complexity progression across grade levels. In other words, the lexical density, lexical variation and grammatical intricacy across the textbooks were found to have consistent progression from one grade level to another of which the direction is positive. It could be concluded that in general the language used in the texts becomes increasingly sophisticated, especially at lexical level, in accordance with grade level progression to cater for students' intellectual development.
Keywords: SFL; text complexity; lexical density; lexical variation; grammatical intricacy; textbooks

Introduction

For decades, textbooks have been considered to play a key role in the process of school education, determining what and how teachers teach (see e.g. Watts-Taffe, Gwinn, Johnson & Horn, 2003; Dole & Osborn, 2003; Reys, Reys & Chávez, 2004; Apple, 1991; Elliot & Woodwart, 1990). However, the importance of exploring the language of textbooks has become more and more recognized.

There are several aspects of textbooks that are worth exploring such as their cultural, social, or textual elements. With regard to the textual elements, the text complexity of school textbooks, among other things, could be considered one key element in determining the students' success in grasping the ideas contained in the textbooks. By having an appropriate level of complexity, the texts will be comprehended well by the students and thus stimulate their development in learning both the subject and the language.

Text complexity is among the linguistic features of written texts that can affect the level of difficulty. Linguistic or text complexity is fundamental to the current science; however, its precise definition has still been an open issue (Kwapien, Drozdz & Orczyk, 2010). In addition, while the notion of complexity is central to literacy and language education, there is no standard linguistic measure towards it (Rimmer, 2008). This study, therefore, focuses on the measurement of text.

Lexical density of texts is recognized as an important factor of complexity of written language (Halliday, 1989). Lexical density in this study is analyzed by applying the formula proposed by Halliday, which suggests that the number of lexical items per clause should be considered.

The text complexity of textbooks of language learning has not been the primary focus of attention so far. Moreover, the texts on school textbooks have not been largely analyzed with regard to their complexity on the basis of Systemic Functional Linguistics, particularly in Indonesia. Therefore, this study is an attempt to analyze the text complexity of senior high school

	English textbooks based on the perspective of Systemic Functional Linguistics in the Indonesian context. On the basis of the concerns mentioned above, the problems of the present study comprise (1) how lexical density progresses within and among the selected English textbooks, (2) how lexical variation progresses within and among the selected English textbooks, (3) how grammatical intricacy progresses within and among the selected English textbooks, and (4) the pedagogical implication that can be drawn from the exploration of text complexity of the textbooks for textbook writing and teaching purposes.
Method	The present study is mainly qualitative, supported by some descriptive quantification. The qualitative procedures were used to determine the category of lexical and functional words or items and to determine the category of ranking clauses in the texts. Meanwhile, the quantification was administered to find the indexes of lexical density, lexical variation and grammatical intricacy based on the formulas mentioned previously. All the analyses were drawn on a systemic functional perspective. This research focuses on the analysis of three sequential senior high school textbooks used in Indonesian schools. The data include the reading texts from those three textbooks. The textbooks selected for the study were issued by the Ministry of Education of the Republic of Indonesia in 2014 to be used as school textbooks in accordance with the latest curriculum, namely Curriculum 2013. These textbooks are available online in electronic book format (e-book) and can be downloaded freely for classroom use. The data obtained were analyzed in accordance with Systemic Functional Linguistics proposed by Halliday, which provides a powerful analytical tool and constitutes one of the linguistic approaches that have been well developed in the area of education (Freebody, 2003). The selected texts from the three textbooks were analyzed in terms of their complexity which covered the lexical density, lexical variation, and grammatical intricacy. The analyses of lexical density and grammatical intricacy were done manually. Meanwhile, the analysis of lexical variation involved an automation process by using AntConc 3.2.1w for Windows, a concordance program developed by Anthony (2007), to assist in identifying and calculating the lemmas (word families) that are present in the analyzed texts. Basically, each of the reading texts was marked and tabulated for its lexical items (content words), grammatical items (function words), ranking clauses, and clause complexes. The content words or lexical items included verbs, nouns, adjectives, and adverbs. Determiners such as the, some, this, and each were regarded as non-adjectives. The phrasal verb was taken as one word or lexical item. The tense was also regarded as representing one verb. Furthermore, a clause was said to consist of one predicator, which was the basis for determining the grammatical intricacy.
Results and Discussions	Table 1 shows that there are 556 lexical items in the first textbook, 1,091 lexical items in the second textbook, and 631 lexical items in the third textbook. Meanwhile, the number of ranking clauses in each textbook includes 215 clauses in the first textbook, 348 in the second textbook, and 181 in the third textbook. With these numbers, therefore, the lexical density of each textbook can be determined: 2.586 in the first textbook, 3.135 in the second textbook, and 3.486 in the third textbook. The results of the calculation are also presented in Figure 1 to show the direction of development of lexical density from one textbook to another. Figure 1 shows an increase in lexical density index across textbooks.

Textbook 1 has a lexical density index of 2.586, while Textbook 2 has a different lexical density index, that is 3.135 (.549 higher than the index of Textbook 1). Within the same direction, Textbook 3 has a lexical density index of 3.486. This index is .351 higher than that of Textbook 2. This result is in line with what To, Fan &Thomas (2013) have found, i.e. an increase in the lexical density of the texts in accordance with the levels of the textbooks.

A high lexical density indicates a high number of lexical items in a clause. On the contrary, a low lexical density indicates a relatively low number of lexical items in a clause. In other words, the higher the lexical density index of a text is, the denser the information it provides, thus the more complex the text will be. Therefore, an increase in lexical density indexes of some sets of texts suggests an intensification of complexity among those sets of texts.

Table 1. Lexical density features across textbooks

Features	Textbooks		
	1	2	3
Words	1,250	2,270	1,291
Grammatical items	694	1,179	660
Lexical items	556	1,091	631
Ranking clauses	215	348	181
Halliday's Lexical Density (LDH)	2.586	3.135	3.486

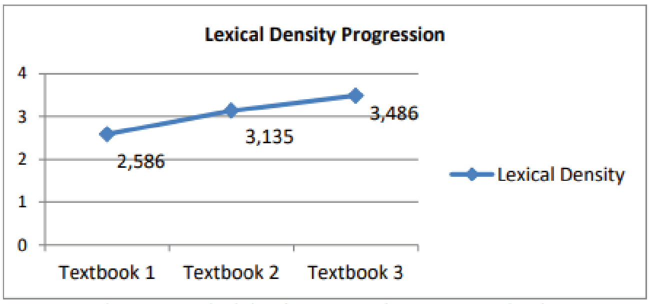


Figure 1. Lexical density progression across textbooks

Table 2 shows that Textbook 1 has a lexical variation index of .572, which is obtained by dividing the number of different lexical items or lemmas (318) with the number of lexical items (556). Meanwhile, Textbook 2, which has the number of word families (lemmas) of 560 and the number of lexical items of 1,091, has a lexical variation index of .513. Finally, Textbook 3, which has the number of word families of 451 and the number of lexical items of 631, has a lexical variation index of .715. Figure 2 shows how lexical variation progresses from one textbook to another.

Figure 2 shows an up-and-down progression in lexical variation index from one textbook to another. Textbook 1 has an index of lexical variation of .572, while Textbook 2 has a slightly different lexical variation index, that is .513, which is .059 lower than the index of Textbook 1. A different trend can be noted with regard to Textbook 3, which has a lexical variation index of .715. This index is .202 higher than the index of lexical variation of Textbook 2 and .143 higher than that of Textbook 1.

Table 2. Lexical variation features across textbooks

Features	Textbooks		
	1	2	3
Grammatical items	694	1,179	660
Lexical items	556	1,091	631
Lemmas (word families)	318	560	451
Halliday's Lexical Variation (LV)	.572	.513	.715

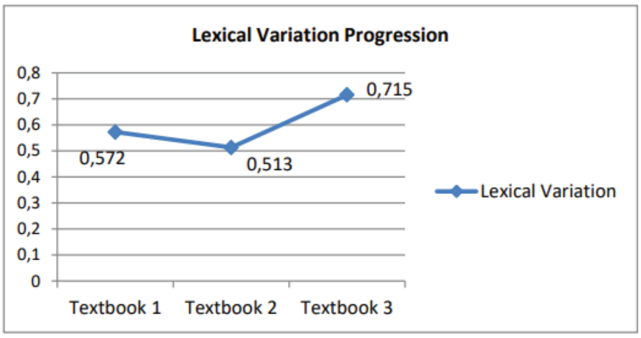


Figure 2. Lexical variation progression across textbooks

Table 3 shows that the total number of clauses in texts taken from Textbook 1 is 215. Meanwhile, Textbook 2 and Textbook 3 have the total number of clauses of 348 and 181 respectively. Furthermore, Textbook 1 contains 178 clauses in 73 clause complexes, while Textbook 2 contains 318 clauses in 109 clause complexes and Textbook 3 has 158 clauses in 51 clause complexes. On the basis of those numbers, the grammatical intricacy of each textbook can be calculated and compared to identify the progression of grammatical intricacy levels across textbooks. The results of the calculation of grammatical intricacy of each textbook are as follows: GI of Textbook 3 (3.098) is higher than GI of Textbook 2 (2.917), which is in turn higher than GI of Textbook 1 (2.438). This progression in grammatical intricacy is graphically represented in Figure 3.

As shown in Figure 3, there is an increase of grammatical intricacy from the first to the last textbooks. The highest-grade textbook, which is Textbook 3, has the highest level of grammatical intricacy, i.e. 3.098. This is slightly higher than the grammatical intricacy of Textbook 2 (2.917), which is .181 lower than that of Textbook 3. The least grammatically intricate among those three textbooks is Textbook 1, which has the grammatical intricacy level of 2.438. This figure is .479 lower than that of Textbook 2, and .66 lower than that of Textbook 3.

Table 3. Grammatical intricacy features across textbooks

Features	Textbooks		
	1	2	3
Clauses	215	348	181
Clause simplexes	37	30	23
Clause complexes	73	109	51
Clauses in clause complexes	178	318	158
Grammatical intricacy (GI)	2.438	2.917	3.098

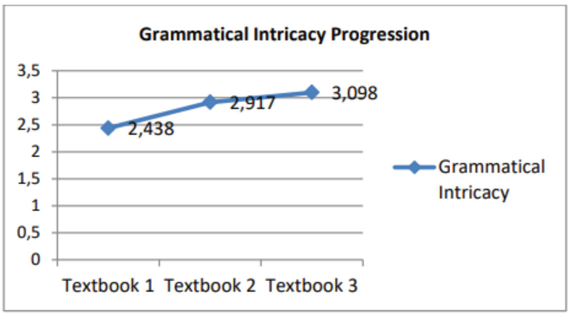


Figure 3. Grammatical intricacy progression across textbooks

Conclusion and Implications	The results of this study show that the lexical density indexes among the three textbooks increase from the lower to the higher grades. In other words, the lexical density becomes increasingly higher in accordance with the grades. Therefore, the textbooks become lexically denser and thus more complex across grades. Meanwhile, the lexical density indexes within each textbook do not always have a consistent pattern of progression. In other words, the lexical density of the texts in the final chapters of the textbooks is not always higher than the lexical density of the texts in the initial and middle chapters. This may result from the different genres and topics discussed in those chapters. It is also found that the lexical variation indexes among the three textbooks have a tendency to increase from the lower to the higher grades. It can therefore be concluded that the textbooks become more varied in terms of the use of lexical items in accordance with the grades of the textbooks. In short, the higher the level of the textbook is, the more varied the lexical words in the textbook are. With regard to grammatical intricacy, it is found that the grammatical intricacy indexes across the three textbooks increase from the lower to the higher grades. Meanwhile, the grammatical intricacy indexes within each textbook do not always have a consistent pattern of progression, which is similar to the phenomenon found in lexical density and lexical variation. The increase in lexical density and lexical variation across grades tends to result in higher abstraction; however, the increase in grammatical intricacy tends to result in lower abstraction. The effect of the increasing information density is lessened by the effect of the increasing grammatical intricacy. The increase in complexity due to the increase in lexical density and lexical variation from one grade to another is in line with the academic expectation that the language used in the textbooks becomes gradually more complex and more abstract to promote higher order thinking. Exploring the language used in pedagogical practices such as textbooks is beneficial to textbook writers. They are expected to rely not only on their intuition in composing texts but also on a sufficient analysis of the language in order to facilitate students' intellectual development. Awareness of the effect of text complexity on comprehension will hopefully result in better texts for pedagogical purposes. Textbook writers can carefully prepare texts with proper complexity progression both within and across textbooks. Furthermore, exploration of the lexicogrammatical features of the language, including text complexity, used in textbooks will also be helpful for teachers. With this knowledge in mind, teachers are expected to use textbooks with more confidence, knowing possible pitfalls and challenges that the language of instruction poses.

Conclusion

The model presented in this chapter demonstrates that language exists to fulfil certain functions and that these functions will determine the overall shape or generic structure of the discourse. This structure emerges as people communicate with one another, that is, it will have certain predictable stages. The communicative purpose will also be reflected in the basic building blocks of the discourse, that is, the words and grammatical structures themselves. In other words, different types of a discourse, and each of these will have its distinctive characteristics. Therefore, in the context of teaching and learning environment, the language of schooling differs from the language of everyday life. It involves increasingly complex, abstract and detailed understandings of concepts. And it differs across the areas of the curriculum. The language of math is quite distinctive – as is the language of history, science and the arts. This kind of language is not necessarily ’picked up’. It needs to be taught in the context of regular teaching and learning activities.

Spoken and written language also differ in terms of the demands that they make on the listener or reader. Spoken and written language are bot complex but in different ways. Spoken language tends to be complex grammatically and written language tends to be complex lexically. Spoken language tends to be grammatically intricate whereas written language tends to be lexically dense. With written language, there is no common situation, as there is in face-to-face interaction. The situation therefore has to be inferred from the text. In addition, the words themselves must carry all of the shades of meaning which in face-to-face interaction can be conveyed by non-verbal behavior. Then again, there is no opportunity for the readers to signal that they do not understand. The writer must make assumptions about the readers’ state of knowledge. If incorrect assumptions are made, then communication may be seriously impaired.

Discussion Questions

- How does language work from a functional perspective so that you can better support your students as they grapple with the language of academic texts?
- What do you understand, in your own words, the model of language?
- How would you describe the relationship between language and learning?
- What do you see as your responsibility in developing students’ academic language?
- As (future) educators, would your current knowledge about language enable you to deal with your responsibilities to make sure that all students have a good command of the language needed to succeed in school and beyond?

- Study the following written text. Can you identify any ways in which its linguistic features are determined by the context of culture, genre (purpose) and situation for which it was produced?

- Study the following conversation and see if you can work out what it is about. The following extract is from a lengthy conversation between three friends on holiday who are cooking eggs for breakfast.

Jim	Oh, this is beautiful!
Ros	Oh, yes, that's right.
Jim	Is that how you…you wanted it hard boiled, didn't you?
Ros	Yes, that's what I called hard.
Jim	Well, do you want to have this one?
Ros	No, you have that one because this one must be harder, mustn't it?
Jim	Doesn't necessarily follow.
Fafa	Yes, surely it…oh, you're right…it doesn't.
Jim	Depend which one went in first
Ros	Yes, you're right, well look, in a minute we'll know.

Further Readings

Hammond, J., et al. (1992). *English for social purposes: A handbook for teachers of adults' literacy*. Sydney, Australia: National Centre for English Language Teaching and Research.

Nunan, D. (1993). *Introducing discourse analysis*. London: Penguin English.

Putra, D.A. (2017). Text Complexity in Senior High School English Textbooks: A Systemic Functional Perspective. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistic*s, Vol. 7 No. 2, pp. 436-444.

Helpful Websites

http://www.uefap.net/grammar/grammar-in-eap-introduction/grammar-in-eap-sfl

References

Derewianka, B. (1900). *Exploring how text work*. Sydney: Primary English Teaching Association.

Cummins, J., & Swain, M. (1986). *Bilingualism in education*. New York: Longman Inc.

Halliday, M.A.K. (1978). *Language as a social semiotic*: *The social interpretation of language and meaning*. London: Edward Arnold.

Halliday, M.A.K. (1985b). *Spoken and written language*. Geelong: Deakin University Press.

Webb, G., & Manolis, C. (1989). *Crocodiles of Australia*. Sydney: Reed Books Pty Ltd.

Martin, J.R. (1985). Process and text: Two aspects of human semiosis. In J.D. Benson & W.S. Greaves (eds.), *Systemic Perspectives on Discourse,* Vol. 1, pp. 248-274. Norwood: Ablex.

CHAPTER 3

Communicative Competence

Communicative competence, which grows out of the natural human ability to interact, is seen as the basic concept. The successful language use for communication presupposes the development of communicative competence in the users of that language and that the use of language is constrained by the socio-cultural norms of the society where the language is used.

At the end of this chapter, the students are able to:

- Define communicative competence
- Describe the model of communicative competence
- Explain how communicative competence is related to language teaching pedagogy
- Discuss research findings related to communicative competence

The chapter on communicative competence explains a brief history of communicative competence, the definition of communicative competence, the model of communicative competence and the relationship of communicative competence and language teaching.

3.1 A Brief History of Communicative Competence

The notion of communicative competence has been in circulation for about forty years and has been used extensively in justifications and explications of communicative language teaching in Anglophone Applied Linguistics. The idea of communicative competence is originally derived from Chomsky's distinction between 'competence' and 'performance'. Competence refers to the language system. In this context, competence relates to one's knowledge about grammar rules while performance refers to the use of language. In some contexts, performance is about one's speech perception and production in the real situation. The term competence according to Chomsky emphasizes on the linguistics competence. In other words, competence is one's ability to communicate each other effectively which emphasis on the grammatical correctness. However, Chomsky did not directly mention the term of communicative competence but he had introduced the term competence as the starting point of some theorist to define the communicative competence.

Hymes (1967, 1972) was among the first to use the term communicative competence to refer to knowledge of rules of grammar, vocabulary and semantics, as well as patterns of sociolinguistics behaviour of speech community. Therefore, the first definitions of communicative competence were not generated in relation to the theory of second or foreign language teaching and learning. Only after the introduction of the communicative approach to language teaching, did the definition of communicative competence become the starting point for the teaching, learning and testing of the second language.

3.2 The Definition of Communicative Competence

Communicative competence is the ability to use language or interpreted language correctly in the process of interaction with the social environment such as the use of language in the proper regulation of social practices. Canale and Swain, (1980) and Celce-Murcia, (2007) also support Hymes' idea that communicative competence is the ability to use language correctly, appropriate to situations and express suitable behaviour in cultural context of communication. Therefore, it can be said that communicative competence refers to the ability to use English language and interpreted language correctly, appropriate to situations, and express suitable behaviour in cultural context of communication. However, in fact, competence itself is not observable. Hence, an actual communicative competence indicator is required as a guideline to judge someone's knowledge.

The development of theoretical models of communicative competence began in the mid-1960s. Some of the aforementioned proponents have designed the models of communicative competence. They are the models proposed by Canale and Swain (1980) which was revised by Canale (1983), Celce-Murcia (1995), and Bachman and Palmer (1996).

3.3 The Model of Communicative Competence

Among the various models of communicative competence, one of the important contributions of Celce-Murcia et al. (1995) was to specify that the various components of communicative competence were interrelated and that it was important to properly describe the nature of these interrelationships in order to fully understand the construct of communicative competence. However, with ten years' hindsight and with the benefit of co-authoring a teachers' handbook on the role of discourse and context in language teaching in the interim (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain 2000), Celce-Murcia proposed revision of the 1995 models to describe communicative competence for language teachers. The model can be seen as follows.

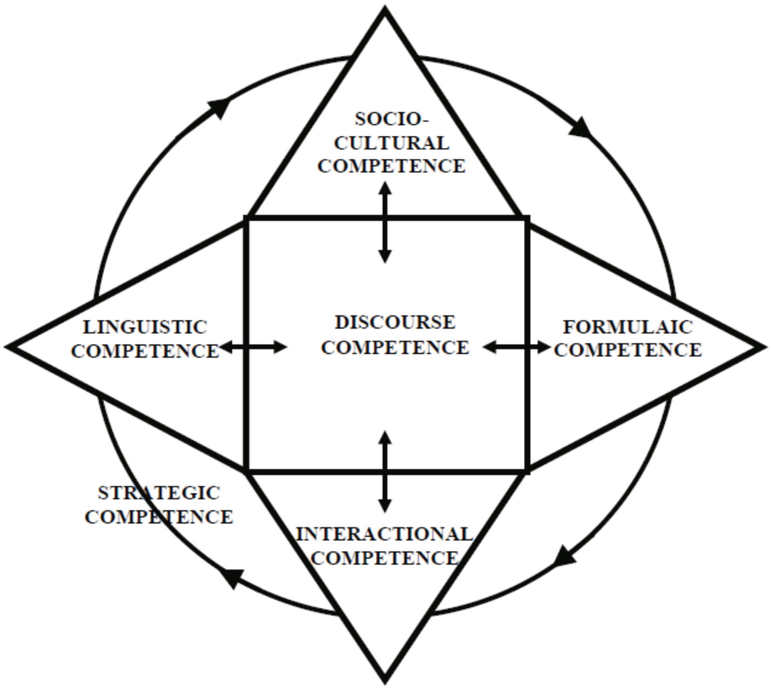


Figure 3.1 Model of communicative competence (Celce-Murcia, 2007, p. 47)

3.3.1 Sociocultural Competence

This most recent model maintains the top-down role of sociocultural competence. Sociocultural competence refers to the speaker's pragmatic knowledge, i.e. how to express messages appropriately within the overall social and cultural context of communication. This includes knowledge language variation with reference to sociocultural norms of the target language. In fact, a social or cultural blunder can be far more serious than a linguistic error when one is engaged in oral communication. The pedagogical challenge lies in the fact that second and foreign language teachers typically have far greater awareness and knowledge of linguistic rules than they do of the sociocultural behaviors and expectations that accompany use of the target language. Even when good cultural descriptions are available, it is hard to get learners to change their native verbal behavior based on a new set of assumptions.

Celce-Murcia et al. (1995, pp. 23-24) describe several sociocultural variables, three of which are most crucial in terms of the current model.

- *Social contextual factors*: the participants' age, gender, status, social distance and their relations to each other re: power and affect.
- *Stylistic appropriateness*: politeness strategies, a sense of genres and registers.

- *Cultural factors*: background knowledge of the target language group, major dialects/regional differences, and cross-cultural awareness.

The above competencies can be acquired in part through some knowledge of the life and traditions as well as knowledge of the history and literature of the target language community. An extended living experience among members of the target language group is probably the best experience for language acquisition if the learner has adequate basic preparation in both linguistic and sociocultural competence coupled with good powers of observation.

3.3.2 Discourse Competence

The proposed model also maintains the central role of discourse competence in any construct of communicative competence. Discourse competence refers to the selection, sequencing, and arrangement of words, structures, and utterances to achieve a unified spoken message. This is where the top-down communicative intent and sociocultural knowledge intersect with the lexical and grammatical resources to express messages and attitudes and to create coherent texts.

Celce-Murcia et al. (1995, p. 130) describe several sub-areas of discourse competence, four of which are most important with regard to the current model:

- *Cohesion*: conventions regarding use of reference (anaphora/cataphora), substitution/ ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical chains (i.e. Halliday & Hasan l976).
- *Deixis*: situational grounding achieved through use of personal pronouns, spatial terms (*here/there; this/that*), temporal terms (*now/then; before/after*), and textual reference (e.g. *the following table, the figure above*).
- *Coherence*: expressing purpose/intent through appropriate content schemata, managing old and new information, maintaining temporal continuity and other organizational schemata through conventionally recognized means.
- *Generic structure*: formal schemata that allow the user to identify an oral discourse segment as a conversation, narrative, interview, service encounter, report, lecture, sermon, etc.

3.3.3 Linguistic Competence

The left and right triangles of Figure 3.1 refer to linguistic competence and formulaic competence. This distinction is important and will be discussed further as both components are described. Linguistic competence includes four types of knowledge:

- *Phonological*: includes both segmental (vowels, consonants, syllable types) and supra segmental (prominence/stress, intonation, and rhythm).
- *Lexical*: knowledge of both content words (nouns, verbs, adjectives) and unction words (pronouns, determiners, prepositions, verbal auxiliaries, etc.).
- *Morphologica*l: parts of speech, grammatical inflections, productive derivational processes.
- *Syntactic*: constituent/phrase structure, word order (both canonical and marked), basic sentence types, modification, coordination, subordination, embedding.

3.3.4 Formulaic Competence

Formulaic competence is the counterbalance to linguistic competence. Linguistic competence entails the recursive, open-ended systems listed above. Formulaic competence refers to those fixed and prefabricated chunks of language that speakers use heavily in everyday interactions. It had been largely ignored prior to seminal work by Pawley and Syder (l983), Pawley (1992), and Nattinger and DeCarrico (l992), whose work brought this domain to general attention.

- Routines: fixed phrases like *of course, all of a sudden* and formulaic chunk like *How do you do? I'm fine, thanks; how are you?*
- Collocations: verb-object: *spend money, play the piano* adverb adjective: *statistically significant, mutually intelligible* adjective-noun: *tall building, legible handwriting*
- Idioms: e.g., *to kick the bucket = to die; to get the ax = to be fired/terminated*
- Lexical frames: e.g., *I'm looking for* ______________. *See you (later/tomorrow/ next week*, etc.)

Formulaic competence has grown in importance; it is now acknowledged that fluent speakers of a language draw on formulaic knowledge of the target language as often as they use systematic linguistic knowledge (Hunston, 2002). Much language pedagogy has yet to catch up with this fact.

3.3.5 Interactional Competence

The bottom-up counterpart to the more global top-down socio-cultural competence is the hands-on component of interactional competence. Interactional competence has at least three sub-components relevant to the current model:

- *Actional competence*: knowledge of how to perform common speech acts and speech act sets in the target language involving interactions such as information exchanges, interpersonal exchanges, expression of opinions and feelings, problems (complaining, blaming, regretting, apologizing, etc.), future scenarios (hopes, goals, promises, predictions, etc.) See Celce-Murcia et al. (l995) for more detailed information regarding actional competence.
- *Conversational competence*: inherent to the turn-taking system in conversation described by Sachs et al. (l974) but may be extendable to other dialogic genres: 1) how to open and close conversations, 2) how to establish and change topics, 3) how to get, hold, and relinquish the floor, 4) how to interrupt, 5) how to collaborate and backchannel, etc.
- *Non-verbal/paralinguistic competence* includes: 1) kinesics (body language), non-verbal turn-taking signals, backchannel behaviors, gestures, affect markers, eye contact, 2) proxemics (use of space by interlocutors), 3) haptic behavior (touching), 4) non-linguistic utterances with interactional import (e.g. *ahhh! Uh-oh. Huh?)* the role of silence and pauses.

Interactional competence is extremely important; the typical performance of speech acts and speech act sets can differ in important ways from language to language, as Tamanaha (2002) has demonstrated for Japanese and English. It is important, for example, for second and foreign language learners to understand how to manage social introductions, how to complain, how to apologize, and so forth, if they are going to achieve communicative competence in the target language. However, such actional competence must mesh with the more general rules of conversational competence related to the turn-taking system in the target language. Languages also differ on how they open and close conversations and on other conversational conventions: Can speakers interrupt each other? If so, how is this done? Can speakers overlap (i.e., talk simultaneously)? Should speakers backchannel? If so, how often? How long should pauses last? Normal conversational practice in one culture is often construed as rude behavior in another. Thus awareness of the conversational norms of the target language community and of the important differences between the L1 and L2 norms is very important for conversational competence.

The nonverbal or paralinguistic aspects of oral interaction are also crucial and are rarely treated in the language classroom. These conventions can overlap with those for conversational turn-taking; for example, an English speaker's body movements, in breaths, and eye contact can result in a conversational turn for the person displaying such non-verbal signals. Other relevant issues to address in this domain are: What is the normal physical space between speakers? Can speakers touch each other? Do speakers make and sustain direct eye contact with each other? Do speakers greet each other with a bow, a hand-shake, a hug, a kiss on one or both cheeks, or in some other way? What do speakers do when taking leave? These questions raise important issues in intercultural communication yet they are seldom adequately addressed in traditional language courses.

3.3.6 Strategic Competence

According to Oxford (2001, p. 362), strategies for language learning and use are "specific behaviors or thought processes that students use to enhance their own L2 learning." Such behaviors are either (1) learning strategies or (2) communication strategies. Learners who can make effective use of strategies (i.e. who have strategic competence) tend to learn languages better and faster than those who are strategically inept. Of Oxford's learning strategies, three are most important for our purposes:

- *Cognitive*: these are strategies making use of logic and analysis to help oneself learn a new language through outlining, summarizing, note taking, organizing and reviewing material, etc.
- *Metacognitive*: these strategies involve planning one's learning by making time for homework or for preparation, and engaging in self-evaluation of one's success on a given task or on one's overall progress. This is achieved in part by monitoring and noting one's errors, learning from teacher and peer feedback,

etc. Compensating for missing or partial knowledge by guessing the meanings of words from context or the grammatical functions of words from formal clues are also aspect of meta-cognition.

- *Memory-related*: These strategies help learners recall or retrieve words by acronyms, images, sounds (rhymes), or other clues.

The other crucial strategies, which are the ones we highlighted in Celce-Murcia et al. 1995, pp. 26-29), are communication strategies; they include the following:

- *Achievement*: strategies of approximation, circumlocution, code-switching, miming, etc.
- *Stalling* or time gaining: using phrases like *Where was I? Could you repeat that?*
- *Self-monitoring*: using phrases that allow for self-repair like *I mean….*
- *Interacting*: these are strategies that include appeals for help/clarification, that involve meaning negotiation, or that involve comprehension and confirmation checks, etc.
- *Social*: these strategies involve seeking out native speakers to practice with, actively looking for opportunities to use the target language.

3.4 The relationship of Communicative Competence and Language Teaching

In relation to language study and language teaching, the Communicative Approach in language teaching starts from a functional theory of language - one that focuses on language as a means of communication. The goal of language teaching is to develop what Hymes (1972) referred to as communicative competence. Hymes coined this term in order to contrast a communicative view of language and Chomsky's theory of competence. For Chomsky, the focus of linguistics theory was to characterize the abstract abilities speakers possess that enable them to produce grammatically correct sentences in a language. It was based on a cognitive view of language. Hymes held that such a view of linguistic theory was sterile, that linguistic theory needed to be seen as part of a more general theory incorporating communication and culture. Hymes's theory of communicative competence was a definition of what a speaker needs to know in order to be communicatively competent in speech community. In Hymes's view, a person who acquires communicative competence acquires both knowledge and ability for language use.

Example of Research Report on Communicative Competence

Topic	Interactional Competence
Source	*Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 8(3), January 2019, pp. 646-656. http://ejournal.upi.edu/index.php/IJAL/article/view/15266
Title	Assessing ESL undergraduate performance in a group oral test: Rater orientations
Writers	Tam Shu Sim, Zuraidah Mohd Don, and Chue Siu Kuan
Abstract	Group oral testing has attracted increasing interests in performance-based assessment, mainly due to its ability to measure interactional competence. Increasing attention has consequently been paid to the performance of raters, whose orientations have an impact on the scores in view of their role as mediators between performances and scores. Studies have shown that despite training, raters' personal constructs can lead to different assessments. This study examines rater orientations before and after viewing student performance in an oral test, to discover whether raters subscribe to the view that interaction is individual-focused and is mainly a representation of cognitive or within-language user construct, or whether they believe in a social perspective of interaction. Fourteen participants were interviewed to ascertain their personal constructs for assessing group oral interaction, as well as their justifications for rating a videotaped group oral performance using these personal constructs. The findings show that while raters valued a number of qualities including linguistic abilities, their focus was on interaction. This suggests an inclination towards the social interactional perspective, as they seem well aware that successful interaction is co-constructed, and cannot be achieved through individual language ability alone. **Keywords:** Co-constructed interaction; ESL raters' orientations; group oral interaction; higher education; testing group interaction
Introduction	This article explores one aspect of rating judgements, namely rater orientations in assessing the performance of ESL undergraduates in a specific course-related context. Following Ducasse and Brown (2009), the issues to be addressed are what raters focus on when rating oral performances and whether they are more inclined to the cognitive or the social perspective of interaction. The actual research questions are as follows: 1. What are raters' orientations when making judgements about student performance? a. What qualities or features do raters associate in principle with excellent performance in-group orals? b. What aspects of test taker performance do raters take into account in practice when making their judgements? 2. To what extent do raters: a. value features of interaction over other

	aspects of language performance, and b. view interaction as a co-constructed achievement?
Method	This is a small scale exploratory study involving 14 participants with teaching and testing experience. They were individually briefed on the purpose of the study and given the objectives of the course but not the rating criteria. The selection was based on purposive sampling. Of the 52 teacher-raters identified, only 14 volunteered to participate. The participants had from 2 to over 30 years of English language teaching experience, and all had experience of assessing peer-to-peer oral tests, ranging from 2 to over 30 speaking courses. Only 4 indicated that they had undergone some form of formal training in group oral tests. The rest relied on what they had learned from past experience. Data were collected in three stages. Participants were first interviewed to identify the qualities they associated with excellent student performance in group oral interaction. The question was "What do you think are the qualities of an excellent student in group oral interaction?" Excellence was used as the benchmark to provide a context within which raters could express their expectations. They gave their views without watching the videotaped performance. The interview lasted from 10 to 30 minutes, and it was conducted strictly without any prompt, but merely aimed to probe for elaboration and clarification. In the second stage, the participants watched a recording of the group oral in its entirety without pausing and then assessed the students using the criteria they had identified. They were not instructed on how to assess the students or given any criteria. During the interview, they were asked to comment on the features that they attended to when making their decision, and this was undertaken in the manner of a retrospective report with minimal questions and clarifications from the interviewer. No time limit was set. In the final stage, the participants were requested to justify their rating. The whole process was audiotaped, and the discourse was later transcribed verbatim. The transcripts were segmented into idea units consisting of one or more utterances with a single aspect of the event expressed as one idea. In the first data set, the units were coded according to the features that the participants felt contributed to excellent performance, and those in the second set according to features that the raters attended to as they rated student performance. Features identified in the coding process were grouped by theme to form major categories, e.g., linguistic resources include pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, and global linguistic resources. Repeated mentions were not counted, but elaborations and clarifications were. The coding framework is derived from Zhang and Elder's coding framework (2011), Ducasse and Brown's themes (2009), and what emerged from the data during the coding process. It consists of six categories: *Fluency, Content, Linguistic resources, Interaction, Demeanour* and *Compensation strategies*.
Results and Discussions	The participants mentioned 198 different qualities associated in principle with excellent performance but actually mentioned 434 qualities when rating student performance. The qualities were sorted into six main categories, Interaction, Linguistic Resources, and Content being mentioned more than Demeanour, Fluency, and Compensation Strategies. Table 1 shows the complete list of categories and subcategories and the number of mentions in

the respective subcategories.

Table 1. Coding framework and mentions in each category/subcategory

Category/Subcategory	Expected qualities (Mentions)	Applied criteria (Mentions)
1. Fluency		
Total mentions, (%)	10 (5%)	16 (4%)
1.1 Fluency (global)	6	9
1.2 Hesitation and pausing	3	6
1.3 Rate of speech	1	1
2. Content		
Total mentions, (%)	31 (16%)	103 (24%)
2.1 Ideas	12	72
2.2 Relevancy to topic	11	18
2.3 Length of speech	-	-
2.4 Appropriateness of response to context	6	12
2.5 Content (global)	2	1
3. Linguistic resources		
Total mentions, (%)	49 (25%)	101 (23%)
3.1 Pronunciation	14	12
3.2 Vocabulary	11	17
3.3 Grammar	8	36
3.4 Linguistic Resources (global)	16	36
4. Interaction		
Total mentions, (%)	88 (44%)	186 (43%)
4.1 Interaction (global)	5	9
4.2 Interactive Listening	9	10
4.3 Participation in Group	9	40
4.4 Intelligibility of others	1	-
4.5 Conversation Management		
4.5.1 Managing topic coherence	5	6
4.5.2 Turn taking	3	8
4.5.2.1 Dominating	18	11
4.5.2.2 Interrupting	7	5
4.5.2.3 Creating opportunities for others to participate	18	19
4.5.3 Leading/sustaining discussion	1	11
4.5.3.1 Initiating/summarizing/concluding	3	24
4.5.3.2 Filling in the gaps/rephrasing	1	11
4.5.3.3 Accommodating others	4	3
4.6 Non-verbal interpersonal communication		
4.6.1 Gaze	1	10
4.6.2 Body Language	3	19
5. Demeanour		
Total mentions, (%)	19 (9.5%)	24 (5%)
5.1 Confidence	7	11
5.2 Others	12	13
6. Compensation Strategies		
Total mentions, (%)	1 (0.5%)	4 (1%)
6.1 Compensation Strategy (global)	-	-
6.2 Specific Compensation Strategies	1	4
TOTAL (All categories)	198	434

The most mentioned qualities are those related to Interaction. Interactive Listening, Participation in group, Dominating, and Creating opportunities for others to participate were mentioned more when participants related their general beliefs about excellent performance. They expected excellent students to listen to others, to participate but not to dominate, and to know when to invite participation. Four sub-categories (initiating/summarizing/concluding; filling in the gaps/rephrasing; gaze; and body language) were mentioned infrequently as expected qualities, but more frequently during the assessment.

Table 2 indicates the number of participants who mentioned each category as expected qualities and rating criteria. With the exception of Compensation Strategies, more than half of the participants mentioned all the categories. When interviewed about their general beliefs about excellent performance, all participants mentioned Interaction, followed closely by Linguistic Resources and Content (12 participants each). More of the categories were mentioned by the participants when they rated the actual performance.

Table 2. Mentions of the category by participants

Category	Expected qualities Participants (%)	Applied criteria Participants (%)
Fluency	8 (57%)	10 (71%)
Content	12 (86%)	14 (100%)
Linguistic Resources	12 (86%)	14 (100%)
Interaction	14 (100%)	14 (100%)
Demeanour	9 (64%)	9 (64%)
Compensation Strategies	1 (7%)	3 (21%)

This brief overview of the frequency of mentions of qualities reveals the mental constructs that raters bring with them to the rating process. These qualities were mentioned by the participants of this study without any stimulus, and most of them re-emerged with more mentions and fuller narratives during the assessment of the group oral interaction. Hence it seems that complementing rater expectations with actual assessment data enables a more comprehensive picture of rater orientations to emerge.

Based on the frequency of mentions (Figure 2 and Table 1), the raters view Interaction as the most important component of group oral interaction, making up 44% and 43% of total mentions for expected qualities and rating criteria respectively. In comparison, Linguistic Resources received only 25% and 23% of total mentions as expected qualities and rating criteria. This suggests that the raters valued the ability to interact more than linguistic ability.

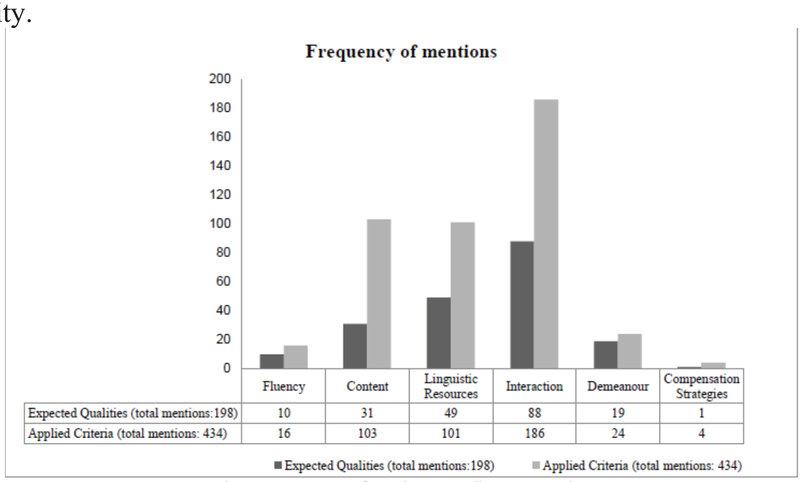


Figure 2. Frequency of mentions according to categories

Conclusion and Implications

The findings indicate evidence about aspects of performance and features of interaction that raters focus on when assessing student performance in group oral tests. They are similar as well as different from the findings of other studies.

In this study, the majority of the raters who are all non-native speakers of English did not consider linguistic ability to be more relevant than other categories. Like the native speakers in Zhang and Elder's study, they seem to focus on a wider range of abilities in judging oral performance. This suggests that the raters of this study tend to put more emphasis on the test-takers' ability to carry out successfully a real-world task than on the test-takers' underlying language ability as manifested through a particular task.

Similarly, many of the interactional features, such as interactive listening, conversation management, seeking clarification, or extending/sustaining a discussion, mentioned by the raters in this study are not new or unique. They mirror those mentioned in Brooks (2009), Ducasse and Brown (2009), and

	May (2011). The studies cited were based on paired interaction, while our study looks at group interaction with four speakers. Like the raters in May's study, the participants in this study also support the view that interaction is co-constructed as they too see interaction as a mutual achievement. One of the major implications of this study would be how the raters' orientations would impact their rating behaviour. Some of them seem to view interaction as more of an individual capability, as evidenced in some of their comments. This could be due to the current practice of having to grade the students individually within an interaction and not as a whole group, thereby making a stronger case for May's (2009, p. 419) argument that a "shared score" should be assigned for "interactional effectiveness" in the test task to acknowledge the co-constructed nature of the interaction. The orientations of the majority of the participants, however, lie within the social perspective of interaction as evidenced from their perceptions that linguistic ability alone is not sufficient for interaction as well as their awareness that co-construction underlies interaction. Given that scores awarded by raters reflect the qualities they value, how will they react to a rating scale which does not mirror their orientations? As mentioned earlier, most of the scoring rubrics used locally, including for this particular course, give more weighting to linguistic proficiency. This is not surprising given that language testing has a history of defining the L2 construct in cognitive terms. By focusing on internal or cognitive abilities, test designers have been able to generalise across contexts, which has been a desired outcome of testing. In this case, considering the fact that the participants have placed a premium on interaction whereas the scoring rubric does not, this mismatch could lead to a loss in test reliability.

Conclusion

Communicative competence can be defined as the ability to use language, or to communicate, in a culturally-appropriate manner in order to make meaning and accomplish social tasks with efficacy and fluency through extended interactions. Therefore, the concept of communicative competence is in line with one of the goals of second language teaching and learning which is to develop fluency, accuracy, and appropriacy in language use. Fluency is natural language use occurring when a speaker engages in meaningful interaction and maintains comprehensible and ongoing communication. In communicative language teaching, fluency was addressed through classroom activities which students must correct misunderstanding and work to avoid communication breakdowns. Fluency practice can be contrasted with accuracy practice, which focuses on creating correct example of language use.

EFL learners must be able to process and interact with the language they experience in order to succeed in the sociocultural contexts in which they find themselves. Whether in the classroom, the grocery store, or the workplace, if EFL learners do not have access to this language, they have less opportunity and less power to interact as equal members of social interactions. Communicative competence as a goal, through various Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) methodologies, allows them to the cultural and linguistic knowledge needed which can be handle the interactional challenges presented to them. When preparing to teach EFL learners, teachers must realize that correct L2 grammar and denotative meanings are insufficient to prepare those L2 learners for real interactions in the target language. EFL learners must understand the intent of communication, embedded in specific cultural settings, in order to fully demonstrate communicative competence.

Discussion Questions

- Having read this chapter, what are the goal of the model of communicative competence as it applied to second language learning? Please explain the answer to a college.
- How does communicative competence differ from linguistics competence?
- A college comes to you and is worried he or she spends too much time on grammar. Using Celce-Murcia (2007) six dimensions of communicative competence, how could you advise your colleague on balancing these six areas?

    Sociocultural Competence

    Discourse Competence

    Linguistic Competence

    Formulaic Competence

    Interactional Competence

    Strategic Competence
- Please explain of how model of communicative competence might translate to classroom procedure!
- Referring to the previous discussion, please give an example of each category in the model of communicative competence!
- Do you think non-native speakers can acquire the same level of communicative competence as posited by Celce-Murcia for native speakers?
- What do you think about Celce-Murcia's model of communicative competence? What are its strengths and weaknesses?

Further Readings

Sim, T.S., Don, Z.M., & Kuan, C.S. (2019). Assessing ESL undergraduate performance in a group oral test: Rater orientations. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, Vol. 8 (3), pp. 646-656.

Celce-Murcia, M. (2007). Rethinking the role of communicative competence in language teaching. In E. A. Soler & M.P.S. Jordà (eds.), *Intercultural Language Use and Language Learning,* pp. 41-58. Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Springer.

Helpful Websites

https://www.learnalberta.ca/content/eslapb/about_communicative_competence.html

http://www.engleski.edu.rs/communicative-competence-in-english/

https://www.thoughtco.com/what-is-communicative-competence-1689768

https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/communicative-competence

References

Canale M., & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to Second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics* 1(1), pp. 1-48.

Celce-Murcia, M. (1995). The elaboration of sociolinguistic competence: Implications for teacher education. In: Alatis J.E, Straehle C.A., & Ronkin, M. (eds) Linguistics and the Education of Language Teachers: Ethnolinguistic, Psycholinguistic, and Sociolinguistic Aspects. *Proceedings of the Georgetown University, Round Table on Languages and Linguistics*, 2005, pp. 699-710. Georgetown University Press, Washington DC.

Celce-Murcia M., & Olshtain, E. (2000). *Discourse and context in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Halliday M.A.K., & Hasan, R. (1976). *Cohesion in English*. Longman: London.

Hunston, S. (2002). Pattern grammar, language teaching, and linguistic variation. In Reppen R., Fitzmaurice S., & Biber D. (eds). Using Corpora to Explore Linguistic Variation. John Benjamins, *Amsterdam*, pp. 167-186.

Hymes, D. (1972). On communicative competence. In J.B. Pride & J. Holmes (eds.), *Sociolinguistics*. Harmondsworth: Penguin. pp. 269-293.

Light, J. (1997). Communication is the essence of human life: Reflections on communicative competence. *Augmentative and Alternative Communication*, 13, 61-70.

Nattinger J.R., & DeCarrico, J. (l992). *Lexical phrases and language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Oxford, R. (2001). Language learning styles and strategies. In Celce-Murcia, M. (ed) *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language*. Heinle & Heinle, Boston, MA, pp. 359-366.

Pawley A. (1992). Formulaic speech. In Bright, W. (ed.) *International Encyclopedia of Linguistics*, Vol. 2. New York: Oxford University Press.

Pawley A., & Syder, F.H. (l983). Two puzzles for linguistic theory: Native like selection and native like fluency. In Richards J.C., & Schmidt R.W. (eds.) L*anguage and Communication,* pp. 191-227. London: Longman.

Sachs H., Schegloff, E., & Jefferson, G. (l974). A simplest systematics for the organization of turn-taking for conversation. *Language* 50 (4), pp. 696-753.

Tamanaha, M. (2002). Interlanguage speech act realization of apologies and complaints: The performances of Japanese L2 speakers in comparison with Japanese L1 and English L1 speakers. *Unpublished Ph.D.* dissertation in Applied Linguistics. Los Angeles: University of California.

CHAPTER 4

Written Discourse Studies

Written discourse studies starts with the assumption that text is naturally organized.

At the end of this chapter, the students are able to define, describe and explain:

- Cohesion and Coherence
- Theme and Rheme
- Thematic Progression/Development
- Appraisal Analysis
- Pragmatics

Chapter 4 provides explanations and examples of discourse studies in written language. The way analysis of written discourse has developed in the last few decades. Written discourse analysis refers to the study of naturally occurring written discourse focusing in particular on its analysis beyond the sentence level. As a general term, written discourse analysis therefore can focus on the textualization of lexico-grammar, organization of discourse, contextualization of discourse and other textual properties, on regularities of organization of language use, on situated language use in institutional, professional or organizational contexts, or on language use in a variety of broadly configured social contexts, often highlighting social relations and identities, power asymmetry and social struggle. Therefore, this chapter will address some conceptual frameworks in written discourse studies, including:

- Cohesion and coherence
- Theme and rheme
- Thematic progression/development
- Appraisal analysis
- Pragmatics

4.1 Cohesion and Coherence

A text needs to do more than simply hang together. It also needs to make sense. The capacity of a text to 'make sense' is called coherence. An incoherence text, such as 4.1, does not make sense. Coherence is the quality that the reader derives from the text: it is not simply a function of its cohesion. Cohesion, then, is a surface feature of texts, independent of the reader. Coherence, on the other hand, results from the interaction between the reader and the text. Writers intentionally use cohesive devices with the aim of making their texts easier to follow, more coherent.

4.1

> The hotel is famous. It is one of the most well-known hotels in the country. The latest international dancing competition was held at the hotel. The hotel spent a lot of money to advertise the event. Because the hotel wanted to gain international reputation. But not many people attended the event

The text, in case you hadn't noticed, is constructed out of sentences from other texts in this and the previous chapter. Meaningless as it is, it is not without cohesion -

sentences are notionally connected by the use of pronouns, substitutions and conjuncts. But it is incoherent- however hard we try; we cannot get it to make sense.

Cohesion then, is a surface feature of texts, independent of the reader. Coherence, on the other hand, results from the interaction between the reader and the text. This is not to say that cohesion and coherence function independently. Writers intentionally use cohesive devices with the aim of making their texts easier to follow, i.e. more coherent. But if the text is basically nonsense, no number of linkers will make it coherent. The issue of coherence is usually approached from two perspectives: the micro-level and the macro-level. At the micro-level, readers have certain expectations of how the proposition (i.e. the meaning) of a sentence is likely to be developed in the sentence or sentences that follow it. When these expectations are met, the immediate text will seem coherent. At the macro-level, coherence is enhanced if a) the reader can easily discern what the text is about, b) the text is organized in a way that answers the reader's likely questions and c) the text is organized in a way that is familiar to the reader.

Example of Research Report on Cohesion and Coherence

Topic	Cohesion and Coherence
Source	*Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, Vol. 5 No. 2, January 2016, pp. 253-261. http://ejournal.upi.edu/index.php/IJAL/article/view/1349
Title	Coherence and Cohesion: An Analysis of the Final Project Abstracts of the Undergraduate Students of PGRI Semarang
Writer	Suwandi
Abstract	An abstract is the gist of a research report which has the purpose to allow the reader to get the main information without reading the whole document. Since it plays an important role in grasping the information of the whole research report, the writing of the abstract, therefore should be concise and the logical relation among sentences is clear, coherent and cohesive. However, many of the students still find difficulties in making their writing coherent due to their limitation in understanding the cohesive devices and their application in their writing. This article attempts to reveal the coherence of the abstracts of the final project reports of the undergraduate students of PGRI University Semarang, Indonesia. Its objectives are (1) to reveal the micro-level coherence, how each sentence is connected to the other to make logical relations and (2) to discover the macro-level coherence, the right use of cohesive devices like conjunction, reference, substitution or ellipsis so as to make the whole text coherent. Several abstracts of the students' final projects were selected randomly to be analyzed. Since it is a qualitative research, the data were in the level of

	words or sentences. The result shows that the abstracts analyzed have not satisfactorily achieved coherence though some cohesive devices like reference, conjunctions, ellipsis which are used to link one sentence to the other. Some grammatical mistakes are also found such as the plural forms, active-passive voice. **Keywords:** abstract, coherence, cohesion, final project report
Introduction	The ability to write a text has played an important role for the undergraduate students of the English Department in Indonesia since it is one of the requirements to graduate from the university by submitting their final project reports written in English. As cited by Kern (2000: 171) from the studies conducted by Bland, Noblitt, Armington and Gay (1990), the early learners of a new language were dominated by the difficulty in vocabulary; while the advanced learners as students in universities are dominated by the genres and rhetorical organization problems. Consequently, the text they write often does not show its unity or incoherent for they don't know much how to link one sentence to the other or one paragraph to the other cohesively. This problem leads the writer to investigate whether or not the undergraduate students of the English Department of PGRI University Semarang have written their abstracts in their final projects reports coherently and cohesively.
Method	This research belongs to a qualitative one since the data are in the form of words, phrases or sentences. Three abstracts of the undergraduate students of the English Department of PGRI University Semarang were taken randomly to be analyzed their coherence and cohesion. Those abstracts were written by Student A (2014), Student B (2014) and Student C (2014). To analyze their coherence, the writer concerned on how the ideas presented and delivered to the readers in the texts. Therefore, the writer focused on the investigation of the coherence of the students' writing on their final project viewed from their logical relationship. There were some steps taken by the writer to analyze the text. At first, he broke up the paragraphs of the abstract into sentences; second, he analyzed each sentence using Theme Rheme analysis, and third, he analyzed their cohesion by looking at the cohesive devices used in connecting one sentence to the others
Results and Discussions	**The Analysis of the Micro-Level Coherence, the Logical Relationship of the Sentences in the Text.** **Abstract 1 by Student A (2014)** The theme (The aims of the study) echoes part of the rheme in the title (to improve students' speaking ability). It is followed by the rhemes (to find out). The phrase to find out is repeated 3 times to indicate the focus of the study. Ellipses are also used here in order to be more economical, for instance, point (1) ...before (the students are) being taught..., (2) (The aim of the study is) to find out ...after (the students are) being taught.... and (3) (The aim of the study is) to find out ... before (the students are being taught using dance game) and after (the students are) being...... In this case, ellipses are used in which several phrases in each clause were deleted. Parallelism is also used in these rhemes, for instance, the use of to find out.... Abstract 2 by Student B (2014) S1: Direct and Indirect Speech is a material that is difficult to be leant because there are many rules about it, like the changes of tenses, verb, pronoun, and adverb of time.

The theme is (Direct and Indirect Speech) and is followed by the rheme (a material that is difficult to be leant because there are many rules about it, like the changes of tenses, verb, pronoun, and adverb of time).This sentence tells the reasons why the writer chose direct and indirect speech as the title of her research and it is worth investigating since it is difficult to learn. The reference (It) in this sentence refers to the phrase of direct and indirect speech and it is properly used since the word speech is singular. There are several spelling mistakes in terms of writing vocabulary, like (leant), speech) and (about) that should be (learnt), (speech) and (about). It indicates that the writer is very careless.

Abstract 3. By Student C (2014)
S1: The objectives of this final project are: 1) To find out the students' reading comprehension of descriptive texts taught using discovery learning method. 2) To find out the students' reading comprehension of descriptive texts taught without using discovery learning method., 3) To find out whether or not there is a significant difference on the mastery on reading comprehension of descriptive text between the students taught using discovery learning method and those taught without discovery learning method of the seventh grade students of SMP 3 Pati in academic year 2013/2014.
The theme (The objective of….) echoes part of the rheme in the title (to Improve Students' Reading....). It is followed by rheme1 (To find out ....), rheme 2 (To find out ....) and rheme 3 (To find out whether or not ....) as the beginning of the answers of the theme of the title. Parallelism, and ellipses are used in this sentence.

The Cohesion of the Texts
If we observe the way how the students write their abstracts, three of them used the following cohesive devices:

a. Lexical cohesion is realized in lexical repetition like the phrase to find out... (sentence 1 text 1 and sentence 1 text 3). It is used to emphasize its significance in the entire text. While the synonyms, antonyms, substitutions are not used.
b. Grammatical cohesion is realized in
   1) reference: it (abstract 1 in sentence 7, 12, 14, 16; abstract 2 in sentence; abstract 3 in sentence 1, 5, 6, 7, 10 and 10).
   2) abstract 3 in sentence 1, 5, 6, 7, 10 and 10).
   3) Ellipsis realized in (abstract 1, sentence 1; abstract 3 sentence 1)
   4) Conjunctions: coordinating and sub- coordinating conjunctions realized in and, but, so, after, before (Abstract 1 sentence 1, 11, 13, 15; abstract 2 in sentence 1, 3, 4, 7, 8; abstract 3 in sentence 3, 8, 9 and 10).

Comparatives realized in higher (abstract 1 in sentence 16; abstract 3 in sentence 6)

Conclusion and Implications	The result of the study shows that many of the students still find difficulties in writing abstract coherently. Most of them seem to have insufficient knowledge on the use of cohesive devices or sentence adverbials that can relate ideas stated in the earlier sentences or reinforce the ideas. Most of the abstracts are not well-formed in which the sentences are not hanged together that make the texts coherent nor make sense. The fact that sentence adverbials like however, nevertheless, yet, furthermore, moreover, in addition which are quite important to relate ideas cohesively are not used in the texts. However, the students have tried to link their sentences in the texts in a number ways like using lexical cohesion and grammatical cohesion though they fail to meet the readers' expectation. It is therefore, recommended that the lecturers, particularly those who teach academic writing should enhance the students' academic writing competence through having a lot of practices in writing. Besides, they should also explain the cohesive devices or sentence adverbials with some examples that will help them learn how to apply the cohesive devices in connecting one sentence to the other or from one paragraph to the other in order to form the unity of the text. It is also important to note that the students still have difficulties in constructing passive and active sentences. Besides, they also have difficulties in mastering the plural forms and gerund as there are some mistakes found in text 1 sentence 5, 8 and text 3, sentence 1. These kinds of grammatical mistakes influence the message conveyed in the text that could possibly arouse misunderstanding. Hence, enhancing the students' grammar mastery is also of primary importance for enabling the students to write academic paper well.

4.2 Theme and Rheme

In English, where we put information in a clause tells us about where the clause is coming from and where it is going to. In an English clause, there are two points of prominence, the beginning and the end. The beginning of a clause is where we put information which links the clause to what has come before. For example, we find conjunctions at the beginning of clauses because they provide a logical links with what has gone before. We also find information about the topic of the clause, what the clause is about. This information is contained in the first nominal group in the clause. There are exceptions to this, such as when a prepositional phrase precedes the first nominal group. The topical information is also usually related to something which has been introduced earlier in a text or is retrievable from the context. Look at the following example from the Bruce Springsteen song 'The River'.

I come from down in the valley

Here, we can find 'I' at the beginning, telling us that the clause is about 'me' (the singer). This is the *Theme* of the clause and in this case, it relates the text to its context. We retrieve the identity of 'I' from outside the text, i.e. the person singing the song (adopting the role of main participant in the song). 'I' is the Theme of the clause. The new information in the clause 'down in the valley', is, in this case, a prepositional phrase (realizing a Circumstance) and comes at the end.

If we move on to the next line: where Mister, when you're young

We find the new information from the previous line picked up as Theme ('where'). Information which was already available in the text is further developed. In English, the Theme can be identified as that or those element(s) which come(s) first in the clause. This represents the point of departure of this message from the previous one. The rest of the clause is called Rheme. New information is typically contained in the Rheme. Therefore, it can be said that theme, is broadly speaking, what the clause is going to be about. If it is in the terms of Theme and Rheme, Theme represents 'This is what I am talking about' and Rheme is 'This is what I am saying about it'. In terms of looking at a clause as a message, the Theme looks backwards, relating the current message to what has gone before. The Rheme points both backwards and forwards by picking up on information which is already available and adding to it and by presenting information which was not there before. The interaction of Theme and Rheme governs how the information in a text develops. Information prominence can be summarized in the following figure.

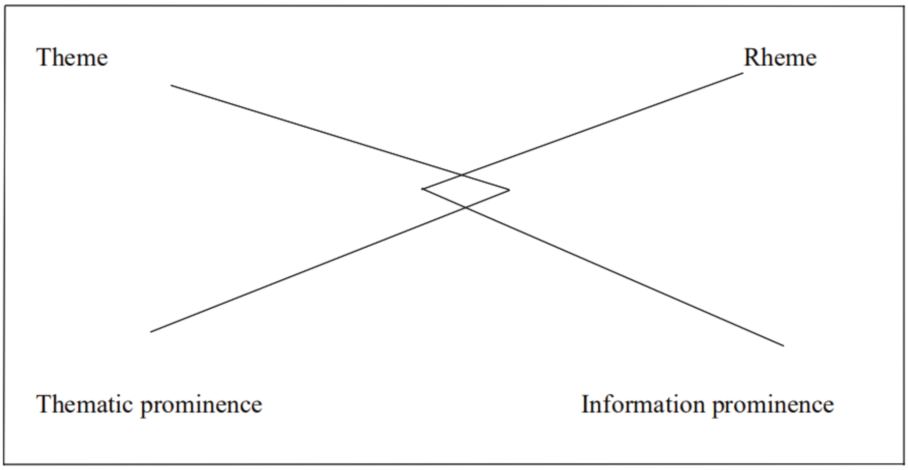


Figure 4.1 The interaction of theme and rheme

As thematic prominence decreases, information prominence or Newness, increases.

The theme can be divided into a number of categories. Halliday (1994) has differentiated among different kinds of themes and categorized them into Ideational, Textual and Interpersonal. A clause can have any, all or none of these categories present.

- Ideational

The ideational stage of the Theme, known as Topical Theme, which is a function from the transitivity structure of the clause, can be recognized as the first element in the clause that expresses some kind of 'representational' meaning (Martin, Matthiessen, & Painter, 1997). The ideational, or Topical Theme is usually but not always the first nominal group in the clause. Topical Themes may also be nominal group complexes, adverbial groups, prepositional phrases or embedded clauses. In the unmarked case the Topical Theme is also the Subject. A Topical Theme which is not the Subject is called a Marked Topical Theme. The term 'marked' is used because it stands out. It attracts attention because it is not what we normally expect to find.

Unmarked Topical Themes

Nominal groups as Theme

Theme	Rheme
Jack	went up the hill

Nominal group complex as Theme

Theme	Rheme
Jack and Jill	went up the hill

Embedded clause

Theme	Rheme
((What Jack and Jill did))	Was go up the hill

Marked Topical Themes

Adverbial as Theme

Theme	Rheme
Down	Jack feel

Prepositional phrase as Theme

Theme	Rheme
Up the hill	Jack and Jill went

Complement as Theme

Theme	Rheme
His crown	he broke

The theme of a clause extends to and includes the Topical Theme. Therefore, elements which precede the Topical Theme are also thematic but elements which come after the Topical Theme are not.

- Textual Theme

Textual Themes relate the clause to its context. They can be Continuatives and/or Conjunctive Adjunct and Conjunctions. The line between Conjunctions and Conjunctions Adjunct is often a fine one. One difference is that Conjunctive Adjuncts are freer to move in a clause whereas Conjunctions are pretty well restricted to being at the beginning. Thus, in the example below, the Conjunctions 'but' remains at the beginning of the second clause in each pair. The Conjunctive Adjunct 'nevertheless' can occur in various positions in the clause.

The procedure was simple. Nevertheless, was very effective.
The procedure was simple, but was, nevertheless, was very effective.
The procedure was simple, but was very effective nevertheless.

Conjunctions tend to provide Textual Themes with a clause complex and are called Structural Themes. Conjunctive Adjuncts, on the other hand, tend to (but don't always) join text outside of the clause complexes. They tend to have more of a text-organizing function. Continuatives are a Small set of items which, if they are there, are always of the beginning of the clause and signal that a new move is beginning. For example: *well, right, OK, now, anyway, of course.*

Theme		Rheme
Cont.	Topical	
Right,	what we need to do today	is revise for our test

These relate to the context of speaking in that they signal to the listeners that someone is about to start, resume or continue speaking. Conjunctive relate the clause to the preceding text by providing a logical link between messages.

Theme			Rheme
Cont.	Conjunctive	Topical	
Well,	on the other hand,	we	could wait

Likewise, Conjunctions almost always occur at the beginning of a clause and carry the logico-semantic relations between clauses.

Theme				Rheme
Cont.	Conjunctive	Structural	Topical	
Well,	on the other hand,	if	we	wait until Thursday…

Interpersonal Themes

Interpersonal elements occurring before the Topical Theme are also thematic. They may be Modal Adjuncts, Vocatives, Finite or Wh-elements.

Modal Adjunct

Theme		Rheme
Modal	Topical	
Intepret.		
Perhaps	we	Can wait until next week

Vocatives

Vocatives (a name or nickname used to address someone) are only thematic if they occur before the Topical Theme, a Finite Verb or a Modal Adjunct.

Theme		Rheme
Vocative	Topical	
Dearly beloved	we	are gathered here today

Theme		Rheme
Vocative	Topical	
Mary	we	decided to wait until next week.

In the clause below the person's name is not used as a Vocative; therefore, it is Topical and not Interpersonal.

Topical Theme	Rheme
Mary	Decided to wait until next week

Theme			Rheme
Voc.	Finite	Topical	
Interper.		Topical	
Mary, didn't		we	Decide to wait until next week?

Example of Research Report on Theme and Rheme

Topic	Theme and Rheme
Source	*Journal of Teaching Language Skills*, 36 (1), Spring 2017.
Title	A Comparative Study of Thematicity in the Argumentative Writing of University EFL Students and the Introduction Section of Research Articles
Writers	Alireza Jalilifar, Mohammad Alipour and Mahsa Rabiee
Abstract	The present study aimed to find out thematic organization and progression in the argumentative writing of Iranian learners of English, representing two levels of language proficiency, and the introduction section of published Research articles (RAs) of Applied Linguistics. For this aim, 60 articles were downloaded from three journals and also 92 MA and BA students majoring in English Language Teaching and English Literature were selected. Then, three topics were used for gathering data from them. Of the written argumentative compositions, only 67 were chosen for the next phase of the study. These compositions together with the RAs were analyzed based on Halliday's (1985) model of thematic structure and the revised model of Danes' (1974) thematic progression patterns. The results of Chi-square suggested that there was a significant difference in the thematic structure of the essays written by MA students and the introduction section of RAs. It was concluded that thematicity can be effectively applied in classrooms to help students in writing. Students will know where they are losing their effectiveness in their arguments due to problems with either thematic progression or thematic selection, or both. The findings of this study can be effectively applied in teaching writing skills. **Keywords:** thematicity, thematic organization, argumentative writing, introduction, research articles
Introduction	An important aspect of writing is unity which is not a problem in simple sentences, but it becomes serious when sentences are combined. Focusing on cohesion can be useful in helping students with their writing (Ostrom & Cook, 1993). "It can help students to learn how to hook their sentences together in a way that enables them to create a text with both unity of texture and unity of structure" (Jalilifar, 2010a, p. 32). Thornbury (1999) argues that students need to move from sentenceoriented to text-oriented teaching to help them obtain communicative goals. This transition requires awareness of the organizational structure of text of which theme-rheme pattern is just one example (Thornbury, 1999). In recent years, thematic organization and progression have been widely studied and proved to be a very important cohesive enterprise at the level of discourse. In relation to non-native learners of English, Belmonte and McCabe (1998) studied the thematic organization with the aim of helping teachers to evaluate students' writings. Fontain and Kodratoff (2003) studied thematic progression and textual structure of English research articles written by English scientists and French scientists who write their research papers in English. The results showed that the authors in the francophone corpus have less dexterity in dealing with the textual construction from two points of view: thematic progression and concept texture. Likewise, Jalilifar (2010a) studied thematization in EFL student's compositions, showing that students' level of language proficiency monitors the use of linear and split thematic

	progression chains. One of the difficulties that Persian learners of English may have in their writing is how to achieve cohesion. One reason behind this difficulty may be thematic fitness between ideas, sentences and details in the text. The existing literature fails to provide an account of thematic configuration of a professional writer's argumentative text, nor does it provide directions regarding the thematic structuring of a novice writer's argumentative text. Given there are few, if any, studies linking novice writing to professional argumentative writing, the present study aims to find out thematic organization in the argumentative texts written by Iranian learners of English and the introduction section of RAs published in scholarly journals and to identify possible sources of nonprofessionality in students' writing. It also aims to find out if thematic structuring/complexity associates with language proficiency.
Method	The participants of this study were two intact groups of 86 male and female adult English learners, one at BA level and one at MA level. The BA group included 33 students selected from those studying English Literature at Shahid Chamran University of Ahvaz. Only 28 students returned their essays and so their essays were considered for analysis. The second group included 17 students (of whom only 10 students returned their papers to the researchers for subsequent analysis) chosen from those studying at MA level majoring in English Language Teaching at Chamran University of Ahvaz and also 36 MA students majoring in the same field from the Islamic Azad University of Ahvaz. Among them, only 29 compositions were acceptable and were used for the purpose of this study. This study required two major stages. In the first stage, a list of ISI journals was prepared. Then, five professors of Applied Linguistics were asked to select five important journals that they preferred to publish their articles in. Among them, the three most common ones, TESOL Quarterly, Linguistics and Education, and Language Testing, _ were selected and their most recent issue(s), based on their accessibility, were chosen as a source to download articles. Afterward, around 60 RAs published in selected journals were downloaded, and_ the introduction sections were carefully read to identify the elements characteristics of an argumentative text. In this analysis, only those introductions with conventional argumentative organization were selected and their thematic structures were examined carefully. From all 60 articles, 16 articles were discarded from this analysis, because they did not represent argumentative structure.
Results and Discussions	**Unit of Analysis:** One of the primary considerations in the analysis of texts is the unit of analysis for which themes will be specified. Fries (1995), terms it as "independent conjoinable clause complex" (p. 319). The present study considered T-unit as the unit of analysis. Coulthard (1994) believes that "the theme of the T-unit provides a framework within which the rheme of the T-unit can be interpreted" (p. 230). Therefore, this is the unit analyzed consistently through the present study. To begin the analysis, the number of words and T-units in the articles and compositions were calculated, and the result is presented below.

Table 2

Word Count and T-units in Journals

Journals	TESOL	Language Testing	Linguistics & Education	Total
Word count	36,426	15,362	16,976	68,764
T-unit	3,839	1,227	1,281	6,347

Table 3

Word Counts and T-units in Students' Essays

Essays	BA	MA	Total
Word count	8,010	10,753	18,763
T-unit	706	1,005	1,711

Theme Types in RAs and Compositions:

The total frequency and the percentage of different types of themes were somewhat similar across BA compositions and MA compositions, but comparing MA essays and the introduction section of RAs, the result was significantly different. Table 4 illustrates this point. Comparing textual and interpersonal themes in MA essays and RAs' introduction showed that the number of textual themes was by far greater than the number of interpersonal themes in students' essays and RAs.

Table 4

Frequency and Percentage of Themes in BA Essays, MA Essays, and RAs

Hallidayan's Model of Thematic Organization	BA Compositions (%)	MA Compositions (%)	Total No. of BA & MA (%)	Research Articles (%)
Topical	782 (22.56)	891 (22.31)	1673 (22.43)	3297 (21.51)
Textual	457 (13.18)	530 (13.27)	987 (13.23)	2469 (16.11)
Interpersonal	99 (2.85)	124 (3.10)	223 (2.99)	458 (2.98)
Marked	353 (10.18)	369 (9.24)	722 (9.68)	1537 (10.03)
Unmarked	460 (13.27)	542 (13.57)	1002 (13.43)	1547 (10.09)
Simple	861 (24.84)	960 (24.04)	18.21 (24.42)	2413 (15.74)
Multiple	453 (13.07)	576 (14.42)	1029 (13.79)	3602 (23.50)

Conclusion and Implications

As the results showed, although the introduction sections of RAs and students' compositions represented argumentative patterns, there was a significant difference in the thematic structure of the introduction section of RAs and the essays written by MA students. This finding, however, did not reject the claim that genre influences theme choice. This difference partly refers to the lack of unity and cohesiveness in MA students' writings and of course their lack of knowledge about thematic structure. It also refers to the lack of instruction regarding thematicity which may refer to the less attention concerning this issue.

In addition, an important point regarding students' essays and RAs which

	should be noted is the higher frequency of constant theme compared to linear and other patterns. Since constant progression keeps some elements constant in a series of clauses, it makes the text seem simpler, and so the reader can easily decode the information. Now that thematicity plays very important roles in writing essays, the following steps are suggested for writing instruction. Firstly, students should be aware of the importance of theme-rheme theory in writing essays. Therefore, its importance should be explained to students. Secondly, they should be explained the thematic structure organization in a text, and they should be demonstrated how to organize and use each pattern to improve their writing cohesiveness. Thirdly, practice is very important. Students can choose a topic and try to write an essay. They can highlight themes and identify thematic progression patterns in their essays and try to improve their writing and make more cohesive texts.

4.3 Thematic Progression/Development

The notions of theme and rheme are also employed in the examination of thematic progression (Eggins, 2004), or method of development of texts (Fries, 2002). Thematic progression refers to the way in which the theme of a clause may pick up, or repeat, a meaning from a preceding theme or rheme. It contributes to the cohesive development of a text and it can strengthen the text's coherence and cohesion. Therefore, it can be said that this is a key way in which information flow is created in a text. In systematic functional linguistics, Thematic Progression or Thematic Development is the elaboration of mode of the discourse which the function is to accommodate the ideational meaning or interpersonal meaning. This may mean that the construal of the outer or inner world of experience, and the way it may be negotiated are accommodated in either spoken or written discourse which begins with a theme (topic), from which point a speaker or writer starts to convey his or her message and ends in a rheme (Soepriatmadji, 2009).

There a number of ways in which thematic progression may be done. There are several main types of thematic progression based on Danes (1974). They are constant theme, linear theme and multiple theme/split rheme (Paltridge, 2012). These are discussed below.

- Constant Theme

One example of thematic progression is theme reiteration or constant theme. A paragraph is defined as using this pattern when 'Theme 1' is picked up and repeated at the beginning of the next clause, signaling that each clause will have something to say about the theme. In Table 4.1, there are two sets of constant themes. The thematic progression of this text is shown in Figure 4.1.

Table 4.1 Theme reiteration/constant theme (based on Cornbleet & Carter 2001, p. 3)

Theme	Rheme
Text	can be used for both spoken and written language.
It	usually refers to a stretch, an extract or complete piece of writing or speech.
Discourse	is a much wider term.
It	can be used to refer to language in action, such as legal discourse, which has characteristic pattern of language.

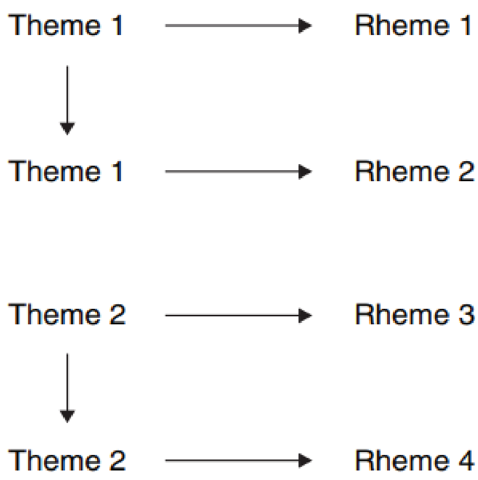


Figure 4.2 Thematic progression: Theme reiteration/constant theme

This pattern is easy to comprehend through the over use of the same theme may perhaps render the text monotonous. However, Eggins (2004) argues that in order to make the text a clear focus, repetition of the theme is an effective way.

- Linear Theme

Another common pattern of thematic progression is when the subject matter in the rheme of one clause is taken up in the theme of a following clause. The text analyzed in Table 4.2 shows an example of this kind of progression. This is referred to as a zigzag or linear pattern theme. This pattern is illustrated in Figure 4.2.

Table 4.2 Theme and rheme: Zigzag/linear theme pattern (based on Knapp and Watkins 2005, p. 55)

Theme	Rheme
The term modality'	describes a range of grammatical resources used to express probability or obligation
Generally, obligation	is used in speech, speech, especially when wanting to get things done such as 'You should keep your room tidy'.

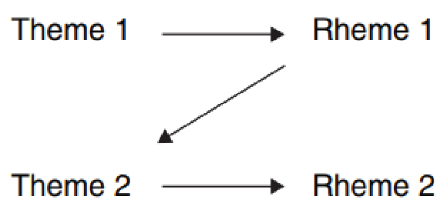


Figure 4.3 Thematic progression: Zigzag/linear theme

This pattern improves the flow of information as new information in the rheme of the first sentence becomes given information in the theme of the sentence that follows.

- Multiple theme/split rheme

Texts may, equally, include other kinds of progression such as a ‘multiple-theme’ or ‘split rheme’ patterns. In ‘multiple-theme’/‘split rheme’ progression, a rheme may include a number of different pieces of information, each of which may be taken up as the theme in a number of subsequent clauses. The analysis of the text in Table 4.3 and the illustration of its thematic progression in Figure 4.3 include an example of ‘multiple theme’/’split rheme’ progression. In this text, the two pieces of information in Rheme 2 (‘two alphabets’ and ‘Chinese ideograms’) are picked up in Themes 3 and 4 respectively. Also ‘Hiragana’ and ‘Katakana’ in Rheme 3 are picked up in Themes 5 (Hiragana), 6 and 7 (Katakana) respectively (although in the case of Theme 7 ‘Katakana’ is ellipsed). This text also includes examples of ‘theme reiteration’/‘constant theme’ between the first two clauses and the sixth and seventh clauses and a zigzag/linear theme pattern between a number of rhemes and subsequent rhemes.

Table 4.3 Theme and rheme: Multiple theme/split rheme pattern (based on Nesbitt, Nesbitt & Uchimaru 1990, p. 21)

Theme	Rheme
When Japanese people	write their language
They	use a combination of two separate alphabets as well as ideograms borrowed from Chinese
The two alphabets	are called hiragana and katakana.
The Chinese ideograms	are called Kanji.
Hiragana	represents the 46 basic sounds that are made in the Japanese language

Katakana	represents the same sounds as hiragana
but (Katakana)	is used mainly for words borrowed from foreign languages and for sound effects.
Kanji	are used to communicate an idea rather than a sound.

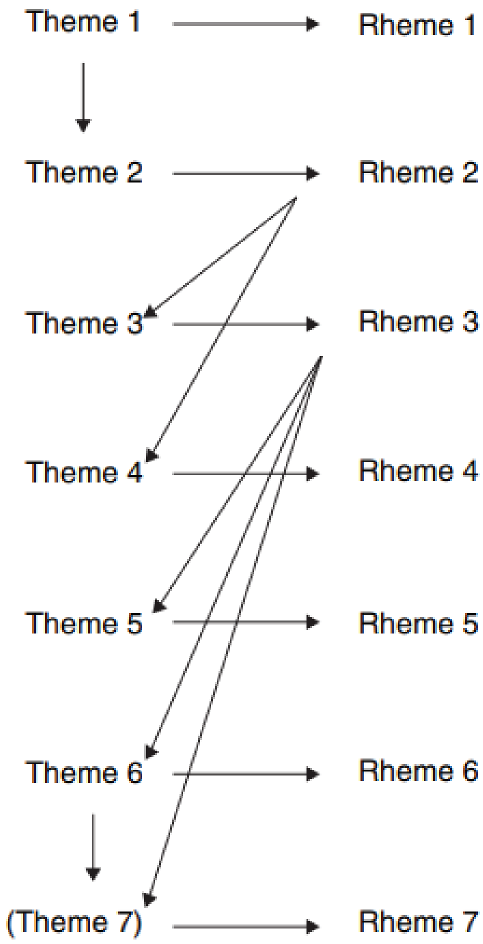


Figure 4.4 Thematic progression: Multiple theme/split rheme

Example of Research Report on Thematic Development/Progression

Topic	Thematic Development/Progression
Source	*Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, Vol. 7 No. 3, January 2018, pp. 524-530. http://ejournal.upi.edu/index.php/IJAL/article/view/9797
Title	Theme and Thematic Progression in Students' Recount Texts
Writer	Sri Yunita
Abstract	This study aims to investigate the Theme and Thematic progression patterns in students' recount text in a state vocational school in Bandung. This study employs a descriptive-qualitative research design. The data were obtained from a collection of students' texts. This study uses the theory of Theme

	system developed by Halliday (1994) and the theory of Thematic progression proposed by Eggins (2004) as the framework to analyze the data. The findings showed that the Theme and Thematic progression supports the character of Recount text written by the students to some extents: the Topical Theme represents the students' ability to deliver what the text is about, the Interpersonal Theme helps students declare their personal comments, while the Textual Theme showed the students' ability to develop the logical relationship between clauses and make their texts more cohesive and coherent. In terms of thematic progression patterns, the Theme Reiteration pattern signposts that the students tend to make the text focus by repeating the same element as Themes; the Zig Zag pattern showed that the students introduce newly information by promoting the Rheme in a clause to the Theme in the subsequent clause, and the Multiple Theme pattern specifies that the students develop the texts well according to the prior plan before writing those ideas in the text. **Keywords**: theme; thematic progression; recount texts
Introduction	This study aims to investigate the Theme and Thematic progression patterns in students' recount text in a state vocational school in Bandung. Theme-Rheme organization or Thematic organization of clause is the most significant factor in the development of texts (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). Focusing the students' writing on the Thematic progression will be very useful in helping students communicate their ideas successfully (Wang, 2010). However, studies dealing with the analysis of the Theme and thematic progression in Recount texts written by vocational students are hardly discovered. Recent publications are mainly concerned with the analysis of vocational school students' text. Hence, this study is concerned with the analysis of Recount text because recent publications are mainly concerned with the analysis of narrative text and explanatory text. Another reason is because the Recount text will be taught in the second semester in the vocational school context, that is considered crucial to conduct an investigation to the Recount text.
Method	This study employed a descriptive-qualitative design, embracing the characteristics of a case study approach. This approach was used since it provides an intensive, holistic description and analysis of single entity (the bounded system, the case). A descriptive-qualitative design was carried out in a natural setting (Fraenkel & Wallen, 1990; McMillan, 1992; Creswell, 2003; Silverman, 2005; Alwasilah, 2008). Since the primary purpose of this study is to analyse, describe, categorize, and interpret data to recognize how the schematic structure and textual organization of Vocational students' Recount text in a small scale/case, a descriptive qualitative study was considered appropriate (Creswell, 2003; 2009; 2012; Sandelowski, 2000). In addition, the use of SFL, specifically in analysing Recount text, as a text analysis, played a significant role in this study. The use of Theme- Rheme and Theme progression analysis will help researchers reveal textual organization of students' recount text (Halliday, 1994; Eggins, 2004; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). Besides, this analysis was also chosen since it was one of many linguistics approaches that have been well developed in education areas (Freebody, 2003, in Emilia, 2005). The data of the study were taken from the eleventh grade students of vocational school in Bandung. The participants were purposively selected by the researcher based on suggested on the teacher's suggestion. The data

of the study were taken from the eleventh grade students of vocational school in Bandung. The participants were purposively selected by the researcher based on suggested on the teacher's suggestion. After the students' texts were collected by the teacher, they were analysed after being read. Then, the researcher conducted the steps in analysing the data, involving the identification of Theme choice and the identification of the theme progression pattern, and deciding the thematic progression trends.

The identification of Theme is intended to separate clearly between the Theme and Rheme. Each of the students' Recount texts was broken down into numbered clauses. Besides breaking down into numbered clauses, the texts were also divided into some stages of Recount text: orientation, events, and reorientation. Then, the Theme choices were identified based on the works of Halliday (1994), Halliday and Matthiessen (2004), and Eggins (2004) in terms of topical, interpersonal, or textual theme. Topical Theme will be further analysed to find whether it is marked or unmarked. The identification of Theme choice aims to investigate how the students organize the idea textually in those texts.

After identifying all of the clauses in terms of thematic choice, the researcher then identified the thematic progression pattern of those texts. In analyzing this aspect, the researcher focused on each stage of Recount text to see how the students elaborate and relate the point made to the supporting information or evidences provided in each stage.

Results and Discussions

There are six texts which were purposively selected to be analysed in this study. These texts were divided into three levels of achievement: high achiever, middle achiever, and low achiever. Each group consists of two texts. This section is to answer a part of the research question about the Themes realized in students' Recount texts. The findings concerning the types of Theme are outlined in Table 1.

Table 1. The use of themes in students' texts

Types of Theme		Students' Text Category						Total	
		High Achiever		Middle Achiever		Low Achiever			
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Topical	Marked	17	15.45	15	16.85	7	12.96	39	15.40
	Unmarked	55	50.00	44	49.44	32	59.26	131	51.80
Interpersonal		1	0.91	0	0.00	0	0.00	1	0.40
Textual		37	33.64	30	33.70	15	27.78	82	32.40
Total		110	100.00	89	100.00	54	100.00	253	100.00

The three types of Themes (Topical, Interpersonal, and Textual Themes) are applied in students' Recount texts. As illustrated in Table 1, the Topical Theme is the most frequent Theme used. It occurs 170 times or 67.2% of the total. This Topical Theme is broken-down into two parts, i.e. the marked Theme which occurs 39 times or 15.4% and the unmarked Theme which occurs 131 times or 51.8%. The finding of the high number of Topical Themes in students' texts may indicate that student writers effectively orient the reader to what their texts are about. As one of the linguistic features of Recount text is to focus on what the text is telling, this may be the background of the dominant number of occurrences of the Topical Theme in students' Recount texts.

The table shows that there is correlation between the implementation of Themes with the level of achievement. From the three groups of this study (high achiever, middle achiever, and low achiever), the high achieving students frequently produced more Topical Theme, Interpersonal Theme, and Textual Theme compared to the other two groups. This may be caused by the number of clauses made by high achieving students who tend to write longer texts than those of the other groups. Meanwhile, the middle achieving students produced more Topical Theme and Interpersonal Theme compared to the low achieving students. It is probably due to the same reason, namely the number of clauses of middle achievers was greater than that of the low achievers.

To conclude, The Topical Themes are the most dominant Themes occurring in students' Recount texts of all levels (67.2%), followed by Textual themes (31.4%). Meanwhile, the Interpersonal Themes are rarely used in students' Recount text (0.4%). This result supports the study of Safitra (2013), whose findings show that there were three types of Theme used by the students, namely Topical, Textual, and Interpersonal, in which the Topical Theme was the most frequently used. Meanwhile, the question about the Thematic progression realized in students' Recount texts, is presented in Table 2.

Table 2. The thematic progression realization

Types of Theme	Students' Text Category						Total	
	High Achiever		Middle Achiever		Low Achiever			
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Theme Reiteration	34	68.00	35	83.33	23	79.31	92	76.03
Zig Zag	14	28.00	5	11.91	5	17.24	24	19.84
Multiple Theme	2	4.00	2	4.76	1	3.45	5	4.13
Total	50	100.00	42	100.00	29	100.00	121	100.00

The table above described that all the three Thematic progressions (Theme Reiteration, Zig Zag pattern, Multiple Theme pattern) are applied in students' Recount texts. As illustrated in the table, the Theme Reiteration is the most frequent Theme used. It occurs 92 times or equal to 76.03% of the total. The high number of Theme Reiteration in students' texts may indicate students' ability in maintaining the focus of the texts by reiterating the thematic element of the clause in the subsequent clauses. In terms of students' levels, Theme Reiteration pattern is mostly found in the middle achievers' texts, i.e. 35 times, then followed by the high achievers for 34 times, and the low achievers' 23 times.

Besides the Theme Reiteration pattern, another Theme which occurs in students' Recount text is the Zig Zag pattern. Zig zag pattern happens 24 times or equal to 19.84% of the total. The high frequency implies the students have succeeded in developing the cohesion of the texts through the introduction of new information by shifting a Rheme to become a Theme of the subsequent clause. In terms of students' levels, Theme Reiteration pattern is mostly found in the high achievers' texts, i.e. 14 times, then followed by the middle achievers for 5 times, and the low achievers' 5 times.

The trend of thematic progression in the students' texts is in line with most English texts in general, which present Theme Reiteration and Zig Zag patterns as the most dominant thematic shifts (Nwogu & Bloor, 1991). This means that the students' texts have characterized themselves as factual texts written in English in terms of thematic progression pattern. This also means that the students seem to have attempted to make their texts well-organized to be therefore understandable.

Conclusion and Implications

In terms of Theme system, the finding showed that the Theme choice and Thematic progression support the character of the Recount texts written by the students. The Topical Theme represents the students' ability to deliver what the text is about, the Interpersonal Theme helps students to present their personal attitude, and the Textual Theme promotes the logical relationship between clauses in order to build text cohesion and coherence. In terms of thematic progression patterns, the finding showed

	that the use of Theme Reiteration pattern indicates that the students could build the focus by repeating the same element as Themes, the use of Zig Zag pattern shows that the students were able to manage the given-new information in building relations between clauses, and the use of Multiple Theme pattern suggests that the students were able to develop texts according to prior plan. With regard to the importance of Theme management in order to raise the teacher's awareness in the teaching and learning process, it is found that theme management was understood by the teacher to benefit the process of writing, as evidenced in the quality of students' texts which, as the teacher claimed, was better than those written prior to the teaching-learning processes. Furthermore, this study explores some pedagogical implications of theme management for writing processes. It is suggested that theme management be exposed to students through modeling and construction activities.

4.4 Appraisal Analysis

Appraisal is a system of interpersonal meanings which is concerned with evaluation - the kinds of attitudes that are negotiated in a text, the strength of the feelings involved and the ways in which values are sourced and readers aligned. We use the resources of appraisal for negotiating our social relationships, by telling our listeners or readers how we feel about things and people (in a word, what our attitudes are).

- Negotiating attitudes

Attitudes have to do with evaluating things, people's character and their feelings. Such evaluations can be more or less intense, that is they may be more or less amplified. And the attitude may be the writer's own or it may be attributed to some other source. These are the three aspects of appraisal - attitudes, how they are amplified and their sources - that we will explore in this chapter. We will begin with a brief synopsis of each one, and then explore them in more detail. Let's begin with kinds of attitudes. Helena's story is highly evaluative as she describes intense feelings and strong reactions to people and things. In the following passage she outlines her attitude to her first love's work and their relationship (things), his character (people), and the emotions of those involved (feelings):

> He was working in a top security structure. It was the beginning of a beautiful relationship. We even spoke about marriage. A bubbly, vivacious man who beamed out wild energy. Sharply intelligent. Even if he was an Englishman, he was popular with ail the 'Boer' Afrikaners. And all my girlfriends envied me. Then one day he said he was going on a 'trip'. 'We won't see each other again..., maybe never ever again.' I was torn to pieces. So, was he?

She begins with the value of her love's work and their forthcoming relationship:

a top security structure

a beautiful relationship

She then turns to her love's character, which she holds in such high esteem:

a bubbly vivacious man

wild energy

sharply intelligent

popular

Next she describes her girlfriends' emotional response to their relationship, and her own and her lover's feelings on their separation:

envied tom

to pieces

So, these evaluations can be divided into three basic kinds according to what is being appraised: (i) the value of things, (ii) people's character and (iii) people's feelings.

Next let's look at how attitudes are amplified. One thing that involves us in Helena's story is that her evaluations are highly charged. She judges her love for example not just as intelligent but as sharply intelligent, not just as energetic but as wildly so:

sharply intelligent

wild energy

And she wasn't just upset at their separation, but absolutely shattered:

torn to pieces

So, attitudes are gradable - their volume can be turned up and down depending on how intensely we feel. We can refer to the resources we use to show how strong our reactions are as amplification. Finally let's look at the sources of attitudes. One thing we need to consider about attitudes is who they're coming from. Since it's a story, we assume that it's the narrator, Helena, who is evaluating, unless we're told otherwise. Helena does in fact suggest that the 'Boer' Afrikaners enjoyed her love's company, and that it was her girlfriends who envied her, although in each case we have to keep in mind that it's Helena who's telling us how they felt.

In simple terms then, what we see here are a range of resources for expressing attitudes, amplifying them and attributing them to sources. And there are three main types of attitude: expressing emotion, judging character and valuing the worth of things. Technically we'll refer to resources for expressing feelings as affect, resources for judging character as judgement and resources for valuing the worth of things as appreciation. These basic resources are set out in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4 Basic options for appraisal

attitude	affect (feelings)…	envied torn to pieces
	judgement (character)…	a bubbiy vivacious man wild energy, sharply intelligent
	appreciation (value)…	a top security structure a beautiful relationship
amplification		sharply intelligent wild energy
source		he was popular with all <u>the 'Boer' Afrikaners.</u> And <u>all my girlfriends</u> envied me.

- Kinds of attitudes

There are three kinds of attitude: affect (people's feelings), judgement (people's character) and appreciation (the value of things).

<u>Expressing our feelings: affect</u>

As we explore how people express their feelings in discourse, we find that they vary in two general ways. Firstly, we can have good feelings or bad feelings, so affect can be positive or negative. Secondly people can express their feelings directly, or we can infer how people are feeling indirectly from their behavior, so affect can be expressed directly or implied.

Table 4.5. Options for affect

positive		We were *ecstatic.* We even *celebrated.*
negative		I was tom to *pieces* I *can't explain* the pain and bitterness in me...
direct	emotional state	*ecstatic* *wild consuming fear*
	physical	*withdrawn*
	expression	*shake uncontrollably*
implicit	extraordinary	*wander from window to window*
	behaviour	*rolls this way, that side of the bed*
	metaphor	*ice cold in a sweltering nigh* *eyes ... dull like the dead*

Judging people's character

As with affect, judgement of people's character can be positive or negative, and they may be judged explicitly or implicitly. But unlike affect, we find that ju4gements differ between personal judgement of admiration or criticism and moral judgement of praise or condemnation.

Table 4.6 Examples of judgement of character (from Helena's story)

		direct	implied
personal	admire	*bubbly, vivacious, energetic, intelligent, popular*	*He was working in a top security structure.*
	criticize	*What's wrong with him? ... I can't handle the man anymore!*	*I can't explain the pain and bitterness in me when I saw...*
moral	praise	*their leaders have the guts to stand by their vultures...*	*I envy and respect1 the people of the struggle...*
	condemn	*Our leaders are too holy and innocent. And faceless*	*... 'those at the top' were again targeting the next 'permanent removal from society'...*

Appreciating things

To this point we've looked at how people feel about people and the way they behave. What about things? Appreciation of things includes our attitudes about TV shows, films, books, CDs; about paintings, sculptures, homes, public buildings, parks; about plays, recitals, parades or spectacles and performances of any kind; feelings about nature for that matter - panoramas and glens, sunrises and sunsets, constellations, shooting stars and satellites on a starry night. As with affect and judgement, things can be appreciated positively or negatively.

Table 4.7 Examples of appreciation

positive	a *beautiful* relationship a *very serious* issue *healing* of breaches *redressing* of imbalances *restoration* of broken relationships
negative	my *unsuccessful* marriage

	a *frivolous* question *broken* relationships the community he or she has *injured*

- Amplifying attitude

One distinctive feature of attitudes is that they are gradable. This means that we can say how strongly we feel about someone or something. For example, Helena describes her first love as *sharply intelligent*. By doing so she places his intelligence on a scale and ranks it highly in relation to other choices she could have made:

extremely intelligent	high grading
sharply intelligent	
really intelligent	
quite intelligent	
fairly intelligent	
somewhat intelligent	low grading

As we can see, some choices turn the volume up (e.g. *extremely, sharply*) and others tone it down (e.g. *fairly, somewhat*). In English we seem to have more resources for turning the volume up than down, and use them more often.

To sum up then, amplifying attitude involves a set of resources for adjusting how strongly we feel about people and things. Technically we refer to these resources as force. We use them to turn the volume up or down. Grading experiential boundaries involves resources that sharpen or blur apparently categorical distinctions. Technically these resources are referred to as focus. They make cut and dried distinctions negotiable. These options for amplification are set out in Table 4.8. Technically these resources are referred to as graduation.

Table 4.8 Option for graduation

force	intensifiers attitudinal lexis metaphors swearing	he still plays great the second part is fantastic … ice cold in a sweltering night dammit, there must be a clique
focus	sharpen soften	a true guitar legend a part-time blues fan

- Sources of attitudes

The final region of appraisal we need to consider has to do with the source of attitudes: who are the evaluations coming from? We'll begin once again with Helena's narrative. On the face of it, we might argue that the evaluation in Helena's story comes from Helena. She's the narrator after all So when she appreciates her relationship with her first love as beautiful, that's her opinion:

it was the beginning of a beautiful relationship.

And in a sense Helena is responsible for all of the evaluation since all of it is filtered through her narration. Helena does however explicitly give voice to other players by quoting or reporting what her first and second loves said:

Then <u>he says</u>: He and three of our friends have been promoted. 'We're moving to a special unit. Now, now my darling, we are real policemen now.'

This potential for sourcing what is said was one of the factors that got the Russian linguist Bakhtin (1981) thinking about the dialogic nature of discourse, even in texts we traditionally think of as monologues. The French discourse analyst Kristeva introduced the term heteroglossia {'different voices') for this notion of multiple voicing in all kinds of discourse. Here we will use the term heterogloss where the source of an attitude is other than the writer, and monogloss ('single voice') where the source is simply the author.

One thing we are able to do in discourse is quote or report what people say or think. Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) call this type of linguistic resource 'projection'. Projection is the relation between *he says* in the example above, and <u>what he said</u>: *He and three of our friends have been promoted. 'We're moving to a special unit. Now, now my darling. We are real policemen now!*

Alongside projection, another way of introducing additional voices into a text is via modality, which we introduced above in relation to amplification. Halliday (1994) describes modality as a resource which sets up a semantic space between yes and no a cline running between positive and negative poles. There are two general kinds of modality, one for negotiating services, and the other for negotiating information.

the application must be dealt with in a public hearing the application should be dealt with in a public hearing

The third resource we need to consider, as far as heteroglossia in discourse is concerned, is known as 'counterexpectancy'. This is more a feature of Helena's narrative than the exposition or Act, and has to do with the way she tracks readers' expectations, adjusting them as her story unfolds. In her prayer for example, she tells God she can't handle her second love anymore, creating an expectation as she does so that she will try to leave. Then she counters this by saying that she can't leave.

I can't handle the man anymore! But I can't get out.

Conjunction s like but, that counter expectations, are termed concessive. *But* is the most common conjunction used to signal concession. But there are other possibilities, including *however* and *although*, and variations on the theme including *even if* and *even by; in fact, at least, indeed; and nevertheless, needless to say, of course, admittedly, in any case* etc.

Summing up then, what we have are three main appraisal systems: attitude, amplification and source. Attitude comprises affect, judgement and appreciation: our three major regions of feeling. Amplification covers grading, including force and focus; force involves the choice to raise or lower the intensity of gradable items, focus the option of sharpening or softening an experiential boundary. Engagement covers resources that introduce additional voices into a discourse, via projection, modalization or concession; the key choice here is one voice (monogloss) or more than one voice (heterogloss). These key appraisal systems are outlined in Figure 4.4. In order to more accurately reflect the ways in which people combine different kinds of engagement, attitude and graduation in discourse, the network now contains three simultaneous systems for these regions of appraisal. That is, we can choose from all of them at the same time.

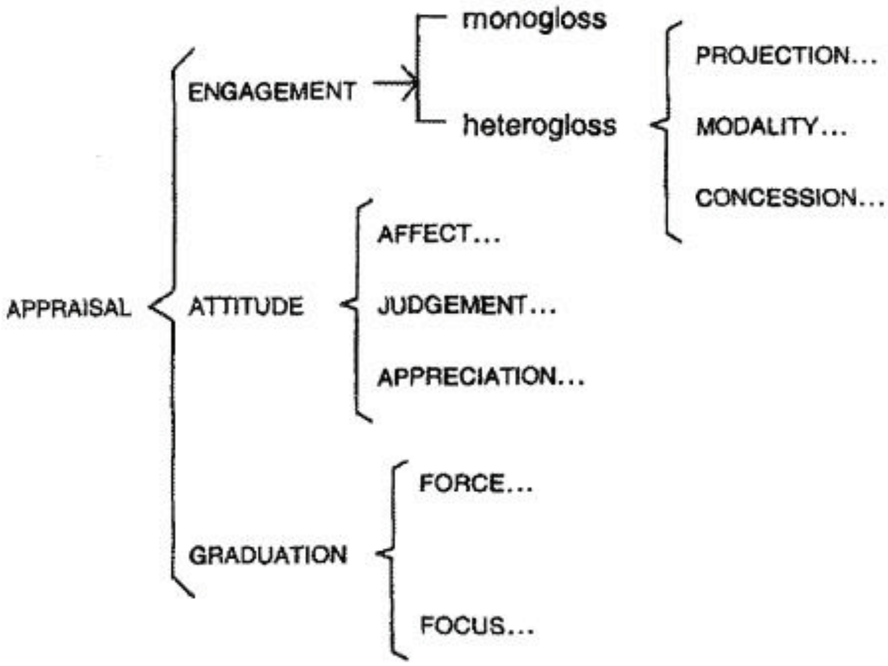


Figure 4.5 Appraisal systems: An overview

Example of Research Report on Appraisal Analysis

Topic	Appraisal Analysis
Source	*Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, Vol. 8 No. 3, January 2019, pp. 638-645. http://ejournal.upi.edu/index.php/IJAL/article/view/15265
Title	Non-Native Writers and the Use of Appraisal Resources in Research Article Introductions
Writers	Sri Wuli Fitriati and Yuni Awalaturrohmah Solihah
Abstract	Writing an introduction section of a research article usually requires the interpersonal voice and arguments for building up a sense of persuasiveness that will entice readers. A quality research article introduction can be achieved by using appraisal resources to represent the writers' ideas and propositions effectively. Using twenty introduction sections of research articles written in English by Indonesian and Chinese writers as non-native writers, this study examines the use of appraisal resources and compares their distributions. By employing textual analysis and using Appraisal resources theory drawn from the work of Martin and White (2005), the findings reveal that there are both similarities and differences in the distribution of appraisal resources between Indonesian and Chinese writers in the introduction sections of research articles. In terms of similarities, both Indonesian and Chinese writers use attitude (appreciation), expand (engagement), and force (graduation) as the most used appraisal resources in their writing. What is different, however, is that the Indonesian writers seem more likely than Chinese writers to use appraisal resources overall, except for graduation resources, which were used more often by the Chinese writers. This article

	discusses some of the pedagogical implications for those who are teaching students of English as a foreign language and want to improve and strengthen their voice and arguments in the writing of research article introductions. **Keywords:** appraisal resources; research article introductions; non-native writers; discourse analysis
Introduction	Previous studies on evaluation in language use have shown rapid development in the educational field of English as a foreign language. However, there are few studies that explore the use of evaluative language in scholars' writing, especially research articles. The research article is one type of academic writing that can be investigated, due to the fact that it involves the dissemination of knowledge-meaning for readers. As a result, it is of empirical interest to discover the intention of writers of the research article itself. Over the years, scholars have published their research articles so that they can be accessed by readers. According to Yang (2016), "in the field of second language learning, Chinese researchers paid more and more interests in second language writing" (p. 1002). Numerous Chinese researchers contribute their writing in second language learning studies and readers can easily find their studies in scientific research journals. The study described in this article investigates language use in research articles produced by Indonesian and Chinese writers, who are non-native speakers of English. The choice of Indonesian and Chinese writers was based on the practical reason that in China, as well as in Indonesia, the English language is a foreign language (Rao, 2013). The particular focus of the research was the use of appraisal resources. The current investigation explores the interpersonal meaning resources that are used, to analyse how the intention of writers in conveying their attitudes, opinions, or ideas is evident in their choice of words. In particular, the aim is to examine the similarities and differences in the use of appraisal resources in the introduction section of Indonesian and Chinese writers' research articles.
Method	To achieve the study's aim, the researchers used discourse analysis of written text as a research approach. Discourse analysis is defined as an attempt to study the organization of language above the sentence or clause, and therefore to study larger linguistic units, such as conversational exchanges or written text (Stubbs, 1983; Widdowson, 2004). The researchers collected a total of 20 research articles: 10 research articles written by Indonesian writers and 10 written by Chinese writers. The 10 examples from Indonesian writers came from "The 6th ELTLT Conference Proceedings 2017", and the 10 research articles by Chinese writers were taken from a selection of journals including the Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching, Journal of Language Teaching and Research, Issues in Language Teaching, Prospect, and Canadian Social Science. We acknowledge that the review process of the published articles in proceedings and journals might be slightly different. Generally, the review process for journals is stricter than that for conference proceedings. However, we employed a purposeful sampling technique. This means that the articles in this present study had to be research-based articles in the field of English language teaching, and of approximately the same length. In addition, the articles from the proceedings derived from an international conference with some reviewers from foreign countries, so the appropriateness of the sources

	of data in this study could be achieved. The authors' bio notes were used to identify the authors' country. The framework of appraisal resources used for the analysis of writing was drawn from Martin and White's theory (2005). As Chatterjee (2008) explains, the appraisal taxonomy can be used to make sense of the lexical and grammatical choices made by writers. This type of analysis enables researchers to examine texts that authors have written and to infer the decisions made by those writers as they constructed their introductions to research papers. The 10 introductions were analysed in relation to the three domains: attitude, engagement, and graduation. Words, phrases, and clauses were identified as appraising items. The procedures of the analysis were: (1) classifying the appraising items in the introduction section of research articles; (2) quantifying the use of appraisal resources in the form of a table; (3) discovering the similarities and differences between Indonesian and Chinese writers in using the appraisal resources.
Results and Discussions	The findings revealed some similarities and differences in the use of appraisal resources in Indonesian and Chinese writers' introduction sections of research articles. It is important to note, however, that this study analyzed only a small number of writing samples. Although there is much to learn from the analysis, it is important to remember that the findings cannot be generalized to explain all examples of writing from all Indonesian and Chinese scholars. Rather, the findings open up for discussion the use of appraisal resources and possible interpretation of what their use might mean for those teaching English as a second or foreign language. In the discussion below, the scholars' writing is quoted verbatim. As a result, some errors in language usage and grammar are evident. The analysis shows that in terms of the attitude subsystem, appreciation is used by both Indonesian and Chinese writers. This finding is in line with the studies by Lee (2006), Xinghua and Thompson (2009), Liu and Thompson (2009), Liu (2013), and Jalilifar and Hemmati (2013). It indicates that the Indonesian and Chinese writers appreciate and evaluate things or phenomena as their certain topics in the introduction section of research articles. It also reveals that they use the introduction section of research articles to explain and describe things that are related to their topics. Some examples of appreciation resources that are found in the Indonesian and Chinese writers' introductions are provided in Excerpt 1 and Excerpt 2 respectively. Excerpt 1 Advertising plays an important [APPRECIATION] role marketing and sales of a product. Television as a medium of mass communication has a big [APPRECIATION] role in disseminating information and providing entertainment to all levels of society. Television as a media of communication has the power of persuasive [APPRECIATION] information since it is able to generate strong [APPRECIATION] influence by emphasizing the two senses at the same time, namely hearing and sight (I2). Excerpt 2 J. R. Martin has put forward a new [APPRECIATION] angle for discourse analysis, that is, positive discourse analysis (PDA) and appraisal theory serves as its theoretical (APPRECIATION) basis. PDA has gained great [APPRECIATION] interest from scholars at home and abroad. However,

there are few researches studying Chinese leaders' speech nowadays (C4).

As can be seen in Excerpts 1 and 2, the appraising items of 'important,' 'big,' 'persuasive,' 'strong,' 'new,' 'theoretical,' 'great,' and 'major' are examples of appreciation resources. Those words represent the writers' evaluations of the phenomena, and in this case, the words evaluate phenomena relating to the topics that are discussed in the introduction section of research articles.

Jones (2011) stresses that the ethics of academic writing will guide students to respect and care for every reference that contributes to their writing. It makes their writing sound more objective, so their introduction sections also sound reasonable. Thus, by using expand resources, they attempt to strengthen their ideas and intention to create a clear position, by explaining the reasons why they chose the particular topics of their writing. Examples of expansive resources can be seen in Excerpts 3, 4 and 5. Excerpts 3 and 4 were written by Indonesian writers, while Excerpt 5 was written by a Chinese writer.

Excerpt 3

Dam and Volman (2004) point out that [ATTRIBUTE] critical thinking is the essence of thoughtful, democratic citizenship, and thus occupies in central position in education in the modern world. In higher education, critical thinking is defined in terms of abilities or skills such as selection, evaluation, analysis, reflection, questioning, inference, and judgement (Tapper, 2004) [ATTRIBUTE] (I8).

Excerpt 4

Compliments have been said to "grease the social wheels" and thus to serve as "social lubricants" (Wolfson, 1983, p.89) [ATTRIBUTE) (C7).

Excerpt 5

The discussion deals with poetic diction that may [ENTERTAIN] influence the whole (FORCE) message intended in both SL and TL poems (I5).

Excerpts 3, 4 and 5 show the appraising items of entertain and attribute as the dominant use of engagement resources in both the Indonesian and Chinese writers' introductions.

In regard to the graduation analysis, both Indonesian and Chinese writers produced more force than focus. These findings are similar to those that have been reported in the studies conducted by Yang (2016) and Jalilifar and Hemmati (2016). The Indonesian and Chinese writers in this present study tended to emphasize their propositions through attitude and engagement by using intensification and quantification as subsystems of graduation. This shows how the Indonesian and Chinese writers intensify and quantify things or phenomena relevant to the topics in their introduction sections. The appraising items intensification and quantification are needed to show their emphasis on propositions and ideas through this resource, especially force resources. The examples of force resources are identified in Excerpts 6 and 7.

Excerpt 6

As students learning process happen at the university, the learning result is highly [FORCE] affected by the formality of the institute. There is a phenomenon in English Department of UNNES where some [FORCE] students whose intelligence and behavior are praised as good or great by their lecturers and fellow colleagues are frequently [FORCE] self- exposed

	themselves with humor from internet which in most cases contains countervailing values compared to formal and positive (APPRECIATION) attitudes. (I4) Excerpt 7 In the late 20th century, studies on the writing of English as a second language gradually[FORCE] developed, and, with its own theories, objects of study, research methods and research teams, it slowly[force] became an independent discipline that carried the clear study scope (Hyland, 2003, 2009; Kroll, 2003; Leki, Cumming, & Silva, 2008; Silva & Matsuda, 2012). Generally speaking, Chinese second language writing research follows a multiple approach, with more [FORCE] scientific and practical studies and various [FORCE] research methods, and putting particular emphasis on writing teaching (see Figure 1) (C5). In short, in terms of similarities in the use of appraisal resources, Indonesian and Chinese writers use more force in graduation in regard to quantification and intensification. The purpose of the use of force is to describe and explain the level of intensity and the number of things relating to the topic that is being discussed in the research articles introductions. Difference in the use of appraisal resources In terms of differences in the use of appraisal between the Indonesian and Chinese writers in this study, the Indonesian writers used more appraisal resources than the Chinese writers, except in relation to graduation resources. In other words, the Indonesian writers used more attitude and engagement than the Chinese writers did; whereas, the Chinese writers used more graduation resources. Although this was a small study, the differences between the two groups of writers raise some important considerations about why they exist. Because the study is based on the assumption that all of the writers were using English as a second or foreign language, it may be that some cultural factors are involved. For example, it might be because the Chinese writers try to maintain writer-reader relationships by avoiding explicit attitudinal evaluation of the work of others, as also found in Xiaoyu's study (2017).
Conclusion and Implications	First, there is a noticeable similarity in overall use of appraisal resources, including attitude, engagement, and graduation. In attitude resources, Indonesian and Chinese writers mostly use appreciation in their research article introductions. This finding indicates that their writings are more appreciative than judgemental or emotional. Due to the higher use of appreciation, it makes their writings appreciate and evaluate things or phenomena relating to the topic that is being investigated. Moreover, Indonesian and Chinese writers predominantly have expand than contract resources in engagement to represent their ideas or propositions with external sources or voices to support arguments in their introduction sections. This means that the writers tend to strengthen their voices with acknowledgment of alternative positions. This makes the explanations in their writing sound more reasonable and objective. Second, the main difference in the use of appraisal resources between Indonesian and Chinese writers in their research article introductions is their use of graduation resources. There has been a similar amount of usage for the most dominant resources in overall appraisal resources involving attitude (appreciation), engagement (expand), and graduation

	(force). It is the use of graduation resources that shows a clear distinction between the Indonesian and Chinese writers. The Chinese writers are successful in producing more force than Indonesian writers. This indicates that the Chinese writers succeed to strengthen their arguments in order to persuade the readers through force resources. In terms of the pedagogical implications gained for English writing instruction in English as second or foreign language contexts, this study provides some considerations for teachers about how writers from different cultural backgrounds can have different strengths and weaknesses in relation to the use of appraisal resources. However, because the findings are based on a small sample of written texts, the findings cannot be generalized to the broader population. Nevertheless, it is useful for teachers to know the types of differences that might exist and to plan to understand which appraisal resources their students can already use successfully.

4.5 Pragmatics

Pragmatics is the study of meaning in relation to the context in which a person is speaking or writing. Levinson (1983) says that pragmatics is the study of the ability of language users to pair sentences with contexts in which they would be appropriate. This includes social, situational and textual context. It also includes background knowledge context; that is, what people know about each other and about the world. Pragmatics assumes that when people communicate with each other they normally follow some kind of cooperative principle; that is, they have a shared understanding of how they should cooperate in their communications.

The relationship between linguistic form and communicative function is of central interest in the area of pragmatics and, as Cameron (2001) argues, is highly relevant to the field of discourse analysis. We need to know the communicative function of an utterance, that is, what it is 'doing' in the particular setting in order to assign a discourse label to the utterance in the place of the overall discourse. For example, if someone says 'The bus was late' they may be complaining about the bus service (and so we label the stage of the conversation 'complaint'), they may be explaining why they are late as a follow up to an apology (and so we label the stage of the conversation 'explanation') or they may be doing something else. We also need to know what this meaning is in order to understand, at a broader level, what people typically say and do as they perform particular genres in particular social and cultural settings.

Example of Research Report on Pragmatics

Topic	Pragmatics
Source	*Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, Vol. 7 No. 1, May 2017, pp. 149-159. http://ejournal.upi.edu/index.php/IJAL/article/viewFile/6868/4684
Title	Pragmatic and Rhetorical Strategies in the English-Written Jokes
Writer	Dyah Rochmawati
Abstract	Understanding verbal jokes in English is problematic for English as Foreign Language (EFL) readers since understanding the jokes requires understanding their linguistic, cultural and social elements. Since a joke constitutes a complex and paradoxical phenomenon, it needs multiple approaches of analyses—such as pragmatic and rhetorical analyses—in order to investigate the multiple layers of meanings it carries. Recently there has been a shift in humor studies, emphasizing linguistic humors and involving the field of rhetoric. These studies, however, have mostly addressed the connection between rhetoric and spoken jokes in persuasion. The present study therefore applied Austin's Speech Act Theory (1975) and Grice's Cooperative Principles (1957), and Berger's rhetorical techniques (1993) to crack the funniness of the written jokes. Specifically, the study aims at describing: how the (1) rhetorical and (2) pragmatic strategies are used in the jokes, and (3) how the pragmatic and rhetorical strategies complement to create humor. The study employed a qualitative research method. Some jokes were purposively selected from the Reader's Digest and two online sources: http://jokes.cc.com/, and http://www.ajokeaday.com/. Document studies were the means of data collection. The collected data were then analyzed using a qualitative content analysis. The results showed that that there was a relationship between the two pragmatic theories, i.e., Speech Act Theory and Cooperative Principles, and Berger's rhetorical techniques. The results offered an alternative reading and richer understanding of how written jokes employed pragmatic and rhetorical strategies to advance their rhetorical objectives and humor functions. **Keywords:** pragmatics; rhetorical strategies; English-written jokes
Introduction	In Indonesia, humor has also been studied from the linguistic perspectives. Graf (2003) studied humor in Indonesian politics, in particular, Abdurrahman Wahid's (popularly known as Gus Dur) jokes. Another was done on Indonesian standup comedy (Afidah & Wahyudi, 2014). There was also a study on sexual humor in Indonesia (Lesmana, 2015). Since humor is a complex and paradoxical phenomenon, it needs multiple approaches of analysis in investigating the multiple layers of meanings it carries. Among these approaches are pragmatic and rhetorical analyses, or popularly known as Pragma-Rhetoric (Larrazabal & Korta, 2005); as humor may serve more than one rhetorical function, so it may fall under more than one humor theory (Meyer, 2000). The study intends to empirically examine the different ways in which humor is manifested linguistically in the written discourse and how it is rhetorically structured, analyzing the pragmatic function it plays, the process how the language is manipulated, how its interpretations are arrived at, and what humorous effects result from the social interaction.
Method	Since the main focus of the present study is to analyze and describe jokes, the study is thus qualitative in nature. Specifically, it drew on

discourse and conversation analyses, as it examined texts as “objects” in order to discover the rhetorical and pragmatic strategies used in the jokes. The main data of the present study are the rhetoric and pragmatic features of narrative discourse composed of conversations and narration. They were obtained from the selected written-joke texts in Reader’s Digest of Asian Edition of 2011- 2013 editions in the sections ‘Laughter’, ‘All in a day’s work’, and ‘Life’s like that’, as well as from online sources www.ajokeaday.com and www.jokes.com. The data were collected through document studies and were then analyzed using a qualitative content analysis.

Results and Discussions

The Rhetorical Strategies The analysis of the rhetorical strategies showed that there were basically three types of humorous discourse found in the jokes: (1) universal, (2) socio-cultural and political discourse, and (3) linguistic jokes. They were presented in various themes or categories, such as business/work, college/education, ethnic, family/marriage, kids, man vs. woman, political, puns, technology, and so forth. Table 1 presents the types of humorous discourse.

Table 1. Types of Humorous Discourse

No.	Discourse Types	Sample Jokes
1	Universal	***Three friends are** taking a memory test. The doctor asks the first man, "What's three times three?"* *"274," the first man replies.* *"Hmm," the doctor replies, then turns to the second man: "What's three times three?" "Tuesday," the man lies.* *Finally, the doctor to the third man asks, "What's three times three?"* *Nine."* *Great!" the doctors. "How did you get it?" ("Easy," the man explains. "I subtracted 274 from Tuesday."* (Reader’s Digest, February 2011, p. 57)
2	Socio-cultural and political	*Little Billy wanted $100 badly and prayed for two weeks but nothing happened. Then he decided to write God a letter requesting the $100. When the postal authorities received the letter addressed to God, USA, they decided to send it to President Bush.* *The President was so impressed, touched, and amused that he instructed his secretary to send Billy a $5.00 bill.* *President Bush thought this would appear to be a lot of money to a little boy.* *Billy was delighted with the $5.00 and sat down to write a thank you note to God, which read:* *Dear God,* *Thank you very much for sending the money, however, I noticed that for some reason you had to send it through Washington D.C. and, as usual, those crooks deducted $95.00.* *Thanks,* *Billy* (www.ajokeaday.com, 2012)
3	Linguistic	*Q: Why can't a blonde dial 911?* *A: She can't find the eleven.* (www.jokes.com)

The type of humorous discourse is one of the rhetorical strategies used in the jokes. Another found in this study deals with a rhetorical structure known as joke structure. The analysis reveals that the jokes have the structure of a narrative text. The structure mainly covers two parts: the build-up and the punch-line. The build-up consists of an introduction and dialogues or events which usually function as the jab-line. They differ in the frequency of the events in each text. Table 2 shows examples of a joke structure.

Table 2. Joke Structure

Joke No.	Structure Elements		Sample Narration/Dialogue of the Joke
1	a. build-up	1) introduction	*Three friends are taking a memory test. The doctor asks the first man, "What's three times three?"*
		2) dialogue/events	*a) "274," the first man replies.* *b) "Hmm," the doctor plies, then turns to the second man: "What's three times three?" "Tuesday," the man lies.* *c) Finally, the doctor to the third man asks, "What's three times three?"* *Nine."*
	b. punch-line		*Great!" the doctors. "How did you get it?" ("Easy," the man explains. "I subtracted 274 from Tuesday."*

As revealed in Table 3, there are mainly five kinds of humor devices used in the jokes: (a) irony/sarcasm, (b) exaggeration, (c) mis- understanding, (d) satire, and (e) puns and wordplay. In Joke (4), the humor device used is irony. The fact that the chauffeur acting as Einstein asked Einstein to answer the difficult question is ironic ("Sir, the answer to your question is so easy that I'll let my chauffeur answer it!"). This is in line with Berger's (1993) humor techniques that irony in humor uses language to imply the opposite of their literal meaning or a situation where the outcome is the opposite from that intended or expected.

Table 3. Humor Devices

Joke No.	Humor Devices	Sample Narration/Dialogues showing in Device
4	Irony/ sarcasm	Einsteinium Albert Einstein used to go to dinners where he was invited to give a speech. One day, on his way to one of those dinners, he told his chauffeur (who looked exactly like him) that he was dead tired of giving the same speech, dinner after dinner. "Well," said the chauffeur, "I've got a good idea. Why don't I give the speech since I've heard it so many times?"' So, Albert's chauffeur gave the speech perfectly and even answered a few questions. Then, a professor stood up and asked him a really tough question about anti-matter which the chauffeur couldn't answer "Sir, the answer to your question is so easy that I'll let my chauffeur answer it!" (http://jokes.cc.com/funny-school-jokes/wmlo80/einsteinium)
5	Exaggeration	Johnny Carson: You know, I was visiting a small-town last week. His friend: How small was it? Johnny Carson: The Enter and Exit signs for the town were on the same pole. (http://www.toddstrong.com/comedy writing/exaggeration.php)
6	Misunderstanding	An elderly man, 82, just returned from the doctors only to find he didn't have long to live. So, he summoned the three most important people in his life to tell them of his fate: 1. His Doctor 2. His Priest 3. His Lawyer. He said, "Well, today I found out I don't have long to live. So, I have summoned you three here, because you are the most important people in my life, and I need to ask a favor. Today, I am going to give each of you an envelope with $50,000 dollars inside. When I die, I would ask that all three of you throw the money into

		my grave." After the man passed on, the three people happened to run into each other. The doctor said, "I have to admit I kept $10,000 dollars of his money. He owed me from lots of medical bills. But I threw the other $40,000 in like he requested. "The Priest said, "I have to admit also, I kept $25,000 dollars for the church. It's all going to a good cause. I did, however, throw the other $25,000 in the grave." Well the Lawyer just couldn't believe what he was hearing! "I am surprised at you two for taking advantage of him like that. I wrote a check for the full amount and threw it all in!!!" (http://www.ajokeaday.com/Clasificacion.asp?ID=43&Pagina=2#ixzz3JQY3jQbj)
7	Satire	Ear Accident A construction worker accidentally cuts off one of his ears with an electric saw. He calls out to a guy walking on the street below, "Hey, do you see my ear down there?" The guy on the street picks up an ear and yells back, "Is this it?" "No," replies the construction worker. "Mine had a pencil behind it." (http://jokes.cc.com/funny-work-jokes/8mmabc/ear-accident)
8	Puns and Wordplay	Maurice an 82-year-old man went to the doctor for his physical. A few days later the doctor saw Maurice walking down the street with a gorgeous young lady on his arm. A couple of days later do doctor spoke to Maurice and said, "You're really doing great, aren't you?" Maurice replied, "Just doing what you said, Doc: "Get a hot mamma and be cheerful." The doctor said, "I did not say that. I said, "You got a heart murmur. Be careful." (http://www.ajokeaday.com/ChisteDelDia.asp#ixzz3JQV4Yuuj)

Next is the analysis of communicative intention of the jokes from pragmatic perspectives. The analysis first considered the major proponents of 'speech act theory' and their ideas about meaning assignment. This opened up the possibility of there being a difference between the meaning of certain words (x) and what the speaker intended to convey by using those words. Grice (1957) and Dascal (1985) regarded this as humorous intent and that jokes depend on the existence of these sociopragmatic devices that make indirectness possible. These can be discovered from three different levels of meaning: (a) sentence meaning: understanding a speaker's words (b)

	utterance meaning: understanding those words in their specific reference in the context of the utterance, (c) speaker's meaning: the speaker's intention of uttering those words in that context. Speaker's meaning can be conveyed in two different ways: directly or indirectly. It is direct when it is identical to the utterance meaning; in this case pragmatic interpretation can be seen as the 'endorsement' of the utterance meaning by the listener. It is indirect when it is different from the utterance meaning, and the pragmatic interpretation is constructed by drawing on the cues in the context and by using the utterance meaning as a starting point. As previously mentioned, the rhetoric and pragmatic strategies can be combined for humorous discourse analysis. The combination of both disciplines is used to reveal the linguistic manifestation and intentional phenomena that occur in most communicative uses of language, such as those in jokes. The rhetoric strategies are applied to crack the linguistic devices and the pragmatic ones deal with the "basic intentional components that have to be considered in relationship with emotive components and any other psychological aspect of speakers and hearers, changing alternatively their roles in the production of discourses." (Larrazabal & Korta, 2006, p. 8). To sum up, the rhetorical and pragmatic views of the English-written jokes can help readers to understand the humorous meanings. Both of the strategies are complementary (Larrazabal & Korta, 2006). The rhetorical perspectives are helpful in understanding the joke structure, while the pragmatic aspect can help readers to reveal the humorous intentions.
Conclusion and Implications	Based on the analyses, it can be concluded that humor can be created and function in various ways. These different functions, in turn, may create different effects in the readers. It is also interesting to discover that there is a relationship between the two major pragmatic theories, i.e., Speech Act Theory (1975) and Cooperative Principles (1957), and Berger's (1993) rhetorical techniques. They interconnect and are together able to bring forward a more coherent picture of the humor in the data. Due to the different nature of maxims, they co-occur with certain rhetorical techniques in the humorous texts. The violation of the maxim of Quality (for example lying) co-occurs often with irony or sarcasm. This is hopefully a valuable contribution to the field of linguistic studies in humor research. These findings have several implications for instructional values, both in general education and in second language teaching and learning. In the general education context, the teaching of jokes can gain and keep students' attention, increase their motivation and retention of materials, and relax their classroom environment (Wanzer, 2002). In relation to the teaching and learning of a second language, the teaching of jokes can be incorporated into the instruction of all four main language skills. Jokes such as wordplays, funny stories, puns, and content-related ones can also serve as a versatile tool that can be used for sensitizing students to phonological, morphological, lexical, and syntactic differences within a single language or between a student's native language and the target language. In addition, the cultural content embedded in jokes can be used to enhance their intercultural understanding (Ziyaeemehr, Kumar & Abdullah, 2011). Finally, understanding the language of written jokes, in particular linguistic ambiguity, puns and wordplay, and culture-specific references requires the so-called resolution mechanism (Bucharia, 2004) applied by

	readers. It is therefore suggested that this mechanism should be further investigated to reveal how readers perceive and comprehend the jokes as funny.

Conclusion

The discourse analysis of written texts usually takes into accounts coherence, cohesion and text patterns. The sentences are usually well formed in a way that the utterances of natural, casual talk are not. For example, in the case of information, written language is used to communicate with others who are removed in time and space, or for those occasions on which permanent or semi-permanent record is required.

Discussion Questions

- Analyse and evaluate the following student's text in term of cohesion, coherence and thematic development.
- Improve the student's text by revising it.

Text: Reason for Choosing the Topic

This study is related to the use of Pictionary game to improve students' vocabulary mastery. It needs to be carried out inasmuch first, student's difficulties in understanding and mastering vocabulary, second, many English teachers in Indonesia do not apply the correct technique for teaching vocabulary, and third, there will be serious problems if students do not learn and master vocabulary which it is actually a part of language that can give much influence to the four skills of English if it is good or lack.

The writer chooses topic based on following reasons.

(1) Teaching vocabulary for students of any levels is important and does need suitable strategy or technique of teaching in order to achieve the aim of teaching a language.

(2) Pictionary game is an appropriate teaching technique which can improve students' ability in mastering vocabulary in a fun way.

Vocabulary mastery plays an important role for improving students' English language learning achievement, since students are expected to be able to write a piece of writing and speak in English correctly. The writer found the difficulties of students to master vocabulary, so the writer tries to solve it using Pictionary game. The writer believes that the provision of Pictionary game as a technique of vocabulary learning can affect the control word for word the English language for students who learn it. Moreover, Pictionary game gives English words so it will be easier for students to memorize the vocabulary.

The writer intends to do the study on the use and the effectiveness of Pictionary game as one of the techniques in vocabulary teaching. Through such a technique, students are hoped to be able to learn vocabulary better.

Further Readings

Bhatia, V. (2014). *Worlds of written discourse: A genre-based view*. London: Bloomsbury.

Fitriati, S.W., & Solihah, Y.A. (2019). Non-Native Writers and the Use of Appraisal Resources in Research Article Introductions. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 8 (3), 638-645.

Gerot, L., & Wignell, P. (1994). *Making sense of functional grammar*. Cammeray, N.S.W.: Antipodean Educational Enterprises.

Jalilifar, A., Alipour M., & Rabiee, M. A Comparative Study of Thematicity in the Argumentative Writing of University EFL Students and the Introduction Section of Research Articles. *Journal of Teaching Language Skills*, 36 (1), Spring 2017.

Martin, J.R, & Rose, D. (2007). *Working with discourse: Meaning beyond the clause* (2^{nd} ed.). London, UK: Continuum.

Martin, J.R., & White, P.R.R. (2005). *The language of evaluation: Appraisal in English*. London, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.

Rochmawati, D. (2017). Pragmatic and Rhetorical Strategies in the English-Written Jokes. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 7 (1), 149-159.

Suwandi. (2016). Coherence and Cohesion: An Analysis of the Final Project Abstracts of the Undergraduate Students of PGRI Semarang. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 5 (2), 253-261.

Thornbury, S. (2005). *Beyond the sentence*. Oxford: Macmillan Publishers Limited.

Yunita, S. (2018). Theme and Thematic Progression in Students' Recount Texts. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 7 (3), 524-530.

Helpful Websites

http://www.nuis.ac.jp/~hadley/publication/nuwritnanlysis/writtenanalysis.htm
https://www.uwb.edu/wacc/what-we-do/eslhandbook/coherence
https://writesite.elearn.usyd.edu.au/m3/m3u5/m3u5s3/m3u5s3_1.htm
http://www.alvinleong.info/sfg/sfgappraisal.html
http://www.grammatics.com/appraisal/

References

Cameron. (2001). W*orking with spoken discourse*. London: Sage.

Halliday, M.A.K. (1994). *An introduction to functional grammar* (2nd ed.). London: Edward Arnold.

Halliday, M.A.K., & Hasan, R. (1976). *Cohesion in English*. London: Longman.

Martin, J.R, Matthiessen, Ch., & Painter, C. (1997). *Working with functional grammar.* St. Martin's press.

Levinson, S. (1983). *Pragmatics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

CHAPTER 5

Spoken Discourse Studies

Spoken discourse analysis is the study of beyond language-in-use in spoken form.

At the end of this chapter, the students are able to describe and define:

- Classroom Interaction Analysis
- Conversation Analysis
- Coherence and Relevance
- Pragmatics; Speech Acts
- Pragmatics; Politeness Strategies
- Appraisal analysis

Spoken discourse is the ongoing, situated interpretation of a speaker's communicative intentions, of which the addressee's expected and actual reactions are an integral part. A characterization of spoken discourse requires a joint endeavor, involving the active cooperation of all the participants. As mentioned by Clark (1996) and other linguists that conversation and communication in general is a fundamentally joint activity, involving the active participation of the interlocutors and the coordination of their actions (verbal as well as non-verbal). It can be said that spoken discourse involves face-to-face interaction between two or more participants who share a spatio-temporal environment. This, together with a common cultural and personal background in the case of conversationalists who know each other well, provides a rich contextual common ground allowing the speaker to avoid having to verbalize a number of aspects of his or her message. Concomitantly, this common ground enables the discourse participants to rely to a large extent on non-verbal signaling (gestures, prosody, phatic expressions and other vocalizations), in tandem with and even, on occasion, in place of, the verbal textualisation of a given utterance. Planning time, as well as "understanding" time, is naturally minimal and at a premium – and a great many features of spontaneous speech flow from this key factor. There are two main points in understanding spoken discourse: (a) Inferring propositional content and illocutionary force and (b) Inferring intended interactional moves and acts. Therefore, Chapter 5 will provide explanations and examples of spoken discourse studies, including:

- Classroom Interaction Analysis
- Conversation Analysis
- Coherence and Relevance
- Pragmatics; Speech Acts
- Pragmatics; Politeness Strategies
- Appraisal analysis

5.1 Classroom Interaction Analysis

Classroom is an important place for language learners to develop their target language skills. It is a place where students socialize as well as learn (Ellis, 1984). Brown (2001) defines interaction as the heart of communication, it is what communication is all about. It occurs when two or more people are giving an action and receiving reaction as well as communicating each other includes in the classroom setting. Therefore, it can be said that classroom interaction occurs when the teacher and students exchange their ideas, thought and feeling then resulting in a mutual effect on each other. Chaudron (1998) defines classroom interaction covers classroom behaviors such as turn-taking, questioning and answering, negotiation of meaning and feedback.

Classroom interaction plays a significant role in accepting and absorbing the target language. The result of good interaction can increase students' language acquisition as the information is successfully transferred from the teacher to the students. In addition, a good interaction can create a good relationship between the teacher and the students. As mentioned by Ellis (1984) that successful learning is influenced by interactions that occur in the classroom because classroom is a place for students to develop the knowledge and skills required for spontaneous communication in the target language. Further, Ellis adds that although classroom interaction has an important role in acquiring the target language, success in learning the target language will only take place if the learner is afforded the interactional opportunities to use and develop their language skill. While, Rivers (1987) notes that through interaction, students can increase their language store as they listen to or read authentic linguistic material, or even the output of their fellow students, in discussion, skits, joint problem-solving tasks, or dialogue journals. Interaction, students can use all they possess of the language all they have learned or casually absorbed in real life exchanges. Therefore, it can be concluded that the role of classroom interaction is crucial to the learning and teaching process.

Byram (2013) states studying classroom interaction involves several aspects such as examining pupil growth, teacher cognitive styles, modes of interaction and effects of teacher training. The result of classroom interaction study can function as a diagnostic tool to reveal problems of discourse management and critical incidents encountered by learners through its emphasis on how interlocutors make sense of each other's contribution. There are two types classroom interaction: learner-centered learning and teacher-centered learning. Learning-centered approach allows students to be more actively participate both inside and outside classroom so that they can do larger role in learning process. The role of the teacher is as a guide or instructor who facilitates the learning and teaching process. While, teacher-centered learning emphasizes on what teachers do often lead to students being passive learners. The teachers will dominate the classroom activities. By doing so, teachers do not encourage students to take responsibility for their own learning. This approach does not expect the students to be active learners.

There are two aspect of classroom interaction: teacher talk and student talk. Teacher talk refers to the language used by teacher when addressing L2 learners in classroom interaction. Richards and Lockhart (2007) states that the teacher can modify their language in the class in order to make the students be able to acquire the new language such as simplify their speech, applying slower and louder than normal speech, using simple vocabulary and grammar and sometimes using repeated topics. However, classroom interaction is not only built by the teacher talk. Language that is produced by the students also has an important role in building the classroom interaction which is called student talk. Through student talk, they can express their own ideas, new topics or new opinion. Therefore, on language context, student talk can help students in achieving their goals. They have the opportunities to share their opinion or knowledge through interaction.

Example of Research Report on Classroom Interaction Analysis

Topic	Teacher talk
Source	*Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 8, 525-535. doi: 10.17509/ijal.v8i3.15251
Title	A qualitative study of teacher talk in an EFL classroom interaction in Aceh Tengah, Indonesia
Writers	Chairina Nasir, Yunisrina Qismullah Yusuf and Andri Wardana
Abstract	Teacher talk plays an essential role in classroom interaction since it can facilitate students to enhance their levels of comprehension toward the learning materials and further encourage them to be more active during the learning process. This qualitative study is aimed to analyze the types of talk employed by the teacher in the classroom interaction based on the framework of Flanders Interaction Analysis Category System (FIACS) promoted by Flanders (1970). The data were collected through audio recording and observation for three class meetings, and interview with the teacher at the second grade of a senior high school in Aceh Tengah, Indonesia. The results showed that all of the seven types of teacher talk were found. Among them, giving directions took place as the most applied interaction by the teacher. It indicates that the teacher mostly controlled and provided the students with directions, commands, or orders in the learning process. Meanwhile, the least used were accepting or using ideas of pupils and accepting feelings. From the result of the interview, this matter occurred due to the lack of students' participation in expressing their ideas and

	feelings. Thus, this study is expected to be a reference by which teachers could consider the types of teacher talk to be implemented to improve their students' activity and interest during the classroom interaction. **Keywords:** Classroom interaction; EFL students; FIACS; teacher talk
Introduction	In the EFL classroom, one of the most important parts of the teaching and learning process is the interaction that occurs between teachers and learners. Yanita, Yusuf, and Gani (2016) believed that among the success of a teacher's teaching is the quality of his or her interaction with the students. Brown (2007) coined interaction as a collaborative exchange of thoughts, feelings or ideas between a teacher and learners or a learner and other learners resulting in a reciprocal effect on each other. Hence, it can be concluded that interaction in a language classroom is the process of learning a language. Drawing from the concepts of ideal classroom interaction with a balanced proportion of teacher talk and the problems rose from fewer students' participation in the classroom interaction, this study aimed at analyzing types of teacher talk in an English class of a senior high school in Takengon, Aceh Tengah, Indonesia. Our preliminary observation has shown that that in some senior high schools in Aceh Tengah, the classrooms were less active and students were seemed not to be given the opportunities needed to develop their English communication. Therefore, there is a need to study these teacher-student's interactions further so that later on, solutions to problems arising from the condition can be pursued effectively. Thus far, no related published work has been done in this school to study the classroom interaction, specifically on teacher talk. We applied the Flanders Interaction Analysis Category System (FIACS) as this framework was deemed suitable to be used in this study. A number of studies have also used this framework to analyze their data on teacher talk (see Hai & Bee, 2006; Nurmasitah, 2010; Saba, 2007).
Method	The research method applied in this study was qualitative. In dealing with the research design, we used a descriptive design supported by a simple statistic calculation (percentage) to describe the findings. Pertaining to this matter, Alwasilah (2002) asserted that the descriptive design is used to describe the characteristics of the researched objects. Here, it is referred to describe the distribution of each type of teacher talk that occurred in the classroom interaction based on the framework of FIACS. We had recorded a teacher by audio recording with her consent, and also her students in the class while teaching English to her eleventh-grade students at a senior high school in Aceh Tengah, Indonesia. There were 30 students in her English class. We recorded the classroom interaction for three meetings by placing a video recorder at one of the back corners of the classroom. Each meeting lasted for 90 minutes and thus making a total of 270 minutes of recording. At the same time, the fourth writer became a non-participant observer by positioning and sitting next to the video recorder to observe the classroom interaction by using observation sheets. After the data of audio-recording were transcribed, they were encoded into the categories of teacher talk based on FIACS. As suggested by Alwasilah (2002, p. 159) that coding and analyzing the data help the researcher in (1) identifying a phenomenon, (2) counting the frequency of a phenomenon, (3) showing the relation of code frequencies with inclination of findings, and (4) arranging the categorization and sub categorization. Accordingly, in order to classify the types of teacher talk accurately, the researcher applied the

coding guidance of FIACS (see Table 1) adapted from Hai and Bee (2006, p. 117).

Table 1. Coding guidance of teacher talk in FIACS (adapted from Hai & Bee, 2006, p. 117).

Indirect Talk

Accepts Feelings
- The teacher accepts the feeling of the students.
- He feels that the students should not be punished for exhibiting his feelings.
- Feelings may be positive or negative.

Praise or Encouragement
- The teacher praises or encourages student action or behavior.
- When a student gives an answer to the question asked by the teacher, the teacher gives positive reinforcement by saying words like 'good,' 'very good,' 'better,' 'correct,' 'excellent,' 'carry on,' etc.

Accepts or Uses ideas of Students
- It is similar to the 1st category. But in this category, the students' ideas are accepted only and not his feelings.
- If a student passes on some suggestions, then the teacher may repeat in a nutshell in his own style or words.
- The teacher can say, 'I understand what you mean' etc. or the teacher clarifies, builds or develops ideas or suggestions given by a student.

Asking Questions
- Asking a question about content or procedures, based on the teacher ideas and expecting an answer from the students.
- Sometimes, the teacher asks the question, but he carries on his lecture without receiving any answer. Such questions are not included in this category.

Direct Talk

Lecturing /Lecture
- Giving facts or opinions about content or procedure expression of his own ideas, giving his own explanation, citing an authority other than students, or asking rhetorical questions

Giving Directions
- The teacher gives directions, commands or orders or initiation with which a student is expected to comply with. For example, 'Open your books! Solve the 4th sum of Exercise 5.3!'

Criticizing or Justifying Authority
- When the teacher asks the students not to interrupt with foolish questions, then this behavior is included in this category.
- Teachers ask 'what' and 'why' to the students also come under this category.
- Statements intended to change student behavior from unexpected to acceptable pattern
- Bawling someone out
- Stating why the teacher is doing what he is doing

Results and Discussions

From the observation and audio recording of three meetings of the teacher teaching her class or approximately 270 minutes, Figure 2 shows the result of teacher talk based on the types by FIACS in percentage.

Figure 2 shows that giving directions was the most dominant type of teacher talk applied in classroom interaction with 52 occurrences (36.3%). It is followed by asking questions with 41 occurrences (28.7%), praise or encouragement with 20 occurrences (14%), lecture with 14 occurrences (9.8%), criticizing or justifying authority with 9 occurrences (6.3%), accepts or uses ideas of pupils with 6 occurrences (4.2%), and the least aspect in teacher talk was accepts feelings with only 1 occurrence (0.7%).

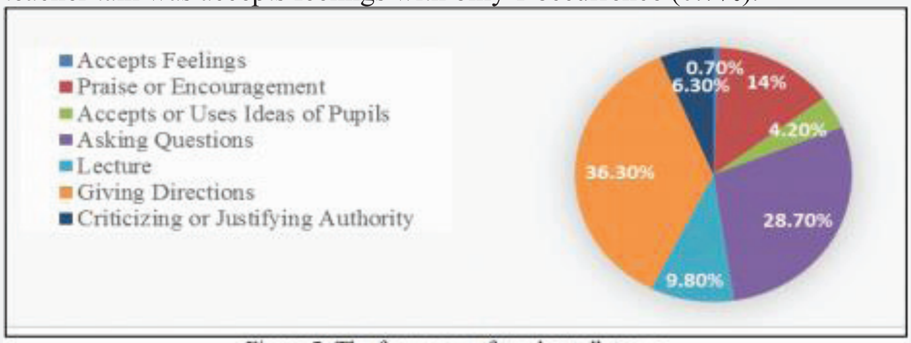


Figure 2. The frequency of teacher talk types

Giving directions

As the dominant type of teacher talk found in this study, giving directions means that the teacher gave instructions, commands, or orders to which the students were expected to comply with. She gave directions when she asked the students to do assignments or tasks and to answer the questions.

Excerpt 11

T :*Sekarang diskusikan dengan pasangannya tentang makna dari setiap ekspresi yang ada di papan tulis!* [Now, please discuss with your pair about the meaning of each expression on the whiteboard!]

Asking questions

At 28.7%, asking questions appeared as the second dominant type of talk used by the teacher. Regarding this category, the researcher found that the teacher intentionally asked questions and expected the answers from students. Here is an example from the data.

Excerpt 2

T: *Apa makna dari* 'calming someone down'? [What is the meaning of 'calming someone down'?]

S: *Meredakan marah.* [Alleviating anger.]

Praise or encouragement

This type, as the third used type by the teacher in teaching, was at 14% of occurrences during her teaching. It was observed that when a student answered her question, she would give praises or encouragement to the student. An example from data is as the following.

Excerpt 3

T: *Ya, bagus sekali!* Excellent! [Yes, very good! Excellent!]

Lecture

The lecture was applied by the teacher in the classroom interaction for 9.8%. She applied lecture because this was essential in explaining the learning materials so that the students understood and not confused about what was actually being learned. E5 illustrate this type of teacher talk from the data.

Lecture

The lecture was applied by the teacher in the classroom interaction for 9.8%. She applied lecture because this was essential in explaining the learning materials so that the students understood and not confused about what was actually being learned. E5 illustrate this type of teacher talk from the data.

Excerpt 4

T : Well, the correct answer is that *kelinci itu sudah mati bukan karena anjing itu. Jadi, dia memang sudah mati sebelum dia digigit oleh anjing tersebut.* [Well, the correct answer is that the rabbit was already dead (and it is) not because of the dog. So, the rabbit was already dead before it was bitten by the dog.]

Criticizing or justifying authority

Criticizing or justifying authority occurred for 6.3% in the data. We found that this type was employed when the teacher criticized the student's inappropriate behavior. The example is as follows:

Excerpt 5

T : You always come in late. *Dari mana kamu? Apa kamu tidak dengar bel berbunyi? Kalau telat sekali lagi, saya palang absen!* [You always come in late. Where have you been?

	Accepts or uses ideas of pupils From the data, it was found out that accepts or uses ideas of pupils occurred for 4.2%. It was the second least type of talk used by the teacher. An example in data (see E6) showed a case when a student expressed his ideas, the teacher accepted and developed his ideas in her own words. Excerpt 6 T : *Baik, saya akan bagi kalian menjadi* four groups. [Okay, I will divide you into four groups.] S : *Bu, laki-laki dengan kelompok laki-laki saja ya, perempuan juga begitu.* [Miss, the boys shall be with the boys, and the girls, too.] T : *Ya, kalian akan dibagi dua grup laki-laki dan dua grup perempuan.* [Yes, you will be divided into two male groups and two female groups.] Accepts feelings Accept feelings occurred for 0.7% in the classroom interaction. It was the least type used by the teacher. From the data, we found that this type occurred because the teacher felt that the student deserved to express his feeling on what he was facing during the learning process. Excerpt 7 S : *Kami tidak bisa menyelesaikannya. Soalnya susah, Bu.* [We can't finish it. The questions are difficult, Miss.] T : *Saya mengerti, tapi ini nanti akan menarik ketika kalian main gamenya.* [I understand, but it will be interesting when you play the game later.]
Conclusion and Implications	From 143 frequencies of teacher talk found in three classroom meetings, the results showed that giving directions (36.3%) and asking questions (28.7%) were mostly employed, and these were followed by praise or encouragement (14%), lecture (9.8%), criticizing or justifying authority (6.3%), accepts or uses ideas of pupils (4.2%), and accepts feelings (0.7%). At the beginning of each class, giving directions was mostly employed to inform what the learners were going to learn and do in class that day. Moreover, asking questions was also dominantly applied to make the students attentive to the subject of discussion as well as to check their understanding of the topic. Accepting feelings and accepting or using ideas of pupils were the least used by the teacher because the students were less prompted to express their feelings or ideas. Although in the interview the teacher claimed that she had done her best in using teacher talk to get the students to be active, she was still dominating the classroom since giving directions was the most used in class, perhaps without her being aware of it. However, she did mention that their lack of being active was due to their low competence in English. Based on her statement, it can be inferred that she, as the teacher, was still the center of the teaching and learning process in which she spent more time talking than the students. Since her students were less competent in using the learned language in class, she accordingly became more talkative in the classroom. To have more direct talk led the students to be less engaged to talk in the classroom interaction. Perhaps, this is some of the causes that make less interactive English classrooms in Indonesia because students were not given enough opportunities to develop their English communication skill. Thus, English teachers are suggested to provide more indirect teacher talk to boost

	interactive classrooms, which can lead to an increase of motivations in learning the foreign language. We recognize that the present study only focused on one teacher and three class meetings. Thus, it is recommended that future studies on a similar topic may consider a larger group of respondents and more classroom meetings so that the conclusions drawn from this study can be developed.

5.2 Conversation Analysis

Conversation analysis is a part of sociolinguistics which studies conversation. The first linguist who develops this notion are Sacks, Schegloff, Jefferson, Pomerants and Levinson. In their opinion, conversation analysis is an empirical approach which demands a thorough analysis and it studies the interactional and inferential consequences. Levinson (1983) says that the most common pairs in conversation analysis based on his investigation are turn-taking, adjacency pairs and repairs.

- Turn-taking

Turn-taking is one of the basic facts of conversation: speakers and listeners change their roles in order to begin their speech (Coulthard, 1985). The turn-taking mechanism may actually vary between cultures and between languages (Cook, 1989). For smooth turn-taking, the knowledge of both the linguistic rules and the conversational rules of the target language is required. The rules for the allocation of turns, following the principle of transition relevance, were set out by Sacks et al. (1974/1978) as follows:

1. At the transition–relevance place of a turn:

A. where the next speaker is selected by the current speaker: the current speaker must stop talking and the next speaker must take over
B. where the next speaker is not selected by the current speaker: any speaker may, but need not, self-select, with first speaker acquiring rights to a turn.
C. where the next speaker is not selected by the current speaker: the current speaker may, but need not, continue if no other speaker self-selects.

2. Whichever choice has been made, then 1. A–C come into operation again.

(adapted from Sacks et al., 1974/1978, p. 13).

It is not claimed that these 'rules' are consciously applied or even known by interactants, but that they are naturally acquired, implicitly understood and automatically employed each time interaction takes place. The rules are deceptively simple, but are general enough to apply to different settings, numbers of participants, sets of relationships, topics and contexts (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008). Some institutionalized contexts, nevertheless, vary. The ordering of turns in debates, for example, is pre-allocated, and other institutionalized speech events such as committee meetings, school class- room lessons and trials also have their own turn-taking rules. There is also the possibility that the rules may differ across culture. However, Levinson (1983) claims that there is ‘good reason’ for thinking that for ‘informal, ordinary kinds of talk’ the rules are valid for all cultures. Hatch (1983), whilst agreeing that the turn-taking system itself ‘may well be universal’, cites studies which indicate that pause length, which often indicates the place for turn-taking, does vary across language groups.

- Adjacency pairs

Schegloff and Sacks in Stephen C. Levinson (1983) have described about adjacency pairs:

> … the adjacency pairs: a sequence of two utterances, which are adjacent, produced by different speakers, ordered as a **first part** and a **second part**, typed, so that a particular requires a particular second or range of second parts – e.g. offer require acceptances or rejections, greetings require greetings.

It shows that they arranged special characterization for adjacency pairs. The first is that an adjacency pairs must have at least two utterances which are the sequence of two utterances is very near or next to. The second is about the speakers. Then the last is an adjacency pairs which have two parts. They are namely first part and second part. The first part of the adjacency pairs will get the response from the second part. Levinson (1983) gives the correlation of content and format in adjacency pair in form of the table showed below:

Table 5.1 Correlation of content and format in adjacency pairs

First part	Request	Offer	Invitation	Assessment	Question	Blame
Second part						
Preferred	Acceptance	Acceptance	Acceptance	Agreement	Expected answer	Denial
Dispreferred	Rejection	Refusal	Refusal	Disagreement	Unexpected answer	Admitta nce

Table 5.1 shows the correlation of content and format in adjacency pairs. There are two parts, namely first part of adjacency pairs and second part of adjacency pairs. The first part of the adjacency pairs will get the response from the second part. For the

second part as the response, it is divided into two types of responses which are preferred response and dispreferred response. For the first part, the types of adjacency pairs are Request, offer, invitation, assessment, question, and blame. For the preferred responses, they are acceptance, agreement, expected answer, and denial. While for the dispreferred responses, they are rejection, refusal, disagreement, unexpected answer, and admittance.

According to Tracy (2002) there are many kinds of adjacency pairs. Some pairs involve similar acts like greetings and goodbye, while others involve different acts, like invitations or offers followed by acceptances or refusals, and question followed by answer. Below are two examples of common adjacency pairs in English taken from Tracy (2002). These adjacency pairs involve different acts. Example (1) accepts an invitation, and example (2) refuses an invitation.

1. Taryn	: How about some lunch?	Invitation
Jjay 1	: Sound good. (stand up)	Acceptance
2. Taryn	: How aout some lunch ?	Invitation
Jay	: (pause) Uhh, better bot. I’ve got to get this done by 2:00. Thanks though. How’s tomorrow?	Refusal

In offer, invitation or request, accepts are conversationally preferred to refusals. So, acceptance is a preferred action, and refusal in a dispreferred action. In addition, dispreferred second parts often begin with a token agreement or acceptance, or with an expression of appreciation or apology, and usually include an explanation. The example of the explanation is below:

Speaker 1 : Can I use your phone?
Speaker 2 : Oh, I’m sorry, but I’m expecting an important long-distance call any minute. Could you wait ten minutes?

The speaker 1 asked for permission to use the speaker 2’s phone. However, as the response, the speaker 2 could not give her or his phone because she or he would use it anytime to receive an important long-distance call. However, the speaker 2 showed her or his apology first before rejecting the speaker 1’s request. The speaker 2 used the words *I’m sorry.*

- Repairs

Conversation, according to Sacks, Jefferson and Schegloff (1977), is when a speaker is talking, he has either way to self-repair himself or other participant when committing errors. Repairs include self-initiated self-repair, self-initiated other-repair, other-initiated self-repair, other-initiated other-repair. Repairs are strategies that speakers use in spoken discourse either in an ordinary conversation or institutional talk. It is the way speaker corrects things which someone else has said, and checks what he/she has understood. Moreover, repairs do not just correct grammar rather as a way to better express oneself in a conversation. Normally, repair is being done when an interlocutor locates and replaces a prior information unit. Then, this shows the speakers' sensitivity on their own production of discourse covers both institutional and ordinary conversation. Repair can be initiated by the speaker of the repairable (self-initiated repair) or may it be initiated by its recipient (other-initiated). In addition, a repair can be made by the speaker of the repairable item (another repair). In combination, these possibilities allow for four types of repair: self-initiated self-repair, self-initiated other-repair, other-initiated self-repair, other-initiated other-repair.

Example of Research Report on Conversation Analysis

Topic	Code-switching
Source	*Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 8, 254-264. doi: 10.17509/ijal.v8i2.13273
Title	Code-switching practices in a Malaysian multilingual primary classroom from teacher and student perspectives
Writers	Malini Devi Paramesvaran and Jia Wei Lim
Abstract	This study investigates a teacher's and three students' perspectives on shared instances of code-switching practices in a Malaysian multilingual primary classroom. It seeks to explore and compare whether students perceive the same benefit of code-switching as the teacher does. This bridges the gap of previous studies, which mostly either focused on teachers' or students' perspectives on code-switching. Three 11-year-old multilingual students with different levels of English proficient and a multilingual teacher were selected as participants for this study. Four hours of English lessons were audio-recorded, and field notes were taken occasionally throughout classroom observations. An individual interview session was conducted with the teacher, and a group interview was conducted with the student participants. The findings showed that the teacher's code-switching practices helped clear the students' doubts, reinforced their learning, and encouraged student participation in English lessons. One participant shared the same perspective of code-switching as the teacher did. The other two participants, however, only found it beneficial when the teacher practiced code-switching for explanations, especially when constructing simple sentences. Both of these students reported that too much repetition of some words bore them as these were previously learned words. The study concludes that not all the students rely on code-switching to assist them during English lessons. **Keywords:** Code-switching; comprehensible input; language proficiencies; multilingual; teacher's and students' perspectives

Introduction	Code-switching is “going from one language to the other in mid-speech when both speakers know the same two languages” (Cook, 2008, p. 5). Students with diverse linguistic backgrounds move back and forth between two or more languages to suit various discourse functions and conversational contexts (Liebscher & Dailey-O"Cain, 2005; Khubchandani, 1997; Wei & Martin, 2009; Willans, 2011). Switching from English to Malay is a common social practice among students in Malaysian classrooms as they are familiar with Malay, the national language of Malaysia (Lee, 2010). Then and Ting (2009) also echoed the importance of codeswitching as a teaching tool to facilitate learning in Malaysian classrooms, especially in making input comprehensible for students with lower proficiency in English. Based on findings from previous studies, there are several reasons that lead to code-switching practices in Malaysian classrooms, which include clarification, repetition, and emphasizing important points to students (Birnie-Smith, 2016; Choudhury, 2005; Hobbs, Matsuo & Payne, 2010; Qian, Tian & Wang, 2009; Reyes, 2004; Ziegler, 2013). Although several studies outlined the advantages and disadvantages of code-switching during English lessons, these findings mainly covered perspectives from the teachers only (Gilead, 2016; Kharkhurin, 2015; Li, 2008; Miesel, 2011). As students and teachers are involved in a learning environment, especially during English lessons, it is crucial to take into consideration students" voices and perspectives on how their teacher’s code-switching practices assist or hinder their learning during English lessons. Hence, the inclusion of both student and teacher on shared instances of code-switching is crucial because teachers and students may or may not share similar perspectives in those moments (Hall, 2015). In keeping with that, this study was able to obtain more holistic data on the effectiveness of code-switching as a teaching tool to teach English in a multilingual classroom by synthesizing perspectives from teachers and students.
Method	A qualitative case study was adopted to obtain “an intensive, holistic description and analysis” from the teacher and students on code-switching practices in a multilingual classroom. The context of this study is a multilingual classroom, named Year 5 Bestari, which is situated in a rural national school in Malaysia. A national school in this context refers to schools that use Malay as their main medium of instruction (Ministry of Education Malaysia, 2012). The participants in this study were chosen via purposeful sampling to provide opportunities to analyze in-depth perspectives from participants regarding codes-witching practices during English lessons. An English language teacher and three 11-year-old multilingual students were chosen as participants for this study. The names of all the participants were replaced with pseudonyms to protect their identities. The English teacher, Miss Amira, has seven years of teaching experience. Miss Amira is a multilingual and is able to speak and write in three languages fluently; namely Malay, Arabic and English. Among the 29 students in this classroom, with 18 girls and 11 boys, three multilingual students, with knowledge of Malay, Arabic, and English were purposefully chosen as participants in this study to represent the students’ voices. They were selected in relation to their English proficiency. Four hours of English lessons were audio-recorded. Selected classroom interactions where code-switching was apparent were transcribed at the end of each lesson. An interview session lasting one hour was conducted with

Miss Amira using a set of open-ended interview questions after the four classroom observations were conducted. Perspectives obtained from Miss Amira and the three students through a range of data gathering instruments were compared and analyzed to see if students perceive the same benefit of code-switching as teachers did.

Results and Discussions

Based on the findings, I found that Miss Amira often code-switched for keyword translations, repetitions, and explanations. Specific classroom excerpts where code-switching was apparent are illustrated in this section. These excerpts were chosen as they portray the various reasons behind Miss Amira's code-switching practices and students' views in assisting them during English lessons. Most of the excerpts presented have several spoken Malay words; hence, these Malay words are italicized. Translations from Malay to English of these words and phrases are provided below each excerpt to aid readers.

Teacher's perspectives on code-switching for keyword translations

<u>Excerpt 1</u>

Miss Amira	: Famous, popular, well-known…
	Okay. These are synonyms…
	Okay. *Kalau dia punya* antonyms?
	(Okay. How about the antonyms?)
Aza	: Unpopular…
Miss Amira	: Okay. *Tak* popular….
	(Okay. Unpopular)
	Classroom Observation

In Excerpt 1, Miss Amira provided the exact translation for the word 'unpopular' in Malay, which is 'tak popular'. Coincidentally, 'popular' is also found in the Malay vocabulary. However, the English prefix 'un' could be unfamiliar to some students; thus, Miss Amira translated 'unpopular' into 'tak popular'. She believed that this translation was able to accommodate individual student needs as not all the students had the same level of proficiency in English. Hence, with the presence of translation, Miss Amira hoped that students with lower language proficiency would be able to have a better understanding of the content being taught.

At the same time, students with higher language proficiency would be able to confirm their understanding of the word taught in the lesson. However, it was noted that Miss Amira did not provide any confirmation for Aza's answer 'unpopular' in Excerpt 1 even though the answer was correct. Instead, Miss Amira translated the word into Malay and repeated the same answer provided by Aza, 'unpopular.' Aza is a student with good English proficiency. However, Miss Amira did not acknowledge Aza's answer which implies that although Miss Amira claimed that she wanted to cater to individual student needs, she could have overlooked accommodating students with good proficiency who already knew the meaning of the word taught.

Students' perspectives on code-switching for translations

In reference to Excerpt 1, Chafiq personally felt that if not for the translation in Malay, he would not have been able to understand the word 'unpopular.' Hence, the translation assisted him in understanding the input given by Miss Amira. Based on Chafiq's sample exercises, it was noted that Miss Amira occasionally provided translations of keywords for students to construct sentences with (see Figure 2).

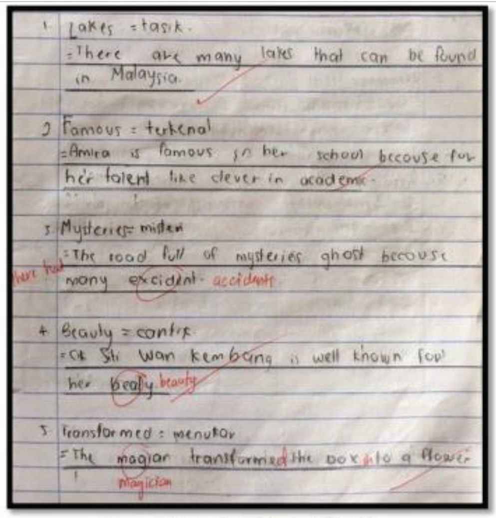


Figure 2. Sample of Chafiq's Exercises

Teacher's perspectives on code-switching for repetition

<u>Excerpt 2</u>	
Miss Amira	: *Apa maksud* leaning?
Aza	: *Bersandar.*
Miss Amira	: Yes. *Bersandar*… *Kan kita dah lukis gambar.* (We drew the picture…) This is your wall… *Ini adalah dinding…* *Bila ada tangga, sandar pada dinding….* (When there's a ladder leaning against the wall…) *Itu kita panggil* leaning against the wall… (We refer it as leaning against the wall…)
Students	: Oh… (Students nod their heads)
	Classroom Observation

Miss Amira explained that the reason behind her repetition of the same statement in Malay was to encourage participation among students. To illustrate, Miss Amira believed that through repetition, she was able to check students' understanding regarding the content being taught. This was evident as most of the students responded 'Oh…' accompanied with nods assuring their understanding of the input that was delivered by Miss Amira.

Students' perspectives on code-switching for repetition

Excerpt 4

Researcher	: How about you? Is it necessary for your Teacher to use two languages?
Batrisya	: One only…
Researcher	: One? Why? When you say one…what language is that?
Batrisya	: English…
Researcher	: Why?
Batrisya	: *Sebab mungkin semua orang tahu* 'wall' *itu apa*… (Because everyone would probably know what 'wall' means…)
Researcher	: Okay…you feel 'wall' *itu semua orang dah tahu*… (Okay…you feel everyone knows the meaning of the word 'wall'…)
Batrisya	: *Sebab benda itu senang*… (Because it is easy…)
Researcher	: So, you feel easy words no need to use Malay… Use English will do…
Batrisya	: Yes…

Students' Interview

Aza found that Miss Amira's code-switching practices for repetition mainly assisted her peers but did not help herself as she could understand the requirement of the question without needing Miss Amira to codeswitch to Malay. Aza's response is understandable due to her high English proficiency. Interestingly, Batrisya also felt that Miss Amira's code-switching practice for repetition was unnecessary. Specifically, Batrisya felt that only one language, English, would be sufficient in reference to Miss Amira's repeated statement 'This is a wall…' in Malay, 'Ini adalah dinding…'.Batrisya believed that 'sebab mungkin semua orang tahu 'wall' itu apa…' which translates to 'because everyone knows what 'wall' is…' (see Excerpt 4). Batrisya explained 'sebab benda itu senang' (because that is easy), which means that the word 'wall' is easy for everyone to understand. In this case, Batrisya felt that codeswitching practices for repetition may be unnecessary when the words are easy and familiar to students.

Teacher's perspectives on code-switching for explanation

Excerpt 5

Miss Amira	: Okay…what is the meaning of the word 'verb'? *Kata kerja…mesti ingat*… (Action words…you must remember…) *Kalau* verb… *perbuatan… mesti perlakuan*… (If it is a verb…it is action…must be doing something…)

Classroom Observation

Miss Amira was able to reduce students' comprehension burden by providing a clear definition of the word 'verb' Miss Amira expressed that she provided the explanation in Malay as she felt that she had to accommodate her pupils' lack of proficiency in English, which could hinder their understanding if code-switching was not used. Miss Amira also believed that by helping students translate and explain the meaning of a particular word, students would be able to have a broader understanding of the reading texts. Miss Amira felt that in this way, students could develop their confidence in responding during lessons and attempt exercises given to them.

Students' perspectives on code-switching for explanation

	Excerpt 6 Miss Amira : Okay…*apa formula yang* Teacher *ajar*? (Okay…what is the formula that I taught all of you?) *Lepas* 'is' *mesti tambah*… (After 'is'…you must add…) Students : 'ing'! Miss Amira : Ah…*tambah* verb…*lepas itu tambah* 'ing'… (Yes…add the verb…then add 'ing') *Kena ingat* 'is' 'are' *mesti ada* 'ing' *di hujung*… (Must remember…'is' 'are' must be followed by 'ing' at the end…) Classroom Observation Among the three participants, Aza found that it was crucial for Miss Amira to provide the explanation (see Excerpt 6) in Malay as she felt that this explanation would eventually assist her to come up with a grammatically correct sentence. Aza felt that Miss Amira's explanation on sentence construction enabled her to better understand the various forms of grammar items such as 'verbs' Aza believes that this knowledge of grammar items would eventually help her in essay writing in the near future.
Conclusion and Implications	This article has argued and demonstrated that the students' and teacher's perspectives on code-switching practices differ in terms of the students' level of proficiency. The teacher's code-switching practices during English lessons, to some extent, facilitated, yet hindered students' learning. Therefore, teachers should be cautious in assuming that code-switching practices assist students during English lessons. Though Miss Amira intended to assist her students in their learning of English, not all students benefited from her code-switching practices. While some students found that Miss Amira's code-switching practices assisted them in clearing their doubts, enhancing their comprehension and attracting their attention in learning English, some of Miss Amira's code-switching practices also confused and distracted students from the lesson content. Thus, code-switching should be practiced moderately during English lessons to accommodate students" learning and to maximize the use of the target language among primary students. Therefore, in future English lessons, teachers could also attempt to relate the content being taught with previous learning to ensure their understanding of the input being delivered to them. Probably, by using examples that are familiar to them, teachers could reduce the use of code-switching practices during English lessons. Teachers can also consider ways to address possible student boredom. For instance, teachers can provide instructions and explanations in English substantiated with gestures and visuals (Gilead, 2016). This approach will suit students of different levels of English proficiency. Students with higher proficiency will engage themselves as the lesson meets their needs; and at the same time, students with average and low proficiency will be able to understand the input being delivered due to the aid of gestures and visuals.

5.3 Coherence and Relevance

Conversation that is stripped of those features that result from its spontaneity and those that signal its interactive and interpersonal character, reads fairly flat on the page not unlike written language. Here, for example, is the beginning of text 4.1 stripped down:

Greta :I'll take the computer over because I've got my work stuff on computer. Dad can play with the Internet.
Claire :I should give Philip my computer and I'll keep the laptop. I love it.
Greta : I took it into work to see whether they could load work stuff up on it. The guy looked at me and said how old is this? It's about four years old but in computer terms that's ancient.
Alice :I've got a laptop that's older than Apple. You can't write but it's not worth fixing. Throw it out.

But there is no doubt that, even when stripped of the characteristic features of spoken language, the text makes sense. That is, it is coherent. But unlike written text, whose coherence is principally the responsibility of one person, the writer, coherence in the computer conversation is a collaborative enterprise. The speakers cooperate to ensure that what they say is relevant to what has been said before and to the overall purpose of the talk. Failure to cooperate in this joint work is likely to result in conversational breakdown, and the resultant lack of relevance is often a characteristic of the speech of mental patients, as in this instance:

Doctor : What is your name?
Patient : Well, let's say you might have thought you had something from before, but you haven't got it anymore.
Doctor : I'm going to call you Dean.

In relation to logic and conversation, the philosopher Grice proposed a number of conversational maxims (or rules) to which speakers adhere and without which conversation would simply break down. One of these maxims concerns the relation of the speaker's utterance to the 'accepted purpose or direction of the talk-exchange'. Grice sums up this conversational maxim as: Be relevant. This means that, unless given explicit indications to the contrary, speakers assume that each other's utterances both relate to a mutually agreed topic and follow on from one another. Even where the relevance is not explicit, we will attempt to infer it. One very obvious way that speakers signal the relevance of what they are saying is by repeating all or part of what previous speakers have said.

Adult :You do that one
Child :Now I do that one

Indeed, amongst themselves, children seem to be able to sustain long conversations that consist entirely of repeating or slightly modifying one another's utterances. Similar, though less prolonged, 'incorporation sequences' are common in adult conversation.

Claire : No, I want to buy I've got an analogue I've got an analogue.
Greta : No, she's wants she's got an analogue. She's got an analogue.
Alice : Oh, you've got an analogue as well?

Alice and Greta 'echo' Claire's phrase got an analogue in such a way that the exchange is tightly bound together and maximum cohesion is ensured. Repetition serves at least two functions: (a) it binds utterances together, thereby enhancing the sense that speakers are being relevant. It also creates a sense that all participants are in harmony that they are 'singing to the same hymn sheet'' and thereby supports conversation's interpersonal function. Tannen (1989) concludes that repetition is a resource by which conversationalists together create a discourse, a relationship and a world. Lexical repetition is a good indicator that the speakers are all 'speaking to topic'. This notion of topic is a key one in terms of conferring coherence on talk.

Example of Research Report on Coherence

Topic	Coherence
Source	*Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, Vol. 3 No.2, pp. 154-168.
Title	Accomplishing Coherence in Talk Shows: A Comparison Between English and Indonesian
Writer	Yana Shanti Manipuspika
Abstract	This paper tried to show how conversational coherence is achieved within talk shows, what strategies used by both host and interviewee to achieve coherence collaboratively. It was shown that in both English and Indonesian talk shows, conversational activity of asking questions can be employed to measure a coherence of a stretch of conversation. Question-answer adjacency pairs can provide the framework through which coherence is achieved, and they have two possibilities to be agreed or disagreed with. This is clear from the English talk show instead of the Indonesian one. The way speakers taking turn and the occurrence of overlap within the sequence of conversation can also determine mutual understanding among the participants. However, the Indonesian talk show offers a longer answer pair compared with the English one. Both talk shows, in fact, share the similar indicators and use similar strategies in order to achieve coherence across the talk show sessions. Speaker's hesitation is found more in the Indonesian talk show instead of the English one. Another marker of coherence, overlap onset, also occurs a lot in both talk shows. The way speakers (host and interviewee) maintain the topic throughout the talk supports the notion that mutual understanding is successfully achieved. Meanwhile, culture is considered not too influential in determining different ways of maintaining the flow of the talk. Both talk shows use similar patterns with no significant

	difference in terms of culture. They differ only in the level of conversational devices used which is related to language use instead of cultural background. **Keywords:** coherence, adjacency pairs, turn-taking, talk shows
Introduction	As a form of verbal interaction, a talk show needs to form a coherent discourse. A number of scholars including Fairclough (1992) and Hutchby (1995) have given specific attention to this particular type of media communication; however, the correlation between discursive and linguistic features that distinguish talk show from other dialogic institutional discourse has not been so widely discussed (Ilie, 1999). Despite the fact that there have been studies using analyzing talk show conversation, very few studies have been conducted on the aspect of coherence within spoken discourse. The present study focuses on the coherence aspect of the talk show as a mixed of broadcast discourse, with specific reference to two different talk shows. One is an English-spoken talk show, and the other one is an Indonesian spoken talk show. The talk show which is primarily the subject of this investigation is the one where celebrities and/or experts, as well as ordinary people are invited as the talk show guests to discuss a particular topic. This paper approaches the notion of coherence from the perspective of Conversation Analysis (CA) in favor of a more empirically grounded approach to coherence. The aims of this article are in line with the need of developing the discourse study in terms of linguistic point of view as well as bringing new development for communication studies, since discourse analysis used as well as conversation analysis incorporated in this study is related to social communication practice instead of individual perceptions. The present study tries to explore: (1) How different is the coherence occurs in Indonesian-spoken talk show from the English-spoken one? and (2) What strategies are used to achieve that coherent discourse? The approach taken here draws on research in conversation analysis and discourse analysis. This study identified some indicators of speakers achieving coherence through different strategies in talk show conversations, including adjacency pairs, turn-taking organization within the talk, topic-shifting, and what so called repair
Method	This article reports on the different approaches used by Indonesian and English talk show hosts. The analysis targets discourse strategies of the talk show's host as well as the contribution of the guest. In order to answer the research questions, the analysis in this study involves a range of approach. The approach taken here draws on research in conversation analysis and discourse analysis. This study identified some indicators of speakers achieving coherence through different strategies in talk show conversations, including adjacency pairs, turn-taking organization within the talk, topic-shifting, and what so called repair. As Ragin (1994) mentioned, the general outline for research projects in conversation analysis would at least involve the four phases of getting or making recordings of natural interaction, transcribing the tapes, either in whole or in part, analyzing selected episodes and reporting the research. The data of this study was taken from an English talk show 'Oprah Winfrey Show' and an Indonesian talk show 'Kick Andy', which were gathered by transcribing two series of the talk shows, one episode for each language. One transcript was analyzed first to figure out the indicators of how speakers accomplish coherence; then, the same treatment was applied to the other talk show. The result was then compared one to another and conclusion will

finally be drawn from the result of analysis.

It is expected that this study supports the preliminary hypothesis that coherence is achieved in both English and Indonesian talk shows. Similar indicators showing that the conversation is coherent, such as adjacency pairs, might be found out; however, there are some others that will be slightly different within the Indonesian and English talk show as culture influences the way interactants speak.

Results and Discussions

Adjacency Pairs

One of the most noticeable things about conversation is that certain classes of utterances conventionally come in pairs. For instance, questions and answers; greetings and return greetings; or invitations and acceptances or declinations. In both English and Indonesian extract of talk show conversation, the question and answer adjacency pairs are the most common phenomenon being found. Line 1-3 represents the first part of a question-answer adjacency pair.

O: There was a time, I read, when you were actually thinking in this past 7 years, because you haven't done an album since 2002, that you were thinking of, I read, going to an island and having a [fruit stand?
W: [Fruit stand. Yap. I was thinking of having a fruit stand and growing organic fruit with my daughter on a little island on the beach and everything, living the simple life.

Turn-taking and Overlapping Talk

The following extract may give illustration on overlapping talk orienting to turn-taking mode.

W: ….. It was the moment when my mother said 'God (.) this is you and this is what you're supposed to do. And it was on the stage here when I remembered that feeling of being Wow … And my mother said 'See, you're gonna … you're gonna be doing big thing.' I was just, you know, a little tiny frame girl with this [big
O: [Yeah, I look at these pictures of you. Every black girl in America, I should've said every colored girl ((laugh)), every black girl, we have the picture with a ( ) We all have those pictures, Whitney Houston, myself, we all [have-
W: [that's it, yeah
O: So you became Whitney Houston.

The overlap onset, which is marked by left-hand square brackets, shows an understanding that speakers display of each other's talk even though one speaker has not completed her turn yet. Overlapping talk can be found in many parts of the talk show conversation.

Repair

Hutchby (2005) following Sacks, Schegloff, and Jefferson's (1978) work makes a distinction between the initiation of repair (marking something as a source of trouble), and the actual repair itself. In addition, there are also the distinction between repair initiated by self (the speaker who produced the troubled source), and repair initiated by other. A repair occurring in the English talk show is the repair in which the speaker of a trouble source may try and get the recipient to repair the trouble.

O: Well, one of the things that I recall in an interview that you did with Diane Sawyer in 2002, the world was shocked when she asked you about addiction and you said if there was an addiction, it was an addiction to making love.
W: Yes. We did a lot of that. Lots.
O: When did it start to go wrong? Can there be too much passion?
W: Yeah, it can clash. After The Bodyguard –
O: After? That was too early

Topic Shifting and Topic Maintenance

Within a turn-taking sequence in a conversation, topic shift is a common feature to be found. The way speakers maintain and shift from one topic to another can determine the topical coherence within the talk. In a session of Oprah Winfrey Show, for instance, in this following extract, the speakers were talking about how media affects W's life. The topic shift is indicated by the clause 'That's so interesting that you would say that'.

W: I knew in the days when I was a teenager singing for God. I was so sure. When I became "Whitney
Houston" and all this other stuff that happened, my life became the world's. My privacy. My business.
Who I was with. Who I married. Who I –
And I was, like, that's not fair. I wanted to go to the park. I wanted to walk down, you know, the street
with my husband, hand in hand, without somebody looking at us or having the media always in my
business. Saying what we are, and we weren't, saying what we're doing, and we weren't, or subjecting
my daughter (.) while she was just born, she was - I just wanted to be normal. I had no normal 20s, I
had no normal 30s=
O: I know
W: =My life was just like kept making records, doing tours all around the world, or going to every place
and…and –
O: <u>That's so interesting that you would say that because</u> for years I have thought that, mmm… in many
ways, the Whitney Houston that we have seen has been a creation of the media. That obviously your
voice and your talent is what it is. But the gowns, the hair, that first video, all of that stuff was a15
creation. You were really somebody else.

Topic shifting can take place with or without lexical marker, and during the talk show sessions, the host keeps maintaining the topic to build mutual understanding for both speakers as well as the audience.

W: At that time in my life, I was going through much trauma. I had been through-, gone through-. I thought
that was enough for me. I had the money. I had the cars. I had the house. Had the husband. Had the
kid. And none of it was really that fulfilling. I mean, you know-
For a time, I was happy. I was happy, but I needed that joy. I needed my joy back. I needed that peace
that passesallunderstanding. I needed that (.) that moment (.) you know. I am saying that when I was
three years old, that 'Church' thing that my mother gave me when I was born into (0.5) I was looking
for [that mmm
O: [where the spirit [hits-
W: [Yes.
O: that everybody has [it
W: [Yes. And I thought it's really gone
O: The thing that happened (.) When we saw you in 1991 and you sang The Star Spangled [Banner-
W: [exactly
O: at the Super Bowl
W: exactly (.) exactly. I thought I had done anything that I was supposed to do, but no (.) there are a lot
more to go
O: <u>So, tell me why you think that you're pretty much done it.</u>
There's a wonderful quote by the L.A. Times. They said, "The pain, and frankly, disgust that so manypop
fans felt during Houston's decline was caused not so much by her personal distress as by her seemingly
careless treatment of the national treasure that happened to reside within her."

An important point to note is that some classes of utterances are conventionally paired so that when the first pair part is produced, the second part become relevant and remains relevant even though it is not produced in the next serial turn. Even though it is argued that the next turn in an adjacency pair sequence is a relevant second pair part, it does not strictly need to be the next turn in the series of turn which makes up some particular conversation. In the English talk show conversation being analyzed, the most common sequence to be found is the question and answer sequence, without any insertion. Meanwhile, the Indonesian talk show contains the same features, but it has relatively longer question-answer sequence.

Coherence is an important factor to look at how participants in a spoken discourse display for one another their understanding of 'what is going on'. This is what underlies the focus of sequences: throughout the course of a

	conversation or other talk-in-interaction, speakers display in their sequentially next turns an understanding of what the prior turn was about. That understanding may turn out to be what the prior speaker intended, or may not be, that itself is something which gets displayed in the next turn in the sequence, which seems to be more like segment of interview though not the structured interview.
Conclusion and Implications	This paper has tried to show how conversational coherence is achieved within talk shows, what strategies used by both host and interviewee to achieve coherence collaboratively. It was shown that in both English and Indonesian talk shows, conversational activity of asking questions can be employed to measure a coherence of a stretch of conversation. Question-answer adjacency pairs can provide the framework through which coherence is achieved, and they have two possibilities to be agreed or disagreed with. This is clear from the English talk show instead of the Indonesian one. The way speakers taking turn and the occurrence of overlap within the sequence of conversation can also determine mutual understanding among the participants. However, the Indonesian talk show offers a longer answer pair compared with the English one. Overlap onset, as another marker of coherence, also occurs a lot in both talk shows. The way speakers (host and interviewee) maintain the topic throughout the talk supports the notion that mutual understanding is successfully achieved. Meanwhile, culture, which is assumed to determine different ways of maintaining the flow of the talk, is considered not too influential. Both talk shows use similar patterns with no significant difference in terms of culture. They differ only in the level of conversational devices used which is related to language use instead of cultural background. This paper of course cannot present a complete picture of conversational coherence since it is limited to two particular talk show episodes and only found one conversational device namely questioning, as a very basic framework in the notion of coherence. Further studies will hopefully provide us with a more complete picture of the variety of strategies interlocutors use for creating topical coherence through the turn-taking system.

5.4 Pragmatics: Speech Acts

The theory of speech acts was first proposed by a philosopher J.L Austin in 1962, which and further developed by Searle in 1981. Austin's book, *How to Do Things with Words*, was published in 1962 after his death. Austin (1962) states that sometimes, when people utter an utterance, it is not always to describe something. Instead, by uttering utterances, they actually do something.

The idea of this theory is that 'words' have meaning. When people produce utterances in communicating with others, they do not only contain grammatical structures and words but also performing actions and intention. Hence, it can be said that speech acts are those acts of making statement or question, giving commands or order, refusing, complimenting, apologizing, and etc. Yule (1996) acknowledges that by performing speech acts, people do not merely say something using the language out of the blue. Instead, they have intention and force behind the utterances they utter and those utterances may affect the behavior of the hearer. There are three categories or dimensions of speech acts. Grundy (2008) explains that when people say something, they may involve the three dimensions, which are locutionary acts, illocutionary acts, and perlocutionary acts.

a. Locutionary acts

Locutionary acts are basic utterances uttered by people shaped in the right grammar and understandable vocabulary. From the examples given by Yule (1996) in his book, it is clear that he tried to say that one of the requirements to meet in performing locutionary acts is that both the speaker and the hearer share the same language; otherwise, there will be misunderstanding or the meaning intended will not be understood by the hearer.

b. Illocutionary acts

Yule (1996) states that the term "illocutionary acts" is often closely associated with the term speech act. When people have communicative force in saying an utterance, it means that they are performing an illocutionary act. For example, saying "put it out" may have a different kind of force behind that. The speaker may say that because he tries to stop a lady smoking in a smoke free area, or he sees a window curtain is on fire. Having intention to say particular utterances contribute to the idea of illocutionary acts.

c. Perlocutionary acts

People (speakers) perform perlocutionary acts by expecting to affect other people's (hearers') behavior. Affecting behavior does not necessarily mean getting the hearer to do physical movements; it also deals with the change of thought or habit of the hearer. This statement is in line with Yule (1996) who pointed out that perlocutionary acts bring the-so-called perlocutionary effect. One of the examples illustrating this situation is when a speaker is feeling sad of being left out, he says "I am useless" to a friend. By hearing the utterance, the hearer is affected and feels sorry. Felling sorry is the effect of the perlocutionary acts of the utterance "I am useless".

Searle (1979) classifies five kinds of speech act, namely commisive, declarative, directive, expressive and assertive.

Table 5.2 Speech acts classification

Speech act type	Direction of fit	S = Speaker; X = Situation
Declarative	Words change the world	S causes X
Assertive	Make words fit the world	S believes X
Expressive	Make words fit the world	S feels X
Directive	Make the world fit words	S wants X
Commissive	Make the world fit words	S intends X

1. Commisive

A commisive allows the speakers to do a certain act in the future. Language is used to contract an obligation on the part of the speaker to act in a certain way in the future such as warning, promising, threatening, guaranteeing, intending, vowing or an offering. Its function is less competitive because it focuses on the interest of the addressee. The speaker of a commissive is attempting to alter the world in some way; commissive thus reflect a world-to-words fit. Unlike directives, however, it is the speaker's (rather than the hearer's) subsequent actions that will alter the world.

e.g : (a) "If you keep screaming, I'll hit you" (Promise)
(b) "Will you come to my birthday?" (Offer)

In (a) the speaker promises to the hearer if the hearer keeps screaming, the speaker will hit her or him. In (b) the speaker asks for offering to the hearer whether the hearer will come to the speaker's birthday or not.

2. Declarative

A declarative is a speech act which changes the state of affairs in the world such as decrees or declarations. The acts include passing sentence, blessing, firing, bidding, and excommunicating. The relationship between the world and a speaker's words is bidirectional; declaratives have a double direction of fit (both words-to-world and world-to-words). For example, during the wedding ceremony or in the court the act of marriage or sentence are performed:

e.g : (a) "Now I pronounce you husband and wife" (Declarative)
(b) "The court decide you guilty" (Declarative)

In (a) the speaker states that he or she pronounce the hearers are a husband and a wife. In (b) the speaker states that the court decides the hearer's guilty. After the utterances are produced, the status of the audience (the world) is changed.

3. Directive

A directive counts as an attempt to get the hearer to perform some future action. Directive is a speech that has the function of getting the listener to do something, such as ordering, suggesting, requesting, challenging, defying or commanding. This act focuses on the speaker's behavior. A speaker is attempting to alter the world in some way with words. Hence, directives represent a world-to-words fit: the speaker is attempting to bring the world in line with words.

e.g :	(a) "Why don't you do the task?"	(Suggestion)
	(b) "May I borrow your pencil?"	(Request)
	(c) "Come here!"	(Command)

In (a) the speaker asks for reason in form of giving suggestion to the hearer why he or she does not do the task. In (b) the speaker asks for request to the hearer whether the speaker may borrow the hearer's pencil or not. In (c) the speaker commands the hearer to come there.

4. Expressive

Expressive counts as an attempt to express a psychological state. An expressive is a speech act in which the speaker expresses feeling and attitudes about something, such as thanking, appreciating, complaining, greeting, apologizing, and congratulating. For expressive, there is no fit between words and the world. Instead, the point of an expressive is simply to express the speaker's inner psychological state or to express a particular attitude that is represented by the propositional content of the utterance.

e.g :	(a) "Thank you!"	(Thank)
	(b) "The food is delicious!"	(Appreciate)

In (a) the speaker thanks to the hearer. In (b) the speaker appreciates the speaker that the food is delicious.

5. Assertive

Assertive counts as an attempt to represent an actual state of affairs, to commit the speaker to something being the case. With assertive a speaker is attempting to depict the nature of the world such as stating of fact, asserting, concluding, informing, predicting, and reporting. Assertive represent a words-to-world fit.

e.g. : (a) “Yamaha is made in Japan” (Information)
“This is a Japanese motorcycle” (Information)

In (a) the speaker gives an information to the hearer that Yamaha is made in Japan. In (b) the speaker also gives an information to the hearer about a Japanese motorcycle.

In Speech acts and second language learning, Schmidt and Richards (1980, p. 156) conclude that speech acts are not comparable across cultures‖ and each culture defined a certain conventionalized norm for interpreting each speech act. From theory above we can conclude that speech act is a sentence or utterance which has both propositional meaning and illocutionary force. To have a brief way of distinguishing what a speaker means by uttering words, sentences, and expressions, on the one hand, and what the words, sentences, and expressions mean.

Example of Research Report on Pragmatics: Speech Acts

Topic	Speech Acts
Source	*International Journal of Education*, 10 (1), 73-81. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.17509/ije.v10i1.6848
Title	A Speech Act Analysis of Teacher Talk in an EFL Classroom
Writers	Sri Meiweni Basra and Luthfiyatun Thoyyibah
Abstract	The inappropriate use of speech act in EFL classroom may lead to misunderstanding due to the distinct cultures between the origin of language and the users. The purposes of the research are to find out speech act classification mostly used by an EFL teacher while teaching, the reason of why certain classification was preferred and the implication of the selected speech act classification toward the teaching and learning process. This research is a case study research involving an English teacher teaching an EFL class. The study uses Searle’s taxonomy of speech act classification as the instrument. The findings of the research show the frequency of each classification found as the following: 70% for directives, 21% for representative, 6% for expressive and 3% for commissive. Directive speech acts are used mostly by the teacher because the teacher adopts the principle of Communicative Language Teaching. The use of directive speech act apparently make implication towards the improvement of the students’

	productive skills. The study concludes that the choice of speech acts classification determines the teaching approach and vice versa. It is recommended for English teachers wishing to help students to achieve communicative competence to use more directive speech acts. **Keywords:** Speech act; directive; representative; expressive; declarative
Introduction	The success in running English teaching and learning process in the classroom depends on various factors, one of which is the language used by the teacher. However, there are problems related to the use of English (as a foreign language) in the classroom. Nuraini (2015) in her research mentioned a problem in the use of speech acts in English classroom. She argued that the use of speech acts in Indonesian EFL class leads to a misunderstanding due to the inappropriate use of the speech acts uttered. Students may have different interpretations of a simple utterance said by the teacher. This is caused by the failure of using IFIDs (Illocutionary Force Indicating Devices) or deciding to use either direct or indirect speech acts in certain situation. This study is aimed at investigating classroom speech acts performed by an English teacher in terms of speech acts classification determined by the theory of John R. Searle (1999). The study hopefully fills the gap of research regarding speech acts classification analysis which has been conducted previously mostly by focusing on the analysis of political speeches.
Method	Since this study is aimed at investigating classroom speech acts performed by an English teacher in terms of speech acts classification determined by the theory of John R. Searle, this study is categorized under the principle of qualitative research design, specifically, a case study. An English teacher participated in this study. She comes from West Java, Indonesia. She is 25 years old. She teaches in a well-known English course in Bandung and has been teaching for about three years. The teacher was chosen for some reasons. First of all, she teaches in the classroom using full English. Second, the exposure of English she has is good enough as the place where she teaches or works regulates people to speak English both for teachers and students. Third, with a score TOEFL of 602, she is able to teach almost all levels of students in the English course. The class was chosen based on the highest average score among all in the English course in the level of B1 in CEFR. Students' ages in that B1 level class are varied, starting from 16 years old to 22 years old. There are three types of data which were collected. First, a full-length video of a teaching and learning process in one meeting. The video is 1 hour, 26 minutes and 34 seconds in length. Second, teacher's interview and the last one is the documents of students' scores.
Results and Discussions	Classification of Speech Acts Used by the Teacher to Students in an EFL Classroom Declarations (0%) The teacher does not use declarative speech act in her teaching. Representatives (21%) Out of 673 utterances, it is found that 141 of them have the characteristics of representative speech acts.

Table 2. Representative Speech Act

Utterance	Representative speech act categories
"yeah, so 4" (actually it means "yes, so there are four questions all together")	Concluding
"This is from Aurora"	Claiming
"I think this is such a hard question"	Assuming
S : "maybe meatball" T : "Oh…meatball, okay"	Concluding/stating
S : "20" T : "20 of February, alright"	Concluding/stating

Expressive (6%)
39 utterances characterized by expressive speech act word clue are found in the data.

Directives (70%)
Directive speech acts dominate the utterance said by the teacher in the teaching process. Among those 673 utterances, 70% of them have directive speech acts word clues.

Table 3. Directive Speech Act

Utterance	Directive speech act categories
"Uhmm... do you know, oh what is that?, other expression rather than saying fine?"	Asking
"So can you please introduce yourself?"	Requesting
"I want you to make two questions about me and also about person sitting next to you"	Commanding
"you can have a sit Lintang"	Inviting
"Tell me, Lintang!"	Ordering

Commissives (3%)
Commissive speech acts are the least mentioned by the teacher while teaching. The teacher only mentioned 19 utterances with commissive essence, which means the percentage is only 3% out of 100%.

Table 4. Commissives Speech Act

Utterance
"Now, we are going to have a conversation, okay"
"I am going to open this one first"
"They'll believe it"
"Okay guys, so we are going to have a break"
"We are going to continue it again after the break."

A Speech Act Analysis of Teacher Talk in an EFL Classroom

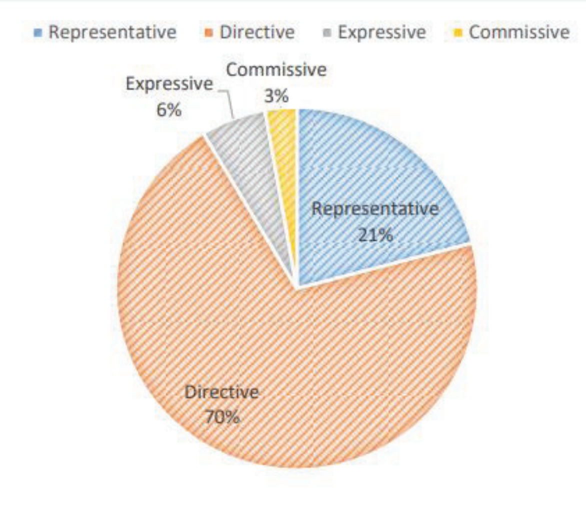


Figure 1. Percentages of Speech Acts Classification

	The Teacher's Reasons of Using Directive Speech Act Dominantly After carrying out teacher interview, it is found that the teacher does not really realize that she mostly used the directive speech acts while teaching. Second, the teacher wants to get students to be actively involved in the classroom activities. what the teacher is trying to do is getting them to talk by giving them chances through setting the classroom activities around the approach of CLT. The video (data) shows that the teacher organizes a class discussion and asks students to talk in pairs. The Implication towards either the Teaching Process or Students' Achievement that Can be Drawn from the Finding Apparently, good communicative competence is the impact or the implication of using directive speech acts in the classroom as pointed out by Arani (2012). The study also reveals the same thing like Arani's that students achieve high scores, especially for two productive skills: speaking and writing. The class consisting of 14 students where the data of this study was taken has the average scores of 80% in speaking and 81% in writing. The scores prove that the use of directive speech act contributes in fostering students' productive skills, which also helps in building students' communicative competence.
Conclusion and Implications	The use of appropriate speech act classification while teaching apparently is based on the teaching approach the teacher adopts. This study aims at investigating speech acts classification of teacher talk in EFL classrooms, the reason of the teacher uses certain speech acts, and the implication that can be drawn from the finding. Based on the findings and discussion, four classifications of speech acts are found from the data (teacher talk). The total of the utterances uttered by the teacher in one meeting of teaching and learning is 673 utterances. Four classifications have different portions, with directive speech acts as the dominant one, taking over 70% of the utterances. The second dominant classification is representative speech act for 21%. The expressive and commissive speech acts have small portions, namely 6% and 3%, respectively. The teacher argued that her reasons of using more directive speech acts are only to get students to talk more and to carry out the principle of Communicative Language Teaching as what she believes. The implication which can be drawn from the finding is that using directive speech acts which involves posing a lot of question, requesting, or commanding contribute to students' achievements, especially in productive skills. It is because by posing a lot of questions students are encouraged to answer the question and keep talking. Therefore, the choice of language and speech acts affects the teaching and learning as well as the teacher and students. The recommendation is addressed for English teachers, especially in Indonesian context. Teaching Indonesian students, a language which is foreign for them is not an easy task. Then, to expose them more to English, the classroom language instruction which is better to be used is English. However, teaching with foreign language instruction can cause trouble and misunderstanding between teacher and students. English teachers should realize soon their belief in teaching English. If the approach believed is CLT, then the speech act classification they need to use daily is directive speech act, which will engage students to talk more.

5.5 Pragmatics: Politeness Strategies

The essence of politeness contrasting human-human communication with human-computer communication. Computers have no feelings or pride even sensitivity; they do not take offense if ordered to do something or if the user yells at it for some perceived misdeed. In the other hand, human do have sensitivities and feelings and might indeed by offended if commanded to do something (negative face is threatened) or if criticized for some failing (positive face is treated). politeness allows people to perform many inter personally sensitive actions in a non-threatening or less threatening manner. Politeness strategy is one of communication strategy which emphasizes the polite words and actions. There are four types of politeness strategy, described by Brown and Levinson (1987), namely bald on-record, negative politeness, positive politeness and off-record. The following Figure 5.1 is representing the circumstance in determining the choice of strategy by Brown and Levinson. It is super-strategies of politeness ordered against estimated risk of face loss.

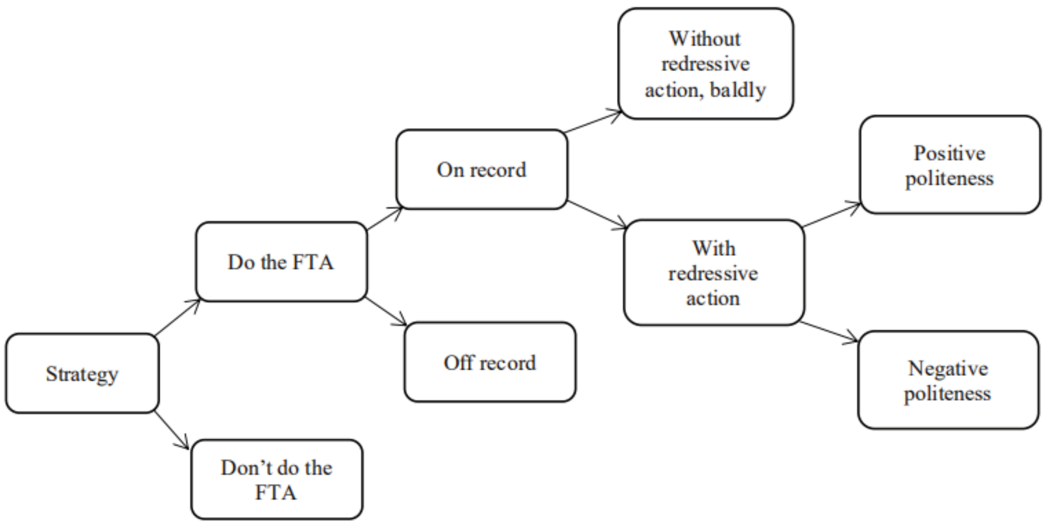


Figure 5.1 Super-strategies of politeness ordered against estimated risk of face loss (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

Figure 5.1 shows the circumstance in determining the choice of strategy. The speaker goes on record in doing the FTA if it is clear to the hearers what communicative lead the speaker to do the FTA. In contrast, if the speaker goes off record in doing the FTA, then there is more than one ambiguously attributable intention so that the speaker cannot be held to have committed himself or herself to one particular intent. Doing an act baldly, without redressive action, involves doing it in the most direct, clear, unambiguous and concise way possible. By redressive action means an action which 'give face' to the hearers, that is, that attempts to counteract the potential face damage of the FTA. Redressive action has two forms; positive politeness and negative politeness. Positive politeness is oriented toward the positive face of the hearer, the positive self-image that he or she claims for himself or herself. Negative politeness, on the other hand, is oriented mainly toward partially satisfying (redressing) the hearer's negative face, his or her basic want to maintain claims of territory and self-determination.

- Bald On-record

Bald On-record strategy is employed as an attempt to minimize the efficiency of speaking. Brown and Levinson (1987) state Bald On-record is used in different situations since speakers can have different motives in doing Face Threatening Acts (FTAs). Face is essentially our self-esteem in social interactions with others. By trying to preserve face (instead of threatening it), we show our solidarity and our respect to our communicative partners. Bald On-record represents adherence to Grice's maxims and hence is maximally efficient communication. For example, to perform a request bald-on-record a speaker would use the imperative, for example "Close the door"; to perform a disagreement would involve a bald assertion, for example "You're completely wrong about this. Further, Brown and Levinson (1987) outline various cases, in which one might use the bald-on-record strategy, including: Instance in which threat minimizing does not occur. This strategy is used by the speaker when maximum efficiency is more important and usually is known by both speaker and the hearer.

- Positive Politeness

Positive politeness strategy provides an attempt to minimize the damage to the hearer's face. They are used to make the hearer feel good about himself and his possessions. This strategy commonly used in situations where the speaker and the hearer know each other fairly well. There are fifteen strategies are addressed to positive face and thus examples of positive politeness (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

- Negative Politeness

Negative politeness is on-record – recognition of the act performed is presumed to occur without an inference process. Negative politeness strategy is oriented towards the hearer's negative face. Negative politeness strategy ("showing respect"): an FTA is avoided by appealing to the hearer's negative face. This strategy presume that the speaker will be imposing on the listener. There are ten sub strategies according to Brown & Levinson (1987).

- Off-record

Off-record is a FTAs (Face Threatening Acts) is avoided by not (literally) making a request at all but an indirect statement that must be inferred to be a request by the hearer. Off record is likely to call as indirect strategy. Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 211) said that off-record or indirect strategy is done to let the speakers attribute unclear communication intention. It indicates that if the speakers want to avoid their responsibility of doing FTAs, they can employ the strategy and let the addressees interpret and the intended message. For instance, "that door is not open" which mean the speaker wants the addressee to open the door. There are fifteen strategies of Off Record (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

Example of Research Report on Pragmatics: Politeness Strategies

Topic	Politeness strategies
Source	*Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 8, 597-606. doi: 10.17509/ijal.v8i3.15258
Title	The use of politeness strategies in the classroom context by English university students
Writer	Murni Mahmud
Abstract	Politeness still becomes a major concern in English language teaching. It is considered as one way to maintain effective classroom interaction. Therefore, as one of the important actors in the class, teachers, and students need to practice politeness as a way to create effective classroom interaction. This study aims to explore the politeness strategies of English students at one of the universities in Makassar. The researcher applied a descriptive qualitative research method to explore the politeness phenomena in EFL classroom interaction. The participants of this research were two classes of English literature program consisting of 50 students. The primary sources of data were the individual student presentations which had been recorded. There were fifty transcriptions of the recording which lasted for five to seven minutes for each presentation. The transcriptions were analyzed and discussed based on the theory of politeness of Brown and Levinson (1987). The findings from this study revealed that English students used different kinds of expressions to encode their politeness in the class. Those expressions were in the forms of greetings, thanking, addressing terms,

	apologizing, and fillers. There were also some terms derived from students' vernacular language which were used as a softening mechanism for their presentation. These expressions were categorized as positive and negative politeness. The findings of this study might be used as an input for teachers and students in an effort to create effective classroom interaction. **Keywords:** Classroom interaction; English language teaching; politeness; politeness strategies
Introduction	The success of English language teaching is still a major issue in educational system in the world. The need to achieve good English proficiency, therefore, becomes a high priority. However, in some countries, studies proved that there are still many problems encountered in the English language teaching process. One of the efforts is to create effective and efficient classroom interaction. Studies had found the significant functions of classroom interaction as a strategy to achieve better English language teaching process in Indonesian EFL classroom interaction (Rido, Ibrahim, & Nambiar, 2015; Setiawati, 2012; Sofyan & Mahmud, 2014). These studies show that successful classroom interaction could affect the success of the English language teaching process as a whole. To create effective classroom interaction, teachers and students will rely much on their communication. Teachers and students in the class will use languages to communicate both in verbal and non-verbal ways. Therefore, they need to apply effective communication strategies in order to transfer their ideas clearly. Effective communication is not only intended to transfer messages successfully, but also to create comfortable communication among the interlocutors, which can create solidarity and intimacy. This effective communication can be achieved by applying politeness strategies. In Indonesia, studies on politeness in classroom interaction had also attracted the attentions of some scholars. Senowarsito (2013) had looked at politeness in EFL teachers and students' interaction but did not particularly focus deeply on the interactions among the English students themselves. A study by Syahri (2013) on politeness just focused on learners' request as one way to express politeness but did not specifically explore the potential strategies employed by the students in the class. In addition, Mahmud (2018) had explored the English students' perspectives on politeness; however, the focus was not on the strategies of politeness. It focused only on the English students' perception of how to be polite in the class. Politeness studies which explore deeply about the English students' strategies are still limited and therefore, need to be further explored. Referring to these phenomena, politeness strategies in the class, especially by English students in English language teaching are still important issues to be explored. Still very few studies are focused on the English students' strategies in expressing politeness, especially in universities. The context of studying politeness proposed in this study brings new phenomena of politeness research. The context of communication, classroom presentations among English university students, becomes a potential area to observe politeness strategies and therefore, brings significant findings in the politeness research, especially politeness studies in EFL classroom interaction. This study then focuses on the use of politeness strategies by English university students in the classroom context. The findings of this study are expected to contribute to the study of politeness pragmatics in EFL

classroom interactions. It might also serve as beneficial inputs for practitioners of classroom interaction especially English teachers and students in order to create effective EFL classroom interaction.

Method

This study applied a descriptive qualitative design. It is "the collection, analysis, and interpretation of comprehensive narrative and visual data in order to gain insights into a particular phenomenon of interest" (Gay, Mills, & Airasian, 2006, p. 399). As a descriptive qualitative research design, this study was intended to collect, analyze, and interpret several data which were related to one particular phenomenon, that is politeness strategies by the students in the classroom interaction.

This research was conducted at the undergraduate program at one public university in Makassar, Indonesia in 2015. The participants were 50 students which were selected purposively. They were students English Literature program and took Anthropolinguistic course where students were assigned to give a presentation on one anthropolinguistic case. The presentations were recorded by the students themselves using mobile phones. They lasted for 5-10 minutes for each student. The classroom interactions where politeness can be observed were analyzed.

The data analysis is based on the framework of discourse analysis which relies on data recording, data transcription, data selection, and data interpretation. Discourse analysis is "the study of language-in-use; the study of language at use in the world, not just to say things, but to do things" (Gee, 2011, p. 9). For this study, analysis relied on 50 transcriptions from 50 students (each account for 3-4 pages). Since the transcriptions were long and plenty, the data were then selected based on the purposes of the present study, with the content based. The data were then interpreted and analyzed in the forms of conversation extracts. In the extracts, relevant data were identified, discussed, and analyzed to explore the students' politeness strategies based on the framework of politeness strategies by Brown and Levinson (1987).

Results and Discussions

This part provides the politeness expressions used by the students in their presentation. The strategies can be seen in the forms of greetings, thanks, address terms, apologies, fillers, and vernacular language (see table 1). The detail analysis is then explained.

Table 1: Politeness Strategies of the Students

Features	Expressions	Frequencies of Utterances
Greetings	*Asssalamu' Alaikum Warahmatullahi Wabarakatu.*	80
	Wa'alaikumsalam Warahmatullahi Wabarakatu	77
	Good morning	11
	How are you today?	4
	Bismillahirrahmanirrahim	6
Thanks	Thank you	108
Address Terms	*Saudari/Saudari*	5
	Names	146
	Pronoun	21
	Ma'am	23
	Kak	6
Apologies	Excuse me?	7
	I am so sorry	5
	Tabe'	6
Fillers	Well	79
	I mean	11
	aaa	130
	yeah	16
	hmm	120
	ee	280
	so	189
	As we know	9
Vernacular Language	*di'*	7
	mi	11

Conclusion and Implications	It can be concluded that several strategies of politeness of Brown and Levinson (1987) were used by the English students in their presentation both positive politeness and negative politeness. This finding shows that the idea of politeness (Brown & Levinson, 1987) is applicable in Indonesian EFL classroom context, especially in Makassar. The findings from this study also show that a cross-cultural context study of politeness is required in order to examine the cultural influence in practicing politeness in the class. Practices of politeness by English university students in Makassar are proved to be influenced by religious and cultural aspects of the interlocutors. Findings from this study have contributed significantly to the process of English language teaching in universities in Makassar. The findings can also become input to other universities in Indonesia, especially for practitioners of the EFL classroom interaction (e.g. teachers and students) about how they should behave in the classroom in order to reach effective ways of interaction in the English language teaching. The findings of this study are also expected to contribute to the literature of politeness research in classroom context in particular and in Asian context, in general. However, further studies need to be conducted in terms of politeness practices of teachers and students which are influenced by factors such as age and gender, especially through the language choices they will use to communicate.

5.6 Appraisal analysis

Developed by Martin and White (Martin, 2000; Martin & White, 2005), appraisal, or appraisal theory, is concerned with the ways we express our views and react to the views of others. It can be identified at the level of the word or group. There are three systems in appraisal: graduation, attitude and engagement.

- Graduation

Graduation is concerned with grading and scaling of the interpersonal force attaching to utterances. There are two subsystems: force, which is to do with intensity of interpersonal force (slightly, somewhat, very, completely); and focus, which concerns the precision of our interpersonal focus (I kind of like this, this is the genuine article).

- Attitude

Attitude is to do with how speakers and writers express their attitude towards people and phenomena. It has three subsystems: affect, which refers to emotional attitude (I love/hate you); judgement, which refers to evaluation of behavior (She played very well/badly); and appreciation, which relates to the evaluation of objects and products in terms of their aesthetic or other value (He played a beautiful shot; That’s a really dangerous place.

- Engagement

Engagement is how we express our commitment to what is stated in what we say or write. It has four subsystems: disclaiming, in which we distance ourselves from what has been said or written (It is said that; I deny that); proclamation, where we assert that something is true (It is true that; I must say that); acknowledgement, where we acknowledge a range of possibilities (It is possible that; It seems that); and attribution, through which we report something that has been said or written (Scientists have discovered that; According to Smith (2010).

Example of Research Report on Appraisal Analysis

Topic	Appraisal Analysis
Source	*Functional Linguistics*, 2014, 1:12. http://www.functionallinguistics.com/content/1/1/12
Title	Supporting new arrival students' engagement with picture books: analysis of teacher talk using the appraisal theory
Writer	Celine PY Chu
Abstract	For a considerable number of migrant and refugee children, their first experience of reading in a second language, and for some even their first encounter with printed materials, is in a new arrival's classroom. This paper looks at teacher talk with new arrival students as they were introduced to reading practices in a classroom. I attempt to use the Appraisal theory to investigate one teacher's talk, particularly on how she engages the students in reading and talking about children's picture books. Data for this study were obtained from a new arrival's classroom consisting of Year 6 and 7 students. Using a functional analysis provided by the Engagement system of the Appraisal theory, this paper aims to uncover some of the ways in which the teacher makes use of the verbal and visual resources in children's picture books to promote engagement with the texts. It is found that teacher talk plays a crucial role in supporting new arrival students' participation in practices associated with reading and talking about picture book texts. The analysis provides insights into how a teacher supports students with varying backgrounds of literacy experiences to engage with children's picture books. **Keywords:** Classroom discourse analysis; Teaching reading; New arrival students; Appraisal theory
Introduction	Over the year's individuals from communities around the world have entered Australia as migrants and refugees for different reasons. Some groups have been assisted to Australia from refugee camps, for example those from Sub-Sahara Africa and Afghanistan. One outcome of developments such as this is that the previous education experience of new arrival children may have been severely interrupted or in some cases, there may have been no previous education experience. This is commonly a result of the 'refugee experience' where there may not have been adequate and on-

going access to school due to war and displacement, the lack of resources for the children to attend schools, or the children were simply not well enough to attend schools due to sickness caused by the harsh conditions in refugee camps (DEECD Department of Education and Early Childhood Development 2008: 8–9). Due to the vulnerability of new arrival students as a result of these prior experiences, more care and attention are needed to support them when they attend schools in Australia. For the majority of new arrivals, being at a school also means they are learning to read and write for the first time.

Martin and Rose (2005) argue that school success depends largely on the student's ability to read independently with understanding. Rose (2007) presents a model of reading development explicating the two-way system underlying school reading practices (Figure 1). At the same time that proposed pedagogic aims are executed to prepare students in achieving reading development at different levels of schooling, it is also evaluating the students by way of assessing whether they are able to perform the type of reading skills anticipated in the preceding stages. It is advocated in this model and elsewhere that young children should ideally begin to engage in the process of reading at home with their parents and caregivers before starting school (Martin and Rose 2005; Rose 2004, 2007). This model of reading development brings to light potential challenges for new arrival students learning to read in the classroom. For a considerable number of new arrival students such as in this study, the new arrivals classroom is where they will experience reading texts in the English language for the first time. In some cases, it may even be their first encounter with printed materials. Therefore, the majority of students may not have possessed the reading skills that are required of students at their level of study, which is supposedly the ability to read independently as indicated in Figure 1. In fact, using the reading sequence model as a measure, for many new arrival students their reading level may well be equivalent to that indicated in the first stage or 'before school – learning to engage with reading'. Therefore, developing reading skills in such a context is complex as reading instruction has to be targeted at providing students with opportunities to simultaneously learn to engage with reading, to learn to read independently, as well as to learn from reading. Familiarity with these skills is important for new arrival students so that they do not continue to be disadvantaged even in classrooms supposedly targeted for their learning.

Although much has been written about first and second language learning in relation to reading development, yet not as much has been said for the teaching of reading in a new arrival's classroom. Studies on reading development have primarily been concerned with whole language or top down (e.g. Goodman 1967; Smith 1971, 1983, 1994) and phonics or bottom up models (e.g. Gough 1972). Yet the phenomenon surrounding new arrival students deserves close attention beyond the identification of suitable reading models, to a need for an informed understanding of how teachers are working with students in classrooms. Some examples of studies as such have been previously undertaken on teacher talk in Science classrooms (Thwaite 2014; Thorne and Gericke 2014) and in other subject-specific classrooms, but little has been said on teacher talk with new arrival students in a book reading context. This paper attempts to make a contribution to this focus.

This paper presents an investigation of teacher talk as one teacher reads and talks about children's picture books with new arrival students. A systemic functional analysis drawing on the Engagement system of the

	Appraisal theory will be used in this study in the attempt to uncover from teacher talk, how the teacher makes use of the visual and verbal resources in picture books to engage students in reading practices. This study aims also to verify the efficacy of the Engagement system towards the analysis of teacher talk as this analytical tool has not been previously employed for such a purpose.
Method	Data for this study were obtained from a new arrival's classroom at a public primary school situated in the western suburbs of Adelaide, South Australia for the author's PhD study entitled 'Picture book reading in a new arrival context: A multimodal perspective on teaching reading'. The project had been approved by the University of Adelaide and the South Australian Department for Education and Child Development. The main objective of the new arrival's curriculum is to provide English language support to newly-arrived students which then allows them to join a mainstream class in the same school or in other schools. The teacher observed in this study is a native English-speaker with thirty-five years teaching experience. Her educational qualifications include a Diploma of Teaching, Bachelor of Special Education, Master of Educational Psychology and Master by Research in Applied Linguistics. The student cohort consisted of nineteen students, ten female and nine male students. Of these nineteen students, sixteen were Year 7 and three were Year 6 students. The majority of the students were from Africa, mostly from the Sub-Saharan region, while the others were from Middle-Eastern and Asian backgrounds. The interactions that took place during the reading of picture books were audio recorded. Observations of lessons were undertaken five hours per week over a period of nine months in 2008. This paper draws on three one-hour lessons, with each focusing on a different picture book. These lessons were selected for analysis as they had an obvious emphasis on developing students' reading ability, as implicated in the large amount of reading and talking about picture books. In these sessions, the students were often divided into two groups. The first group of students comprised two subsets. The first were students who newly enrolled in the new arrivals program and had little or no literacy background due to a lack of prior schooling experiences. The second were those who, having been in the new arrivals program for a number of months, were still struggling with their reading and writing abilities. While this paper aims primarily at identifying the roles of teacher talk during picture book reading with new arrival students, it is necessary in some instances to comment on teacher talk with groups of differing literacy abilities as the teacher adopted different strategies with these students. For this reason, I shall label the group consisting of newly enrolled new arrivals as 'beginning students', and the second group consisting of those who had prior schooling and were able to read, write and interact with much less guidance is labelled as 'competent students'.
Results and Discussions	This section presents the various roles of teacher talk around picture books that had surfaced from the analysis of Engagement meanings. **In instructing 'beginning' and 'competent' students** In Table 1 below, the teacher instructs the 'beginning students' to read the start of *The Earth and the Moon:*

Table 1 Teacher talk that directs student focus

Interactant*	Message	Transcript
T	94	Open the book
	95	and **let's have a look at the beginning** of the story
S9	96	Can I read it?
T	97	Look we'll have to all take a chance
	98	Some of us will read together
	99	**Alright S8 read**

(*Please note that in the transcripts T = Teacher and S = Student.)

By directing students to the written words at the beginning of the text, the teacher fends off or restricts alternative positions other than that proposed by the teacher, such as the naming of objects from an image or discussing grammatical elements. However, this contrasts with the talk with the 'competent students' as the teacher brings their attention to Australia's Changing Voice, as in Table 2 below:

Table 2 Teacher talk that encourages student expressions

Interactant	Message	Transcript
T	1168	In this book **I think** we have got a little bit of
	1169	If you look in this book
	1170	go to this page in the middle (holds book up)
	1171	One kind of Aboriginal language
	1172	have a look at that for the moment
	1173	Read with your partner
	1174	read some of those words
(Students read with their partners)		
	1175	Listen for just a moment
	1176	**I'm interested in what S3 has discovered**
	1177	**Tell them what you found out**

In lending support to writer voice

Teacher talk during the reading lessons often emphasizes the pattern of object-identification built into the text by the picture book writer, as for example in the extract in Table 3:

Table 3 Teacher talk that mediates between text and students

Interactant	Message	Transcript
T	114	Are there mountains on the Moon?
SS	115	Yes
T	116	Can you see them in that picture?
SS	117	Yes…no…yes
T	118	Then where are the mountains in that picture?
	119	You need to show them
	120	There are mountains here

Teacher voice here encodes the Engagement meaning [disclaim], or to be more specific [counter], in its role to support the intention of writer voice in the picture book. Instead of directly rejecting the student responses, teacher voice replaces it with a proposition to encourage reference to the image and to locate the object as implicated in the connective Then (message 118), followed by her countering proposition where are the mountains in that picture? The role of teacher voice here is significant as the mediator between the text and the students, aligning them to the pattern of object identification intended by the writer. Later in the classroom transcript, it is evident that the students have picked up the question-answer structure as demonstrated in the extract in Table 4:

Table 4 Students gaining familiarity with question-answer structure

Interactant	Message	Transcript
S7	229	*Are there footprints on the Moon?*
T	230	*Are there footprints on the Moon?*
SS	231	Yes
T	232	Can you see any?
SS	233	Yes
T	234	Yes we can
	235	My gosh I wonder who went up there

In supplementing verbal text

Apart from lending support to the writer voice, the teacher encourages student attention to the visual images in the picture book in order to supplement the interpretation of the story from the verbal text. A student's attempt to recount the story with little specificity in terms of differentiating between the characters is demonstrated in this example in Table 5:

Table 5 Student recount of narrative

Interactant	Message	Transcript
S13	433	The man going round the country
	434	the man…the man steal the sheep
	435	and the the the man see the man
	436	and the man jump in the water

The student's brief recount of the story does not differentiate the man as 'the swagman' or 'the squatter', which are the two male characters in the story. The teacher is seen to guide the students for the second time through the unfolding of the narrative, within which she focuses on identifying the characters and their individual roles in the story, as seen in Table 6:

Table 6 Teacher talk that promotes association between text and images

Interactant	Message	Transcript
T	447	He wanted the sheep for his food
	448	but the man who owns the sheep came along
	449	and said no you can't take my sheep
	450	I'm going to call the policemen
	451	because you are stealing my sheep
	452	and you're not allowed to steal my sheep
	453	it's against the law
	454	I won't let you steal my sheep
	455	The man is called the squatter
	456	He has lots of sheep
	457	he owns lots of sheep
	458	but he said no the swagman can't take my sheep
	(Messages 460 – 470 omitted)	
	471	So can you see the farmer?
SS	472	Yeah
T	473	Squatter
SS	474	Yeah
T	475	Can you see the policemen?
SS	476	Yeah
T	477	Now in the song they're called another name
	478	who is in here
	(Messages 479 – 483 omitted)	
	484	[[*Up came the troopers*]]
SS	485	[[*Up came the troopers*]]
T	486	The policemen are called the troopers

	In identifying specific language or grammatical elements The type of interaction, of discussing language or grammatical elements, as presented in Table 7 is most frequently observed in this study: Teacher voice interposes in the interaction (message 259) to bring the students' attention to the recognition of the statement-question structure, which is utilized by the writer voice to draw on the reader's participation in the intended activity. The interaction centers on the identification of punctuation, i.e. question mark. The teacher's position in relation to the value of the picture book materials is clear as the Engagement meanings are examined in her talk. When highlighting the language structures or items in the picture books (messages 263–266), she construes these resources as correct, valid and undeniable, thereby fulfilling the Engagement meaning of [endorse]. In other words, the use of the language items in the texts is not set up by the teacher to be challenged or debated upon in the discussion. Rather, the particular language items serve as correct or ideal instances of usage as indicated in the teacher's evaluation of the verbal text So that's a good way to begin a question… (message 265). In other words, she uses the picture book texts to demonstrate appropriate usage of grammatical elements and guides the students towards recognizing the language patterns.
Conclusion and Implications	This paper has attempted to use the Engagement system of the Appraisal theory to examine teacher talk. The primary advantage that has surfaced from the use of the Appraisal theory for this analysis is in its capacity to trace teacher talk for its expressions of feelings or attitudes, thereby revealing the teacher's intentions at particular points of her talk with the students. The analytical tool, afforded by the Engagement system, has been useful for the analysis of teacher talk in this study as it had allowed for a linguistic description of the teacher's approach to inducting new arrival students to ways of engaging with reading and talking about picture book texts. Discussion of the analysis uncovers the teacher's stance and the alignment or disalignment of students to the stance identified in the picture book texts, as well as the teacher's self-positioning in relation to the students', the writer's and the illustrator's voices that were all a part of the classroom interaction around children's picture books. More studies are needed, especially in different contexts, in order to generalize the use of the Engagement system on teacher talk

Conclusion

Just as written texts are more than a collection of random sentences, so too are spoken texts more than a collection of random utterances. While many of the distinctive features of spoken language derive from its spontaneous and collaborative construction, this should not be allowed to mask the fact that speakers are as intent on achieving coherence as are writers. Even 'text' so apparently formless and purposeless as casual conversation has shape, structure and sense. Moreover, its sense is co-constructed, each speaker build.mg on what other speakers have said and always keeping the other speakers 'in mind'. The mechanisms which give talk its structure, such as turn-taking, openings and closings, adjacency pairs and macro-structures, and the requirement to make contributions relevant, are common to all cultures and languages, so probably do not to be taught again 'from scratch'.

Discussion Questions

- Study the following conversation and decide which are coherence and which are random conversation. In the process, try and identify the basis for your decisions.

  (5a)
  Alfa : That's the telephone.
  Baron : I'm in the bath.
  Alfa : Ok

  (5b)
  Alfa : What's this?
  Baron : That? It's a watch. Why?
  Alfa : Funny looking one if you ask me

  (5c)
  Alfa : How much was it?
  Baron : Oh, you don't really want to know, do you?
  Alfa : Oh, tell me.
  Baron : Wasn't cheap.
  Alfa : Was it a pound?
  Baron : Pound sixty

In creating a meaningful context and identifying the functions of each utterance, coherence is established. How can you explain coherence in the case of conversation 5a, 5b, and 5c? You can restore if you can find the missing bits of conversation which would make it coherent as well as cohesive.

- Study the following conversation. How many different functions can you identify for this conversation? You can create a context for each of these.

  (5d)
  Kate : There's no answer at the front door. Shall I try the back?
  Charles : I shouldn't, if I were you. There's a Rhodesian ridge-back in the garden.

  (5e)
  Liz : Do you like Jazz, Tom?
  Tom : No, I don't like it very much. Do you?
  Liz : It's OK. What kind of music do you like?

Tom	: Well, I like rock a lot.
Liz	: U2. How about you? Do you like them?
Tom	: No. I don't. I can't stand them.

(5f)

Dave	: There's a jazz concert at the Blue Note on Friday. Would you like to go?
Joan	: Yeah, that sounds good! What time is the concert?
Dave	: It's at 10 o'clock.
Joan	: Great! Let's go.

Further Readings

Basra, S.M., & Thoyyibah, L. (2017). A speech act analysis of teacher talk in an EFL classroom. *International Journal of Education*, 10 (1), 73-81.

Brown, P., & Levinson, S.C. (1987). *Politeness: Some universal of language usage.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Chu, C.P.Y. (2014). Supporting new arrival students' engagement with picture books: analysis of teacher talk using the appraisal theory. *Functional Linguistics*. 1:12. http://www.functionallinguistics.com/content/1/1/12.

Cornish, F. (2006). Understanding spoken discourse. *Encyclopedia of Language and Linguistics* (2nd ed.), 13, 227-230.

Nasir, C., Yusuf, Y.Q., & Wardana, A. (2019). A qualitative study of teacher talk in an EFL classroom interaction in Aceh Tengah, Indonesia. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 8, 525-535.

Levinson, S. (1983). *Pragmatics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Mahmud, M. (2018). The use of politeness strategies in the classroom context by English university students. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 8, 597-606.

Manipuspika, Y.S. (2014). Accomplishing coherence in talk shows: A comparison between English and Indonesian. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistic*s, Vol. 3 No.2, 154-168.

Paramesvaran, M.D., & Lim, J.W. (2018). Code-switching practices in a Malaysian multilingual primary classroom from teacher and student perspectives. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 8, 254-264.

Thornbury, S. (2005). *Beyond the sentence*. Oxford: Macmillan Publishers Limited.

Helpful Websites

http://www.alvinleong.info/sfg/sfgappraisal.html
http://www.grammatics.com/appraisal/
https://www.linguisticsociety.org/resource/discourse-analysis-what-speakers-do-conversation
https://www.ukessays.com/essays/english-language/spoken-discourse.php

https://www.sas.upenn.edu/~haroldfs/edling/handouts/speechacts/spchax2.html

https://warwick.ac.uk/fac/soc/al/repository/staff/richardskeith/se3lecturenotesrichards_k/

https://www.universalclass.com/articles/business/communication-studies/politeness-theory.htm

https://www.uwb.edu/wacc/what-we-do/eslhandbook/coherence

https://www.myenglishpages.com/blog/classroom-interaction/

References

Austin, J.L. (1962). *How to do things with words.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Brown, H.D. (2001). *Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy* (2nd ed.). New York: Addison Wesley Longman, Inc.

Bryam, M., & Hu, A. (eds.). (2013). *Routledge encyclopedia of language teaching and learning*. New York: Routledge.

Chaudron, C. (1998). *Second language classrooms*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Ellis, R. (1984). *Classroom second language development: A study of classroom interaction and language acquisition.* Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Grundy, P. (2008). *Doing pragmatics* (3rd ed.). London: Hodder Education.

Richards, J.C., & Lockhart, C. (2007). *Reflective teaching in second language classrooms.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Rivers, W.M. (1987). *Interactive language teaching: Interactions as the key to teaching language for communication*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Searle, J.R. (1976). A Classification of Illocutionary Acts. *Language in Society*, 5 (1), 1-23.

Tracy, K. (2002). *Everyday talk: Building and reflecting identities*. New York, N.Y.: Guilford Press.

Yule, G. (1996). *Pragmatics*. Oxford: OUP.

CHAPTER 6

Critical Discourse Analysis

Critical discourse analysis explores the connections between the use of language and the social and political contexts in which it occurs. It explores issues such as gender, ethnicity, cultural difference, ideology and identity and how these are both constructed and reflected in texts. It also investigates ways in which language constructs and is constructed by social relationships. A critical analysis may include a detailed textual analysis and move from there to an explanation and interpretation of the analysis. It might proceed from there to deconstruct and challenge the text(s) being examined. This may include tracing underlying ideologies from the linguistic features of a text, unpacking particular biases and ideological presuppositions underlying the text, and relating the text to other texts and to people's experiences and beliefs.

At the end of this chapter, the students are able to:

- Define critical discourse analysis
- Describe principles for critical discourse analysis

Chapter 6 covers the definitions of critical discourse analysis and principles for discourse analysis.

6.1 The Definitions of Critical Discourse Analysis

Critical discourse analysis (CDA) is actually the branch of DA. The term CDA occurs based on Foucault's idea on power. Teun Van Dijk and Norman Fairclough are regarded as the most influential experts in providing the framework in CDA study. CDA is developed as there is a development in humanity science and applied linguistics. It views the language as a powerful means in which specific ideologies, identities, and culture become dominant society. The experts argue that the language used by speaker shows reflects the speaker's intention, ideology and thought.

Critical discourse analysis starts with the assumption that language use is always social and that discourse both 'reflects and constructs the social world' (Rogers, 2011). A critical analysis might explore issues such as gender, ideology and identity and how these are reflected in particular texts. This might commence with an analysis of the use of discourse and move from there to an explanation and interpretation of the discourse. From here, the analysis might proceed to deconstruct and challenge the texts, tracing ideologies and assumptions underlying the use of discourse, and relating these to different views of the world, experiences and beliefs.

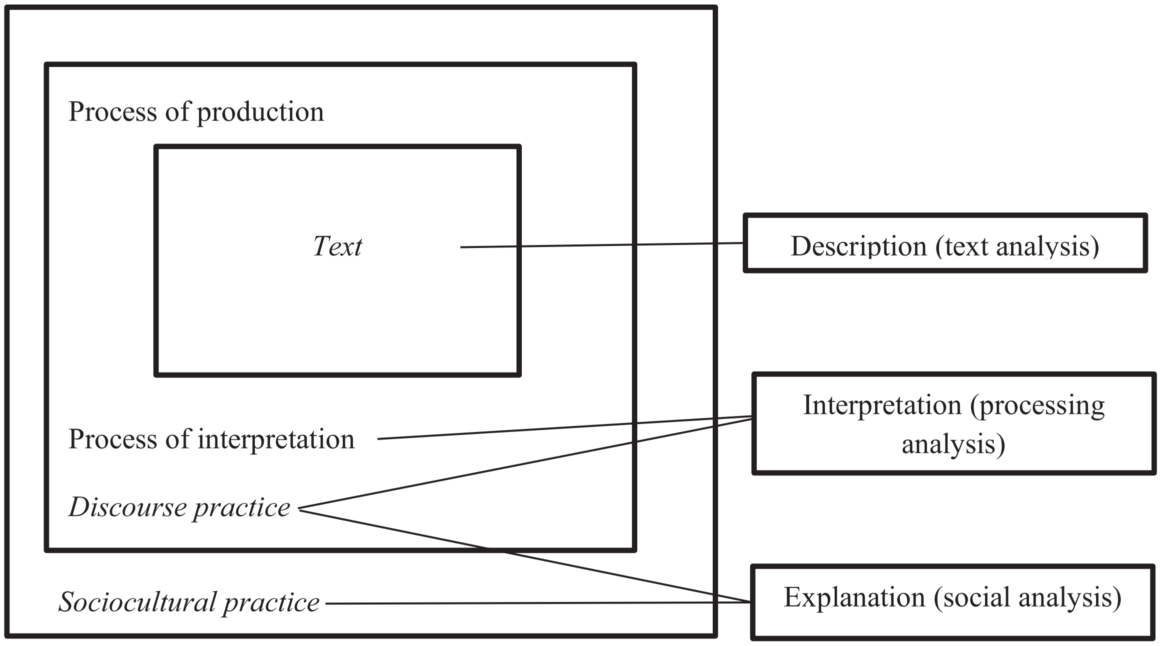
6.2 Principles for Critical Discourse Analysis

There is no single view of what critical discourse analysis actually is, so it is difficult to present a complete, unified view on this. Fairclough and Wodak (1997), however, describe a number of principles for critical discourse analysis which underlie many of the studies done in this area. These include:

- social and political issues are constructed and reflected in discourse;
- power relations are negotiated and performed through discourse;
- discourse both reflects and reproduces social relations;
- ideologies are produced and reflected in the use of discourse.

Three dimensions of text is a CDA method developed by Norman Fairclough. He explains how his notion on three dimensions of text can reveal the sociocultural practice within the text itself. The three dimensions of text proposed by Fairclough are description, interpretation and explanation. Description is usually regarded as the micro analysis in CDA since in this part the focus of analysis is on how the text is produced; how the use of certain word is meaningful in term of showing the intended text structure showed to the reader. In interpretation, the analysis is aimed to reveal the text genre and what discourse or power used. The last dimension is explanation. Explanation allows the further analysis. The analysis does not only focus on the text, the language used and the genre, but also the sociocultural practice embedded in the text (Fairclough, 1995).

Figure 6.1 Three dimensions of text in critical discourse analysis



The text is characterized by a configuration of heterogeneous and contradictory properties. Faircloiugh (1995) explains the meaning of heterogeneous and contradictory properties is how the fact presented is in contrast with their manner of occurrence. Further, Fairclough (2004) states language which is used in the text carries a potential, possibility and other in such a way to show the combination of linguistics elements. However, a text is not a simply a combination of linguistics elements, a text carries the network of social practices as well. He calls these social practices as orders of discourse. So, in this abstract structure, the language can be analyzed using functional theory proposed by Halliday; later so-called systemic functional grammar.

The discourse production can reflect the context in which discourse is built. Fairclough (1995) explains the nature of the discourse production process can refer to the wider context which us the sociocultural practice within which it is occurred. In this dimension, the analysis is aimed to interpret text. The interpretation aims to find out the other text or context that is embedded to the text. The other embedded text is called intertextuality. Further, Fairclough (2003) mentions in order to find intertextuality, the process of making assumption and presupposition is inevitable. In intertextuality, assumptions connect one text to another text, to the world of text.

After interpreting the text through intertextuality, the sociocultural context of the text can be revealed as well. We must bear in mind that discourse figures part of the action, meaning to say discourse is always a part of social practices; as a representation of the material world. Based on Fairclough (2003), the term discourse here has two senses. The first sense is abstractly sense; discourse as an abstract noun, language as element of social life. The second sense is discourse has more concrete meaning, as a count noun; the meaning of the language represents part of the world.

To sum up, as Fairclough says, language is a material form of ideology and language is invested by ideology. Discourse is shaped by structure and discourse contributes in shaping and reshaping the structure as well. Fairclough sees discourse as a complex of three elements: social practice, discoursal practice and text. In order to reveal the ideology, the text must be produced or interpreted in those three elements.

Example of Research Report on Critical Discourse Analysis

Topic	Critical Discourse Analysis
Source	*Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, Vol. 6 No. 2, January 2017, pp. 311-318 doi: dx.doi.org/10.17509/ijal.v6i2.4916
Title	Negotiating Social Identity Through Questions in Casual Conversations: A Critical Discourse Analysis
Writer	Zulfa Sakhiyya
Abstract	Questioning is a potential means to establish identity in social interaction, and thus it helps position oneself in relation to others. However, this relationship between question and social identity remains relatively under-explored in the theoretical territory (Kao & Weng, 2012; Tracy & Naughton, 1994). This paper contributes to this area of inquiry by employing critical discourse analysis in investigating the construction and negotiation of social identity through questions. Data are drawn from four sets of casual conversations I conducted with two native and two non-native speakers of English. Two stages of analysis are carried out. Firstly, I present and distribute the questioning patterns that emerge from the conversation.

	Secondly, I analyze the questioning process and its relation to the negotiation of social identity. Findings and discussion reveal that social identity is multiple: as a site of struggle and subject to change. The negotiation of identity through questions is evident from the emerging patterns of the length of interrogative form, repetitive questions, and the intensity of social control. **Keywords:** question; social identity; critical discourse analysis; casual conversation
Introduction	When I meet someone new, how do I relate myself to them? Do I converse the same way? How do I establish myself in relation to others? How do I negotiate my place in a new social order? Questions such as these prompted the impetus of this article to explore the ways I relate myself with others or the ways I establish my identity in casual conversation. In addition, this article demonstrates the value of adopting critical discourse analysis (CDA) to study social identity. Social identity matters because it is the awareness of identifying and positioning oneself in relation to others, only then an interaction occurs (McCarthey & Birr Moje, 2002). Particularly as a language learner, social identity is the struggle of negotiating 'a sense of self within and across different sites at different points in time' mediated by language, which in turn contributes to enable or inhibit the language learning (Norton, 1995: 13). Although there are many observable language features generated in a casual conversation, such as speech acts, intonation, discourse markers, and turn taking; this article focuses on the question (which I posed during the conversations). In attempt to answer the questions, this section would briefly map the terrain of the three concepts driving this article, i.e. casual conversation as a discourse, social identity and questions.
Method	This is a critical discourse analysis (CDA) on four casual conversations I carried out in April and May 2012. Although the analysis is on my own linguistic behavior, four participants were involved in four separate conversations, i.e. a male non-native (NN), a female NN, a male native speaker (NS), and a female NS of English. To keep the confidentiality of participants, the names of participants are symbolized by NN1, NN2, NS1, and NS2. The first participant, NN1, is a male non-native speaker of English from Vietnam. He has been in Australia for almost one year and currently majoring Accounting at La Trobe University. While studying, NN1 was playing soccer for the university league. The second participant, NN2, is a female non-native speaker of English from Chinese. She has been in Australia for almost three years to undertake a Bachelor degree in Economics. She is also the chair of Chinese student association in La Trobe University. The third participant, NS1, is a male Australian who speaks only English. He works as a driver of the campus security bus which usually operates after working hours. The last participant, NS2, is also a female Australian. She underwent a manoeuvre in her professional career. She was a teacher of primary school, but shifted to hospitality business 17 years ago. In early 2010, she missed teaching, thus gave up the business and started to pursue her Graduate Diploma of Education at La Trobe University. These four participants are central in my study as they contribute to the 'discourse' we were creating – for their responses prompted my ways of negotiation, thus my social identity. To take a focus, this article would

	concentrate only on one social identity, that is the issue of nativeness. In other words, I will not discuss about other related issues, such as gender or personality traits. CDA is selected as an analysis tool to analyze the conversations because it offers a framework to understand that 'language is not merely a reflection of social relations but also part of them, as actually (re)producing them in a dialectical relation' (Pennycook, 2001: 80). This means that the ways I questioned in four conversations were not only a reflection of how I relate to them, but also the questions I posed continually shape and re-shape the social relations. The word 'critical' before 'discourse analysis' suggests 'a restive problematisation of the givens' (Pennycook, 2001: 10), implying that casual conversation cannot be taken for granted since it is the space where identity production, construction and negotiation occur. In sum, CDA is one of the most promising tools to analyze identity (Ainsworth & Hardy, 2004). I position social identity at the center and problematize it, because in the context of second language learning, 'the right to speak intersects in important ways with a language learner's identity' (Norton, 1997: 411).
Results and Discussions	This section is devoted to answer the two questions underpinning this study, i.e. the pattern of questions and its relation to social identity. The former is a descriptive analysis of the questions by utilizing syntactical and functional perspective as a starting point for critical analysis; whereas the latter is the critical interpretation of the distribution of questions on four conversations by emphasizing the asking process and its relation to the negotiation of social identity. Syntactical and functional perspectives are useful to embark a critical discussion as it has also been adopted to analyze classroom discourse (Barlett & Erling, 2006; Lee, 2006), advertising texts (Magalhaes, 2005), group discussion (Tracy & Naughton, 1994), casual conversation as compared to institutional dialogue (Wang, 2006), and social identity (Hoon, 2004; Stamou 2004). They are in line with Wodak's argument that the systemic functional view of language is valuable when carrying out a critical discourse analysis (Wodak, 2001). The discussion of this article will contribute to this area of methodology by specifying itself in questioning to native and non-native speakers of English in casual conversations. Question patterns Table 1 outlines the distribution of questions I generated in the four conversations.

Table 1. The distribution of questions on four casual conversations.

Perspective	Category	NN1	NN2	NS1	NS2
Syntactical	Yes/no question	19	17	14	13
	Wh- question	15	17	8	5
	Tag question	4	4	5	3
Functional	Echoic	3	5	4	3
	Epistemic	31	34	22	20
	Expressive	2	2	-	-
	Social control	-	-	2	2
Processes	Selection (consideration)	• Non-native speaker • His answers were concise	• Non-native speaker • She speaks for herself well	• Native speaker • He is expressive	• Native speaker • She is an articulate person
	Formation (linguistic formulation)	• Short clause • 2/3/4 questions at once	• Short and Long clause • Questioning after stating argument or statement	• Long clause • Clarifying my understanding to his statement, before questioning	• Long clause • Linking and confirming my understanding to whole story, before actually questioning
	Asking (strategy to maintain conversation)	• Use of expressive • More yes/no and wh- questions	• Use of expressive & epistemic • Equal yes/no & wh- questions	• Use of social control • More wh- question	• Use of social control • More yes/no question

From the syntactical and functional analysis (for general overview, see table 1; further detail, refer to appendix 1), I utilized three categories of questions to the interlocutors. I addressed yes/no questions more than wh-questions and tag questions to the interlocutors. Respectively, I addressed yes/no questions 19 times to NN1, 17 times to NN2, to 14 times NS1, and 13 times to NS2. Whereas for wh-questions, I posed 15 times to NN1, 17 times to NN2, 8 times to NS1, and 5 times to NS2. The least used category was tag question. I employed tag questions 4 times to NN1, 4 times to NN2, 5 times to NS1, and 3 times to NS2. For example, two yes/no-questions I posed to NN1:

Are you the only child? [1]
So, some courses that you took in Vietnam are recognised in La Trobe? [2]

Negotiating social identity through questions

The different patterns of my questioning behavior in the four casual conversations demonstrate that my social identity is multiple and not fixed – that I related myself differently to different interlocutors, thus projected and negotiated my social identity in different ways. Generally, with NN1 and NN2, there was a propensity that I used the short interrogative form and repeated the questions at one time (echoic). Having identified myself as a non-native speaker too (NN1 is a Vietnamese, NN2 is a Chinese and I come from Indonesia), I positioned myself as having the same social identity with NN1 and NN2. The fact that I repeated my question at one time explains that I was aware of the issue of communication breakdown. Question [13] demonstrates that although pointing at the same message (I was surprised by NN1's answer, thus required him to further explain about the political issue of studying in Vietnam), I was being repetitive by asking four times at time. This linguistic behavior could be interpreted that I have an awareness that English is not our first language, thus, I needed to anticipate communication breakdown by repeating my question to elaborate what I meant. Furthermore, NN1 answered in a concise way, therefore, he gave me the 'right to speak'.

Me : Why do you study accounting? Is it because you like it? [11]

	Tan : Because when I studied in Vietnam, I studied technical field and I felt disappointed with this. *Me : What kind of technical field? Is it engineering or…? [23]* The above set of question and response illustrates how he gave me the 'right to speak'. His answer was relatively concise, and for me, that was a 'space' to speak. Therefore, to have an equal interaction with him, I did not have to 'struggle' so hard to claim my 'rights to speak' (McCarthey & Birr Moje, 2002). My different way of playing out with the function of wh-questions to NS1 and NS2 (that wh-question is not merely an epistemic, but also social control) shows my struggle over the control of power. This 'space to struggle' captures my ways of negotiating my social identity (Norton, 1995, 1997; Weedon, 1997). Conscious or unconsciously, my ways of questioning to project my identity in both native and non-native social contexts in which they are operating are the space in which I have to relegitimate my status (Barlett & Erling, 2006). This finding confirms Wang's argument that in questioning, there is an exercise of power (2006). Furthermore, not only social identity has the defining characteristics that it is not fixed (or subject to change) and a space to struggle, but also it is multiple. The emerging patterns of the length of interrogative form (with NS1 and NS2, I preferred longer sentence), repetitive questions as echoic (with NN1 and NN2), and the intensity of social control (with NS1 and NS2 by employing whquestion) prove that I projected and negotiated my social identity in a multiple ways depending on whom I talked to, particularly with the issue of nativeness. The process of different ways of questioning is itself an act of negotiating identity, consciously aligning oneself with what, by default a binary model of language ownership, one is not (Norton, 1997). This performance of familiar cultural conduct ensures that the discourse of language ownership, in this case e.g. English, is further sustained.
Conclusion and Implications	By studying the patterns of questions, I generated during four sets of casual conversations with nonnative and native speakers of English, it is possible to negotiate my social identity. In this study, a descriptive analysis of the questions by utilizing syntactical and functional perspectives serves as a starting point for critical analysis (Wodak, 2001). The questions appeared to be distinctive in the conversations with non-native and native speakers of English. I tend to use longer interrogative form, more repetitive questions as echoic, and wh-question as social control to native than non-native speakers. The different patterns of my questioning behavior in the four casual conversations demonstrate that my social identity is multiple and not fixed – that I related myself differently to different interlocutors, thus projected and negotiated my social identity in different ways. Generally, with non-native speakers, there was a propensity that I used the short interrogative form and repeated the questions at one time (echoic). Having identified myself as a non-native speaker too, I positioned myself as having the same social identity with the non-native speakers. Nevertheless, with the native speakers, I negotiated my non-nativeness by selecting the long form of interrogatives and exercising 'social control'. I struggled over the inequitable relations of power: native vs. non-native speaker of English. My social identity is, thus, a 'space to struggle' to claim that I have the 'rights to speak'. Unlike with the non-native speakers where I

	could speak in equitable chances; with native speakers, I struggled over the idea that ‘English belongs to White native speakers of standard English’ and wanted to prove that English belongs to ‘all the people who speak it, irrespective of linguistic and sociocultural history’(Norton, 1997: 409). My strategy of linking the question to the whole story and confirming my understanding could be read as my resistance of the unequal relations of power between I and the interlocutors, at that point in time. As I have outlined, this article focuses one variable – nativeness over the issue of English ownership. This in turns ‘reduces’ the complexity of investigating what counts as social identity, as I did not embrace other related variables such as gender and personality traits. Although this article is a reflexive practice, the above limitation reminds researchers to attend to calls for greater reflexivity “interpreting one’s own interpretations, looking at one’s own perspectives from other perspectives, and turning a self-critical eye onto one’s own authority as interpreter and author” (Alvesson & Skoldberg, 2000: vii). Despite the fact that CDA is one methodology to carry out reflexive projects, however, researchers should suspend their critical faculties when it comes to their own research methodology. Furthermore, what has not been the focus of this study, e.g. linguistic behaviour, gender, and personality, can be analysed to contribute to the study of social identity.

Conclusion

This chapter has discussed key issues and principles in critical discourse analysis. It has given examples of studies that have been carried out from this perspective, all of which have aimed to uncover out-of-sight norms and values which underlie texts which are key to understanding the roles that texts play in particular social, cultural and political contexts.

Discussion Questions

- To what extent do you think texts reflect hidden and ‘often out-of-sight’ values? Choose a text which you think illustrates this and explain in what way you think this is done through the use of the discourse.
- To what extent do you think that the way a text is ‘framed’ encourages a certain reading of it. Choose a text which you think illustrates this. Discuss framing, foregrounding, backgrounding and the presuppositions that underlie the way the text is presented to its audience.

- Choose a text which you feel encourages a certain reading from its use of illustrations, pictures, layout and design, etc. How do you feel each of these resources aim to 'position' the reader in a particular way?

Further Readings

Fairclough, N. (1995). *Critical discourse analysis: The critical study of language.* New York: Longman.

Paltridge, B. (2012). *Discourse analysis: An introduction* (2nd ed.). London and New York: Bloomsbury Publishing.

Sakhiyya, Z. (2017). Negotiating Social Identity Through Questions in Casual Conversations: A Critical Discourse Analysis. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 6 (1) 311-318.

Helpful Websites

https://www.slideshare.net/vachsarivach/cda-8
https://archives.history.ac.uk/1807commemorated/media/methods/critical.html
https://www.slideshare.net/abdulmanan83/presentation-on-cda

References

Fairclough, N., & Wodak, R. (1997). Critical discourse analysis, in T. van Dijk (ed.), *Discourse studies: A multidisciplinary introduction,* Vol. 2, pp. 258-84. London: SAGE.

Fairclough, N. (2003). *Analysing discourse textual: Analysis for social research*. London: Routledge.

Rogers, R. (2011). *An introduction to critical discourse analysis in education* (2nd ed.). London: Routledge.

CHAPTER 7

Multimodal Discourse Analysis in Relation to Language Teaching

Multimodal discourse analysis considers how texts draw on modes of communication such as pictures, film, video, images and sound in combination with words to make meaning. It has examined print genres as well as genres such as web pages, film and television programmes. It considers how multimodal texts are designed and how semiotic tools such as color, framing, focus and positioning of elements contribute to the making of meaning in these texts.

At the end of this chapter, the students are able to:

- Define multimodal discourse analysis
- Describe types multimodal discourse analysis

Chapter 7 provides definitions of multimodal discourse analysis and types of multimodal discourse analysis.

7.1 Definitions of Multimodal Discourse Analysis

Many readings of texts are constructed not just by the use of words but by the combination of words with other modalities, such as pictures, film, video images and sound. Much of the work in multimodal discourse analysis draws from Halliday's (1978, 1989a) social semiotic approach to language, a view that considers language as one among a number of semiotic resources (such as gesture, images and music) that people use to communicate, or make meaning, with each other. Language, in this view, cannot be considered in isolation from meaning but needs to be considered within the sociocultural context in which it occurs. Multimodal discourse analysis, thus, aims to describe the socially situated semiotic resources that we draw on for communication. According to Paltridge (2012), multimodal discourse analysis learns the way people employ the combination of various communication tools, for instance, pictures, films, videos, images, and sounds used simultaneously with written languages, into account to make meaning. O'Halloran, Tan, Smith, and Podlasov, (2011) added that multimodal discourse analysis attempts to delve into how the combination of semiotic resources such as "(spoken and written) language, gesture, dress, architecture, proximity (and in the film for example) lighting, movement, gaze, camera angle, and so forth" are used for meaning-making.

7.2 Types of Multimodal Discourse Analysis

Halliday (2009a) describes three types of social meanings, or functions that are drawn on simultaneously in the use of language. These are *ideational* (what the text is about), *interpersonal* (relations between participants) and *textual* meanings (how the message is organized). In multimodal texts these meanings are realized visually in how the image conveys aspects of the real world (the ideational, or representational meaning of the image), how the images engage with the viewer (the interpersonal, or modal meaning of the image) and how the elements in an image are arranged to archive its intention or effect (the textual, or compositional meaning of the image). Hence, multimodal discourse analysis is done by keeping some guiding questions in mind: What meaning is being made in the text?; How is the meaning being made in the text?; What resources have been drawn on to make the meaning of the text?; In what social environment is the meaning being made?; and Whose interest and an agency is at work in the making of the meaning? (Kress, 2010). As we look at these questions, three points are of interest. First, the multimodal discourse analysis seeks to understand the meaning exists behind a particular text and the semiotic resources available to represent such meaning. Second, the theory attempts to look at how particular semiotics are used in particular cultures in conveying meaning. Third, the multimodality theory attempts to reveal a particular agenda set behind a specific text by a specific group of people.

Example of Research Report on Multimodal Discourse Analysis

Topic	Multimodal analysis
Source	*Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 8 (3), 616-626. doi: 10.17509/ijal.v8i3.15261
Title	Cigarette advertisements: A systemic functional grammar and multimodal analysis
Writers	Rizki Ananda, Siti Sarah Fitriani, Iskandar Abdul Samad, and Andi Anto Patak
Abstract	Drawing on a multimodality theory, this study attempted to investigate the various semiotic resources utilized by a giant Indonesian cigarette company, Sampoerna, and explore how these resources communicate meanings or messages in its billboard advertisements to persuade its potential customers to buy the product. The data were analyzed using Halliday's systemic functional grammar focusing on ideational meta-function or also known as a representational function in multimodal discourse analysis. The findings revealed that the billboard advertisements were designed to persuade the audience to buy the advertised products implicitly through representational functions attained using narrative and conceptual processes. Whereas the former was realized by employing its typical sub-processes, actional and reactional processes, the latter employed its sub-processes such as classificational, analytical, and symbolic processes. Implicationally, this study has illuminated the possible application of systemic functional grammar within a multimodal discourse analysis domain to investigate implicit message(s) conveyed by an advertisement. **Keywords:** Ideational/representational function; multimodality theory; semiotic resources; systemic functional grammar
Introduction	Words are not the only means by which we communicate with each other, and people use different modes of signs for meaning-making, a term referring to multimodality. The use of multimodal texts is now more preferable since the visual components and other semiotic resources in the text help viewers get the meaning and understand the information better. Li

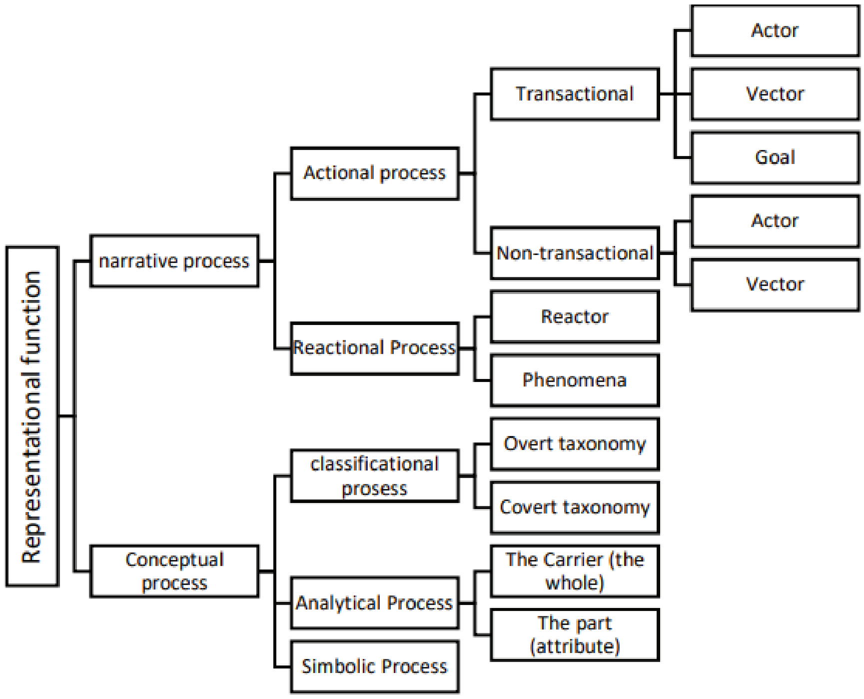
(2016) and Oyebode and Unuabonah (2013) acknowledged that although the spoken message is essential, the meaning of a certain message can be revealed by comprehending multiple semiotic materials such as color, fond, images, and icons.

Besides expressing messages to fulfill particular communicative functions such as to construct knowledge and to direct the public to commit violence in the name of religion (O'Halloran, 2008), some multimodal texts serve marketing-oriented purposes; these texts persuade viewers to do something or even buy the advertised products; one of the examples of this text type is an advertisement.

Advertisements have a strong power to influence and persuade people to buy a product. Al-Momani, Migdadi, and Badarneh (2016) acknowledged that the primary objective of an advertisement is to persuade buyers. Advertisements can come in oral and visualforms. The oral advertisement includes a speech on TV, radio or in real life; whereas the visual advertisement is photographs, posters, fliers, billboards, and websites. Moreover, what makes the advertisement influential is the unique and creative use of the semiotic resources by its creators, such as linguistic resources (e.g. verbal and written languages), paralinguistic resources (e.g. body languages and movement), visual resources (e.g. color, font, images, camera positioning and perspectives), and other semiotic resources (e.g. music) (Guo & Feng, 2017; Li, 2016). These are often referred to as multimodal resources which are commonly combined in the advertisement to make an effective means of communication to attract viewers to buy an advertised product.

Within the field of language and linguistic, advertisements can be analyzed to examine the communicative function; hence, the meaning can be understood.This study analyzes the ideational meta-function of an image because by understanding this meta-function, we can reveal at least the experiential meaning and the message of an image (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014). According to Kress and Leeuwen (2006) in a multimodal analysis of an image, the ideational function is called the representational function. The representational function can be realized by the actions of participants – either it is an animate or inanimate object. This action analysis is commonly accompanied by the analysis of the participants' position, size, color, contrast, and distance to the camera (Guo & Feng, 2017). Further, Kress and Leeuwen (2006) contended that representational function involves two analysis; they are the narrative and conceptual analysis (Yang, 2016).

To conclude, the conceptual analysis pertains to the analysis of inanimate participants in a text about their relationships to each other, the semiotic resources in the text and their combined use to form the primary focus of the image, and the meaning of each semiotic resource. Finally, since this study investigated the cigarette advertisements consisting of unstable and stable participants, it involved both narrative and conceptual analysis as in Figure 1.

	 Figure 1. The representational function of visual images Figure 1 indicates that this study includes both narrative and conceptual processes of the visual image along with their sub-processes.
Method	This study analyzed the advertisements of A Mild cigarettes produced by Sampoerna Company posted on billboards found throughout Indonesia. This product was chosen because of A Mild among the most popular cigarette in the country. In addition, most A Mild's advertisements on billboards present interesting, attractive and unique contents; making these contrary to the government's efforts to reduce the number of smokers. The data were collected by running a Google search of various keywords related to A Mild advertising on Billboard. Having collected the data, the study included six examples of billboard advertisement of A Mild cigarette (the first, the second, and the third billboard posted in 2012, the fourth in 2007, the fifth and sixth in 2010). Three of them contain the narrative process, while the rest are for the analysis of the conceptual process. The analysis was conducted based on the tool shown in Figure 1. Moreover, the analysis was divided into two phases, namely description, and interpretation (Al-Momani et al., 2016). In the description phase, all semiotic resources and their organization within the text were identified, meanwhile, in the interpretation step, attempts to link all those resources (e.g., pictures, words, font, color, and positions of those resources) were made.
Results and Discussions	As explained above, a visual image realizes its meaning through an ideational function. This function incorporates two main processes: (1) the narrative process; and (2) the conceptual process. Narrative process concerns unstable, active participants that deliver the meanings of the image through actional and reactional processes. Meanwhile, the conceptual process deals with the stable and motionless participants that express the meanings of the visual image through subprocesses: classificational, analytical, and symbolic processes. Now, we discuss the narrative process of the advertisement that we have selected. Narrative process

Actional process

This study also found that A Mild Company used actional-transactional process in advertising its cigarette product. Figure 2 shows how the transactional process is realized in A Mild cigarette billboard.

Figure 2. A Mild advertisement

In Figure 2, there are four people, three men, and one woman, trying to hang in an upward grass. They look as if they were about to fall. These people act like the actors, and their goal is the grass, whereas the act of hanging is an action. Moreover, their extending hands form a vector that directs viewers' attention to where the action is aimed at (Lewis, 2004). With the help of the written language 'KERJA KERAS GO AHEAD' (hard-working go ahead), we can understand that these people are trying hard and showing no feeling of surrender to reach the top of the grass so that they will not fall. The picture above also signifies that with hard work, a thing thought impossible becomes possible.

Another feature of interest is the text 'KERJA KERAS GO AHEAD' (hard-working go ahead). They are written in the capital with a large font to make it more salient and attractive to the viewers (Al-Momani et al., 2016; O'Halloran, 2008). Furthermore, the saliency of the phrase 'KERJA KERAS' is achieved through the use of black color against a white background. As we know that Indonesia is a tropical country which has much sunlight so that a black word can be easily noticed if written against a bright color background (Petterson, 1982). Moreover, the 'GO AHEAD,' which is a tagline of A Mild Company is written in red to communicate a message to viewers that smokers are real gentlemen associated with bravery and strength. Kress and Leeuwen (2002, p. 343) stated that "color means" and red color represents bravery and strength (Rizqiyah, 2016).

Reactional process

The process is called reactional if the vector is built through the looking of the eyes done by one or more participants (Oyebode & Unuabonah, 2013). The following picture is the image of two animate objects, two young men, looking at each other (Figure 4). They act of looking is called reactional process.

Figure 4. A Mild advertisement 3

In Figure 4 above, two people are holding their hands and looking at each other. They choose to walk on the walls instead of on the street. Although this picture can be analyzed through the actional process (e.g., holding hands), the focus on this section is the reactional process through the participants' eye direction that forms a vector (Oyebode & Unuabonah, 2013). They are looking to one another, meaning that they are both considered reactors, the participants doing an act of looking. Furthermore, as the message in visual representation is depicted through actors' actions in the image, their holding hands in Figure 4 is what needs to be seen by viewers (Oyebode & Unuabonah, 2013).

If we focus on the verbal text in the passage, there are three texts included, the letter 'A,' 'SETIA KAWAN GO AHEAD,' (loyal friend Go Ahead) and the warning message. The letter 'A' is written in red, using an extremely capital letter and big font because it is A Mild cigarette emblem so that people can notice it immediately when they look at this advertisement.

Conceptual Process

The process is conceptual when the participants are motionless and stable. It means that in this process, the participants are inanimate objects. The conceptual process incorporates three sub-processes, namely classificational, analytical, and symbolic processes which will be discussed in the following sections.

Classificational process

The classificational process shows the relationship between the participants in the image. Such relationship assigns a participant(s) a role of superordinate and the other(s) subordinate. It means that this process creates a taxonomy for the involved participants in the image. The taxonomy can be covert and overt. In the former, the participants are equally represented regarding their size, distance, framing, and number, whereas in the latter, the participants are not symmetrically composed regarding their size, distance, framing, and number. In Figure 5, we will see how covert and overt taxonomy is built in images.

Figure 5. A Mild advertisement 4

Figure 5 above has both visual images and written texts. We can see a significant amount of food, fruit, and drink. They are all equal in number and distance in which they are close to each other, and thus this picture creates a covert taxonomy. This kind of taxonomy is used by the designer of the picture to suggest viewers having a balanced diet so that they can supply sufficient nutritive elements to their body.

Analytical process

In the analytical process, the focus is turned on the partwhole structures that connect all participants in the image. Therefore, the participants are given two roles, the carrier (the whole) and the possessive attributes (the parts) as studied by Yang (2016) as can be seen in the A Mild cigarette advertisement in Figure 6.

Figure 6. A Mild Advertisement

Figure 6 shows a clear connection between the carrier (the whole) and possessive (the part), forming a relational attributive process. The carrier is the focus of the picture, while the possessive is the semiotic resources employed to form the whole or the focus (Yang, 2016). Here, the whole or the focus of this picture is the tagline of A Mild company cigarette, 'GO AHEAD.' Meanwhile, the possessive attributes are the people, the individual letters of the tagline, the flag, the sea water, and the sea coral reefs. Each letter of the tagline, except the letter 'A,' is formed by the people, enhancing the creativity of the picture and its attractiveness.

Symbolic process

The symbolic process differs from the analytical process in that the latter is descriptive because it tries merely to identify 'the parts' that are combined to form 'the whole.' Meanwhile, the former tries to go beyond this task. It does not only identify 'the whole' termed as 'the carrier' participant in the symbolic process, but also find out the parts, called 'symbolic attribute' participant in the symbolic process and reveal the meaning of such individual participants (Chen & Gao, 2014). The following A Mild advertisement illustrates how the symbolic process is formed through 'carrier' and 'symbolic attribute.'

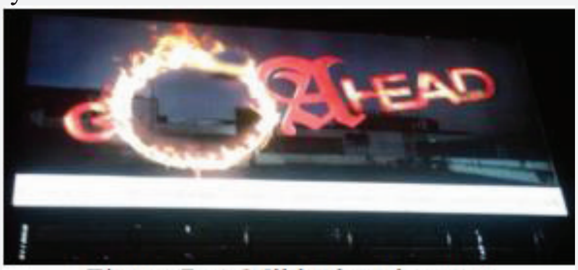


Figure 7. A Mild advertisement

In Figure 7, the carrier is the A Mild cigarette company's tagline 'Go Ahead' which is foregrounded by the close-up picture. The tagline is capitalized and written in red to have a contrast color with the dark night as the background so that viewers can easily identify them. Moreover, the symbolic attributes are the letter 'O' and 'A.' The letter 'O' is depicted as a fireball to instill a strong emotion of inspiration and spirit. This interpretation can be traced back to one of the conceptual meanings of 'fire' given by the Cambridge dictionary, 3rd edition, (2008), namely to cause strong emotion of inspiration and spirit.

Conclusion and Implications

This study has shown that A Mild Company has creatively exploited various semiotic modes to persuade buyers. The presentation of the tagline and slogan always appear bigger with attractive colors, and so do the images; showing that the message shown by these resources is more

	significant compared to the message presented in the warning label. This is also reinforced by a significant gap regarding the size between the tagline (including the slogan and accompanying images) and the warning message. Interestingly, from the point of view of literal meaning, the messages shown in the advertisement do not have any relation to cigarettes or smoking activities; but if when looked at more closely, the inherent meaning is apparent in that the advertisement tries to sell cigarettes implicitly. There are some limitations of this study that future research may follow up on. First, this study investigated only a small number of advertisements from one company so that the result is not generalizable to a broader context; thus, future studies may gather more data from multiple companies. Second, a future study may interview the advertisement designer to justify the researcher's interpretation of the meaning behind every semiotic mode used in the images and thus, the result will be more verifiable. Finally, a future study may include the analysis of interactive meaning and compositional meaning of visual images, which corresponds to the interpersonal and textual function in the written language respectively to arrive at a more comprehensive picture.

Conclusion

This chapter has provided an overview of multimodal discourse analysis, an approach which considers how texts that employ more than one mode of presentation, such as words and graphics, make meaning. It has provided the theoretical background to multimodal discourse analysis as well as given examples of analyses that have been carried out from this perspective. It has also discussed relations between genre, speech acts and multimodality. A genre and multimodality framework have then been presented as a proposal for examining layers of meaning in multimodal texts.

Discussion Questions

- Think of the front page of a newspaper you are familiar with. In what ways does the composition of the page – use of images, color, font and text size – contribute to how you respond to the text?
- Think of the cover of a magazine you have recently read. What strategies are used to give the images on the cover particular salience?
- Think of a scene in a film that is particularly memorable to you. How does the use of color, sound, costuming and setting contribute to the impact this scene has had on you?

- Collect a set of covers of a magazine that regularly contain photos of people. Analyze the covers in terms of Kress' (2010) questions: (a) What meaning is being made in a text? (b) How is meaning being made in the text? (c) What resources have been drawn on to make the meaning in the text? (d) In what social environment is the meaning being made? (e) Whose interest and agency is at work in the making of the meaning?

Further Readings

Paltridge, B. (2012). *Discourse analysis: An introduction* 2nd (ed.). London and New York: Bloomsbury Publishing.

Ananda, R., et al. (2019). Cigarette advertisements: A systemic functional grammar and multimodal analysis. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 8 (3), 616-626.

Helpful Website

https://www.slideshare.net/samanothman3/multimodal-discourse-analysis-75944203

References

Halliday, M.A.K. (1978). *Language as social semiotic: The social interpretation of language and meaning*. London: Edward Arnold.

Halliday, M.A.K. (1989a). Context of situation, in M.A.K. Halliday, & R. Hasan. *Language, Context, and Text: Aspects of Language in a Social-semiotic Perspective*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, pp. 3-14.

Kress, G.R. (2010). *Multimodality: A Social Semiotic Approach to Contemporary Communication*. London: Routledge.

O'Halloran, K.L., Tan, S., Smith, B.A., & Podlasov, A. (2011). Multimodal analysis within an interactive software environment: Critical discourse perspectives. *Critical Discourse Studies*, 8 (2), 109-125.

CHAPTER 8

Contributions of Discourse Studies in English Language Teaching

At the end of this chapter, the students are able to:

- Describe the contributions of discourse studies in the context of English language and teaching
- Identify the application of written discourse analysis in English language and teaching
- Identify the application of spoken discourse analysis in English language and teaching

Bringing discourse analysis into the language classroom cannot be reduced exclusively to the adoption of a series of new categories and analytical techniques. It requires the teacher, in the first place, and the students, subsequently, to look at their teaching and learning task in a very different way: the main focus of study is not language but communication. The introduction of the notion of communicative competence has been positive in the sense that communication is now conceived as a result of the successful application of not only grammatical but also pragmatic knowledge and skills (Canale, 1983). Nevertheless, this has not changed the perspective many teachers had of language, because pragmatic information has usually been presented as an auxiliary component which is to be used only when grammatical explanations are difficult or impossible. The result is that for many language educators there is still a core element about which they have to be careful: grammatical competence. Pragmatic competence has become the equivalent to the topping of an ice-cream: it is nice if we can have it, yet it is not the ice-cream.

The communicative approach to language teaching has succeeded in making us aware of some factors. It also has led to a need for genuine examples of language use, both written and spoken, to be made available to language learners. This may appear to represent an ideal learning and teaching environment for those involved in specialized language use, with easy access to individual examples of specialized texts (used here to refer to both written and spoken language), readily and freely available corpora permitting the analysis of discourse patterns across texts, and publications on language learning and teaching as discourse analysis providing guidance to teachers who are not experienced discourse analysts. McCarthy (1991) and Hoey (1991) have defined and summarized that discourse analysis can be very helpful in language teaching and learning as it focuses more on naturally occurring language above the sentence level. It is certain that language acquisition is the ultimate goal of language lessons. And the teachers expect the student to be capable of using and understanding the language rather than recite some rules. Therefore, Chapter 8 presents the application of written and spoken discourse analysis in English language teaching, the importance of discourse analysis for language teachers, and ends with closing remarks.

8.1 Application of Written Discourse Analysis in English Language Teaching

Discourse analysis, particularly the analysis of text pattern should play a more important part in reading and writing lessons alike in ELT. And it has a more significant role to play in combing these two categories into one complete unit. However, analysis of written discourse is not just for fun of a very challenging intellectual game. McCarthy (1991) concluded that, though "not everything described by discourse analysis is relevant to or may have immediate applications in language teaching" (McCarthy, 1991), language teachers are more likely to be able to "create authentic materials and activities for the classroom" (McCarthy, 1991) if they are more familiar with how different texts are organized and how to realize the process of creating written texts.

Instruction: Complete the gaps in the appropriate pronoun: *I, you, he, she, it, we, they*! The parents of a seven-year-old Australian boy woke to find a giant python crushing and trying to swallow ____. The incident occurred in Cairns, Queensland and the boy's mother, Mrs. Kathy Dryden said, "_____ was like a horror movie. It was a hot night and Bartholomew was lying under a mosquito net. _____ suddenly started screaming. "____ rushed to the bedroom to find a huge snake trying to strangle ____. ____ was coiled around his arms and neck and was going down ___ body.

According to what is discussed in previous parts, it can be concluded that understanding of cohesive devices will be quite helpful for language learners. In reading practices, especially when doing exercises designed to increase reading speed, it is very important for the readers to see, without referring back to the read paragraphs, who are the referees whenever they encounter pronouns and/or demonstratives. Language teachers should provide constant guidance to the learners and always remind them of paying enough attention to this aspect. Besides, task-based activities may be designed to help students with their vocabulary study, through more understanding of lexical cohesion. The students do not have to stop to consult the dictionary if they can take a good guess at the meaning of some new words through their knowledge of lexical cohesions, especially those, particularly when synonyms, antonyms and/or words of the same semantic field are used. For example, in an exercise as above. Therefore, it can be concluded that discourse analysis can be especially valuable and helpful when applied to language lessons. As Hoey (1991) mentioned, discourse analysis is relevant to language teaching, because “if the teacher knows what a natural conversation involves, he or she will be in a better position to assess whether their learners are succeeding in developing the conversational skills that they need.” (Hoey, 1991). This thoroughly explains how Discourse Analysis can help in second language teaching and learning.

8.2 Application of Spoken Discourse Analysis in English Language Teaching

The representation and the way spoken language in ELT materials can be seen in the following conversation:

A	:Kevin, have you got a minute?
B	:Sure. How can I help you?
A	:Can you have a look at my computer?
B	:What’s the matter with it?
A	:It keeps crashing.
B	:How long have you had it?
A	:It’s only four years old.
B	:That’s very old for a computer.
A	:Can you fix it?
B	:I can fix it, but you should get a new one.
A	:What can I do with the old one?
B	:You could give it to charity. A That’s a good idea.

The conversation above provides a number of useful expressions, such as *Have you got a minute? How can I help you? What’s the matter with it? That’s a good idea*. It also embeds some representative examples of frequently targeted grammar items, such as the modal verbs *can, should, could*, without these being overly obtrusive or unnatural. In this sense, it lends itself to a variety of classroom applications.

What is notably absent from the dialogue, however, is any evidence of the spontaneous and collaborative construction of talk. The turns, all of roughly equal length, alternate with machine-like precision, with no overlaps, interruptions, false starts or repetitions. There are no pauses, filled or unfilled, no incomplete or ungrammatical utterances, and therefore nothing to reflect the consequences of on-line production in real-time. From the point of view of coherence, though, this might not be a bad thing. As we saw above, talk which has been ‘tidied up’ like this is easier to read on the page.

But it is not necessarily easier to listen to: without the pauses, repetitions and false starts, the informational load becomes much more concentrated, and therefore more difficult to process aurally, especially for learners. It's like listening to the spoken equivalent of text messages. As noted earlier, materials writers who write simplified dialogues in the interests of making things easier for learners may sometimes be making them more difficult.

8.3 The Importance of Discourse Analysis for Language Teachers

Discourse analysis is the examination of language use by members of a speech community. It involves looking at both language form and language function and includes the study of both spoken interaction and written texts. It identifies linguistic features that characterize different genres as well as social and cultural factors that aid in our interpretation and understanding of different texts and types of talk. A discourse analysis of written texts might include a study of topic development and cohesion across the sentences, while an analysis of spoken language might focus on these aspects plus turn-taking practices, opening and closing sequences of social encounters, or narrative structure.

The study of discourse has developed in a variety of disciplines - sociolinguistics, anthropology, sociology, and social psychology. Thus discourse analysis takes different theoretical perspectives and analytic approaches: speech act theory, interactional sociolinguistics, ethnography of communication, pragmatics, conversation analysis, and variation analysis (Schiffrin, 1994). Although each approach emphasizes different aspects of language use, they all view language as social interaction.

This section focuses on the application of discourse analysis to second language teaching and learning. It provides examples of how teachers can improve their teaching practices by investigating actual language use both in and out of the classroom, and how students can learn language through exposure to different types of discourse.

Discourse analysis and second language teaching

Even with the most communicative approaches, the second language classroom is limited in its ability to develop learners' communicative competence in the target language. This is due to the restricted number of contact hours with the language; minimal opportunities for interacting with native speakers; and limited exposure to the variety of functions, genres, speech events, and discourse types that occur outside the classroom. Given the limited time available for students to practice the target language, teachers should maximize opportunities for student participation. Classroom research is one way for teachers to monitor both the quantity and quality of students' output. By following a four-part process of Record-View-Transcribe-Analyze, second language teachers can use discourse analytic techniques to investigate the interaction patterns in their classrooms and to see how these patterns promote or hinder opportunities for learners to practice the target language. This process allows language teachers to study their own teaching behavior - specifically, the frequency, distribution, and types of questions they use and their effect on students' responses.

"Step One": Videotape a complete lesson. Be sure to capture all of your questions and the students' responses. (Opportunities to speak the target language are often created by teachers' questions.)

"Step Two": Watch the videotape. As you watch it, think about the types of questions you asked. Look for recurring patterns in your questioning style and the impact it has on the students' responses.

"Step Three": Transcribe the lesson. A transcript will make it easier to identify the types of questions in the data and to focus on specific questions and student responses. "Step Four": Analyze the videotape and transcript. Why did you ask each question? What type of question was it--open (e.g., "What points do you think the author was making in the chapter you read yesterday?") or closed (e.g., "Did you like the chapter?")? Was the question effective in terms of your goals for teaching and learning? What effect did your questions have on the students' opportunities to practice the target language? How did the students respond to different types of questions? Were you satisfied with their responses? Which questions elicited the most discussion from the students? Did the students ask any questions? Focusing on actual classroom interaction, teachers can investigate how one aspect of their teaching style affects students' opportunities for speaking the target language. They can then make changes that will allow students more practice with a wider variety of discourse types.

Teachers can also use this process of Record-View-Transcribe-Analyze to study communication patterns in different classroom activities, such as student-to-student interactions during a paired role-play task and during a small-group cooperative learning activity. Communicative activities are expected to promote interaction and to provide opportunities for students to engage in talk. Teachers are likely to discover that students produce different speech patterns in response to different tasks. For example, a map activity is likely to elicit a series of questions and answers among participants, whereas a picture narration task requires a monologue developed around a narrative format. Given that teachers use communicative tasks to evaluate learners' proficiency, a better understanding of the influence of specific activities on learner discourse will likely lead teachers to use a greater variety of tasks in order to gain a more comprehensive picture of students' abilities. By recording, transcribing, and analyzing students' discourse, teachers can gain insight into the effect of specific tasks on students' language production and, over time, on their language development.

A discourse analysis of classroom interactions can also shed light on cross-cultural linguistic patterns that may be leading to communication difficulties. For example, some speakers may engage in overlap, speaking while someone else is taking a turn-at-talk. For some linguistic groups, this discourse behavior can be interpreted as a signal of engagement and involvement; however, other speakers may view it as an interruption and imposition on their speaking rights. Teachers can use the Record-View-Transcribe-Analyze technique to study cross-cultural interactions in their classrooms, helping students identify different communication strategies and their potential for miscommunication.

Although some variables of language learning are beyond the control of second language teachers, discourse analysis can be a useful analytic tool for making informed changes in instructional practices. Mainstream teachers, especially those with second language learners, can also use this technique to study classroom interactions in order to focus on the learning opportunities available to students with limited English proficiency. In fact, discourse analysis can be an integral part of a program of professional development for all teachers that includes classroom-based research, with the overall aim of improving teaching (Johnson, 1995).

Discourse analysis and second language learning

Language learners face the monumental task of acquiring not only new vocabulary, syntactic patterns, and phonology, but also discourse competence, sociolinguistics competence, strategic competence, and interactional competence. They need opportunities to investigate the systematicity of language at all linguistic levels, especially at the highest level (Riggenbach, 1999; Young & He, 1998). Without knowledge of and experience with the discourse and sociocultural patterns of the target language, second language learners are likely to rely on the strategies and expectations acquired as part of their first language development, which may be inappropriate for the second language setting and may lead to communication difficulties and misunderstandings.

One problem for second language learners is limited experience with a variety of interactive practices in the target language. Therefore, one of the goals of second language teaching is to expose learners to different discourse patterns in different texts and interactions. One way that teachers can include the study of discourse in the second language classroom is to allow the students themselves to study language, that is, to make them discourse analysts (see Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000; McCarthy & Carter, 1994; Riggenbach, 1999). By exploring natural language use in authentic environments, learners gain a greater appreciation and understanding of the discourse patterns associated with a given genre or speech event as well as the sociolinguistic factors that contribute to linguistic variation across settings and contexts. For example, students can study speech acts in a service encounter, turn-taking patterns in a conversation between friends, opening and closings of answering machine messages, or other aspects of speech events. Riggenbach (1999) suggests a wide variety of activities that can easily be adapted to suit a range of second language learning contexts.

One discourse feature that is easy to study is listener response behavior, also known as backchannels. Backchannels are the brief verbal responses that a listener uses while another individual is talking, such as mm-hmm, ok, yeah, and oh wow. Listener response can also be non-verbal, for instance head nods. Research has identified variation among languages in the use of backchannels, which makes it an interesting feature to study. Variation has been found not only in the frequency of backchannels, but also in the type of backchannels, their placement in the ongoing talk, and their interpretation by the participants (Clancy, Thompson, Suzuki, & Tao, 1996). Students can participate in the Record-View-Transcribe-Analyze technique to study the linguistic form and function of backchannels in conversation.

“Step One”: Ask to video- or audiotape a pair of native speakers engaging in conversation, perhaps over coffee or lunch.

“Step Two”: Play the tape for students. Have them identify patterns in the recorded linguistic behavior. In this case, pay attention to the backchanneling behavior of the participants. Is the same backchannel token used repeatedly, or is there variation?

“Step Three”: Transcribe the conversation so that students can count the number and types of backchannel tokens and examine their placement within the discourse. “Step 4”: Have students analyze specific discourse features individually, in pairs or in small groups. These are some questions to consider: How often do the participants use a backchannel token? How does backchanneling contribute to the participants’ understanding of and involvement in the conversation? How can differences in backchannel frequency be explained? How does backchanneling work in the students' native language?

Students can collect and analyze data themselves. Once collected, this set of authentic language data can be repeatedly examined for other conversational features, then later compared to discourse features found in other speech events. This discourse approach to language learning removes language from the confines of textbooks and makes it tangible, so that students can explore language as interaction rather than as grammatical units. Teachers can also use these activities to raise students’ awareness of language variation, dialect differences, and cultural diversity.

In sum, teachers can use discourse analysis not only as a research method for investigating their own teaching practices but also as a tool for studying interactions among language learners. Learners can benefit from using discourse analysis to explore what language is and how it is used to achieve communicative goals in different contexts. Thus, discourse analysis can help to create a second language learning environment that more accurately reflects how language is used and encourages learners toward their goal of proficiency in another language.

8.4 Closing Remarks

We are all language educators. We can not be separated from language education. We need to know discourse: what actually we do. As language teachers we have a big responsibility to develop discourse. We teach English. We teach a language. What is the main goal of teaching a language? Our main goal is to develop communicative competence if we want our students to be able to communicate. We teach students a lot of knowledge about language. When we teach English at schools, we teach them to communicate. Communication is done by two people – a speaker and a listener and a writer and a reader. This is called mutual interaction. Our job is to teach communicative competence by developing discourse competence. Discourse studies is useful to aid students to develop their communicative competence in the language they are learning.

Discussion Questions

- What are the implications of written language for teaching?
- How is spoken language dealt with in the language classroom? Are the features that we have identified adequately represented in classroom materials? Should they be? What kinds of texts and activities are best suited for the development of competence in this area?

Further Readings

Cots, J. M. (1995). Bringing discourse analysis into the language classroom. *Links & Letters* 3,77-101.

Thornbury, S. (2005). *Beyond the sentence*. Oxford: Macmillan Publishers Limited.

Helpful Website

www.cetljournal.co.uk

References

Canale, M. (1983). From communicative competence to communicative language pedagogy. Richards, J. and R. Schmidt. (eds.). *Language and communication*, pp. 2-27. London and New York: Longman.

McCarthy, M. (1991). *Discourse Analysis for Language Teachers.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Hoey, M.P. (1994). Signaling in discourse: a functional analysis of a common discourse pattern in written and spoken English. In Coulthard, M. (eds.) *Advances in Written Text Analysis*: 26-45. London: Routledge.

GLOSSARY

Appraisal analysis is concerned with evaluation. It refers to the analysis of how speakers' express feelings, how they amplify them and how they may incorporate additional voices in their discourse. Key sub-systems of appraisal theory: engagement, attitude and graduation.

Code switching refers to a situation in which a speaker uses a mixture of different languages or different varieties of a single language in the same sentence or discourse.

Coherence refers to the extent to which discourse is perceived to hang together rather than being a set of unrelated sentence or utterances.

Cohesion refers to the formal ties that connect up units of language to form a text.

Communicative competence refers to the ability to use language effectively to communicate in particular contexts and for particular purposes. It is said to consist of six sub-diary components: Sociolinguistics competence, linguistic competence, formulaic competence, discourse competence, interactional competence and strategic competence.

Conversation analysis is a type of analysis that aims to identify the principles enabling individuals to negotiate and exchange meanings.

Context refers to the relationship between linguistic and non-linguistic dimensions of communicative events. These dimensions are seen to stand in a mutually influential relationship, with text and the interpretive work it creates helping to shape context and context influencing the conventions, values and knowledge a text appeal to.

Critical discourse analysis explores some of the hidden and out of sight values, position and perspectives in the connection between the use of language and the social and political context in which it occurs.

Culture is an historically transmitted and systematic network of meanings that allow us to understand, develop and communicate our knowledge and beliefs about the world.

Discourse refers to the use of language in speech and writing to achieve pragmatic meaning.

Discourse analysis is an approach which seeks to reveal the interests, values and power relations in any institutional and socio-historical context through the ways that people use and interpret language.

Discourse competence refers to the selection, sequencing, and arrangement of words, structures, and utterances to achieve a unified spoken message.

Field refers to the content, subject-matter or the social activity taking place.

Formulaic competence is the counterbalance to linguistic competence. It refers to those fixed and prefabricated chunks of language that speakers use heavily in everyday interactions.

Genre refers to a particular type of oral or written communication such as a narrative, a casual conversation, a poem, a recipe or a description. Different genres are typified by a particular structure and by grammatical forms that reflect the communicative of genre in question.

Interaction analysis refers to an analysis of classroom events (teaching and learning process) to study the teacher's behavior and the process of interaction which is going inside the classroom.

Interactional competence refers to the bottom-up counterpart to the more global top-down socio-cultural competence. It covers three main sub-components: actional competence, conversation competence and paralinguistic competence. Interactional competence is extremely crucial since it covers knowledge of how to perform common speech acts, turn-taking, how to manage social introductions, how to complain, how to apologize, and so forth with appropriate body movements, in breaths, eye contact and others non-verbal signals.

Language is a system of communication, a medium for though and a social interaction.

Lexical density refers to the number of lexical or content words (i.e. nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs) to grammatical or function words (e.g. pronouns, prepositions, articles) within a clause.

Linguistic competence associates with one' repertoire to produce and comprehend isolated sentences. It covers knowledge in phonology, syntax, grammatical words and orthography.

Mode refers to the exploitation of a medium to achieve different kinds of communication, e.g. a speech is a mode of using the medium of speech.

Multimodal discourse analysis considers how text draw on modes of communication such as pictures, film, video, images and sound in combination with words to make meaning.

Nominalization refers to the process of changing actions into things in written texts.

Politeness is one of communication strategies which emphasizes the polite words and actions. It allows people to perform many interpersonally sensitive actions in a nonthreatening or less threatening manner. There are four types of politeness strategies: Bald On-record, Negative Politeness, Positive Politeness, and Off-record.

Pragmatics refers to the study of what people mean by language when they use it in the normal context of social life.

Reference refers to the use of language to express a proposition, i.e. to talk about things in context.

Register is a term from systemic functional linguistics which explains the relationship between texts and their contexts in terms of field (what), tenor (who) and mode (how).

Rheme relates the current message to what has gone before. It points both backwards and forwards by picking up on information which is already available and adding to it and by presenting information which was not there before.

Sociocultural competence covers learners understand ability of native speakers' intentions in talks and the ability to respond appropriately to them taking into account culture diversity, norms, dialects, and appropriacy.

Speech acts refers to an act of communication performed by the use of language, either in speech or writing, involving references, force and effect.

Spoken discourse studies is the studies of the ongoing, situated interpretation of a speaker's communicative intentions, of which the addressee's expected and actual reactions are an integral part.

Strategic competence is perceived as the learners' ability to come up with any difficulties encountering them when talking with others and their ability to create strategies compensating their lack of knowledge and make the communication channel opens.

Tenor refers to the roles we take up (student, parent, customer, employee) and our relationships with others in any particular situation.

Thematic progression is the way of organizing clause or sentence in the text through the development of theme and rheme to form a coherence text.

Text refers to the product of the process of discourse. In written language, text is produced by one of writers involved and is a part of communication. In spoken language, the text will only survive the discourse if it is specially recorded.

Theme is, broadly speaking, what the clause is going to be about.

Written discourse studies are the studies of beyond language-in-use in written form, language as meaning in interaction, and language in situational and cultural context.

REFERENCES

Ananda, R., et al. (2019). Cigarette advertisements: A systemic functional grammar and multimodal analysis. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 8 (3), 616-626.

Austin, J.L. (1962). *How to do things with words.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Basra, S.M., & Thoyyibah, L. (2017). A speech act analysis of teacher talk in an EFL classroom. *International Journal of Education*, 10 (1), 73-81.

Brown, H.D. (2001). *Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy* (2nd ed.). New York: Addison Wesley Longman, Inc.

Brown, P., & Levinson, S.C. (1987). *Politeness: Some universal of language usage.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Bryam, M. & Hu, A. (eds.). (2013). *Routledge encyclopedia of language teaching and learning*. New York: Routledge.

Cameron. (2001). W*orking with spoken discourse*. London: Sage.

Canale, M. (1983). From communicative competence to communicative language pedagogy. Richards, J., & R. Schmidt. (eds.). *Language and communication*, pp. 2-27. London and New York: Longman.

Canale M., & Swain, M. (l980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to Second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics* 1(1), pp. 1-48.

Celce-Murcia, M. (l995). The elaboration of sociolinguistic competence: Implications for teacher education. In Alatis J.E, Straehle C.A., & Ronkin, M. (eds.) Linguistics and the Education of Language Teachers: Ethnolinguistic, Psycholinguistic, and Sociolinguistic Aspects. *Proceedings of the Georgetown University, Round Table on Languages and Linguistics*, 2005, pp. 699-710. Georgetown University Press, Washington D.C.

Celce-Murcia, M. (2007). Rethinking the role of communicative competence in language teaching. In E.A. Soler & M.P.S. Jordà (eds.), *Intercultural Language Use and Language Learning,* pp. 41-58. Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Springer.

Celce-Murcia M., & Olshtain, E. (2000). *Discourse and context in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Chaudron, C. (1998). *Second language classrooms*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Chu, C.P.Y. (2014). Supporting new arrival students' engagement with picture books: analysis of teacher talk using the appraisal theory. *Functional Linguistics*. 1:12. http://www.functionallinguistics.com/content/1/1/12.

Cook, G. (1998). The uses of reality: a reply to Ronald Carter. *ELT Journal*, 52 (1): 57-6.

Cornish, F. (2006). Understanding spoken discourse. *Encyclopedia of Language and Linguistics* (2nd ed.), 13, 227-230.

Cots, J.M. (1995). Bringing discourse analysis into the language classroom. *Links & Letters* 3,77-101.

Cummins, J., & Swain, M. (1986). Bilingualism in education. New York: Longman Inc.

Derewianka, B. (1900). *Exploring how text work*. Sydney: Primary English Teaching Association.

Ellis, R. (1984). *Classroom second language development: A study of classroom interaction and language acquisition.* Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Erton, I. (2000). Contributions of discourse analysis to language teaching. *Hacettepe Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi* 19, 201-211.

Fairclough, N. (1995). *Critical discourse analysis: The critical study of language.* New York: Longman.

Fairclough, N., & Wodak, R. (1997). Critical discourse analysis, in T. van Dijk (ed.), *Discourse studies: A multidisciplinary introduction,* Vol. 2, pp. 258-84. London: SAGE.

Fairclough, N. (2003). *Analysing discourse textual: Analysis for social research*. London: Routledge.

Grundy, P. (2008). *Doing pragmatics* (3rd ed.). London: Hodder Education.

Gumperz, J. (1977). Sociocultural knowledge in conversational inference. *Georgetown University Roundtable on Languages and Linguistics.* Washington, D.C.: Georgetown University Press.

Halliday, M.A.K. (1978). *Language as social semiotic: The social interpretation of language and meaning*. London: Edward Arnold.

Halliday, M.A.K. (1989a). Context of situation, in M.A.K. Halliday and R. Hasan. *Language, Context, and Text: Aspects of Language in a Social-semiotic Perspective*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, pp. 3-14.

Halliday, M.A.K. (1994). *An introduction to functional grammar* (2nd ed.). London: Edward Arnold.

Halliday, M.A.K., & Hasan, R. (1976). *Cohesion in English*. London: Longman.

Harris, Z. (1952). Discourse analysis. *Language* 28, 1-30.

Hatch, E. (1983). Psycholinguistics: A second language perspective. Rowley, M.A.: Newbury House.

Hoey, M.P. (1991). Some properties of spoken discourse. In R. Browers, & C. Brumfit (eds.) *Applied Linguistics and English Language Teaching*: 65-84. Basingstoke: Macmillan/MEP.

Hoey, M.P. (1994). Signaling in discourse: a functional analysis of a common discourse pattern in written and spoken English. In Coulthard, M. (eds.) *Advances in Written Text Analysis*: 26-45. London: Routledge.

Hunston, S. (2002). Pattern grammar, language teaching, and linguistic variation. In: Reppen R., Fitzmaurice, S., & Biber D. (eds). Using Corpora to Explore Linguistic Variation. John Benjamins, *Amsterdam*, pp. 167-186.

Hutchby, I., & Wooffitt, R. (2008). Conversation Analysis (2nd ed.). Cambridge: Polity Press.

Hymes, D. (1972). On communicative competence. In J.B. Pride & J. Holmes (eds.), *Sociolinguistics*. Harmondsworth: Penguin. pp. 269.293.

Kress, G.R. (2010). *Multimodality: A Social Semiotic Approach to Contemporary Communication*. London: Routledge.

Krashen, D.S. (1987). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition.* New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Levinson, S. (1983). *Pragmatics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Light, J. (1997). Communication is the essence of human life: Reflections on communicative competence. *Augmentative and Alternative Communication*, 13, 61-70.

Mahmud, M. (2018). The use of politeness strategies in the classroom context by English university students. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 8, 597-606.

Manipuspika, Y.S. (2014). Accomplishing coherence in talk shows: A comparison between English and Indonesian. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistic*s, Vol. 3 No.2, 154-168.
Martin, J.R. (1985). Process and text: Two aspects of human semiosis. In J.D. Benson & W.S. Greaves (eds.), *Systemic Perspectives on Discourse,* Vol. 1, pp. 248-274. Norwood: Ablex.
Martin, J.R, Matthiessen, Ch., & Painter, C. (1997). *Working with functional grammar.* St. Martin's press.
McCarthy, M. (1991). *Discourse Analysis for Language Teachers.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
Nasir, C., Yusuf, Y.Q., & Wardana, A. (2019). A qualitative study of teacher talk in an EFL classroom interaction in Aceh Tengah, Indonesia. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 8, 525-535.
Nattinger J.R., & DeCarrico, J. (1992). *Lexical phrases and language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
O'Halloran, K.L., Tan, S., Smith, B.A., & Podlasov, A. (2011). Multimodal analysis within an interactive software environment: Critical discourse perspectives. *Critical Discourse Studies*, 8 (2), 109-125.
Oxford, R. (2001). Language learning styles and strategies. In: Celce-Murcia, M. (ed) Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language. Heinle & Heinle, Boston, MA, pp. 359–366.
Paltridge, B. (2012). *Discourse analysis: An introduction* (2nd ed.). London and New York: Bloomsbury Publishing.
Paramesvaran, M.D., & Lim, J.W. (2018). Code-switching practices in a Malaysian multilingual primary classroom from teacher and student perspectives. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 8, 254-264.
Pawley A. (1992). Formulaic speech. In Bright, W. (ed.) International Encyclopedia of Linguistics, Vol. 2. New York: Oxford University Press.
Pawley A., & Syder, F.H. (l983). Two puzzles for linguistic theory: Native like selection and native like fluency. In: Richards J.C., & Schmidt R.W. (eds.) Language and Communication, pp 191-227. London: Longman.
Richards, J.C., & Lockhart, C. (2007). *Reflective teaching in second language classrooms.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
Rivers, W.M. (1987). *Interactive language teaching: Interactions as the key to teaching language for communication*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
Rodríguez-Vergara, D. (2018). The Importance of Discourse Studies in Linguistics, Language Teaching and Translation. *US-China Foreign Language*, Vol. 16 (6), 297-310.
Rogers, R. (2011). *An introduction to critical discourse analysis in education* (2nd ed.). London: Routledge.
Sacks, H., Schegloff, E. A., & Jefferson, G. (1974/1978). A simplest systematics for the organization of turn-taking for conversation. *Language*, 50 (4): 696-735.
Sakhiyya, Z. (2017). Negotiating Social Identity Through Questions in Casual Conversations: A Critical Discourse Analysis. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 6 (1) 311-318.
Schenkein, J. (1978). *Studies in the Organization of Conversational Interaction*. New York: Academic Press.

Searle, J.R. (1976). A Classification of Illocutionary Acts. *Language in Society*, 5 (1), 1-23.

Stubbs, M. (1983). *Discourse Analysis*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.

Tamanaha, M. (2002). Interlanguage speech act realization of apologies and complaints: The performances of Japanese L2 speakers in comparison with Japanese L1 and English L1 speakers. *Unpublished Ph.D.* dissertation in Applied Linguistics. Los Angeles: University of California.

Tannen, D. (1989). *Talking voices: Repetition, dialogue, and imagery in conversation discourse.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Thornbury, S. (2005). *Beyond the sentence*. Oxford: Macmillan Publishers Limited.

Tracy, K. (2002). *Everyday talk: Building and reflecting identities.* New York, N.Y.: Guilford Press.

Webb, G., & Manolis, C. (1989). *Crocodiles of Australia*. Sydney: Reed Books Pty Ltd.

Widdowson, H.G. (1984). *Explorations in applied linguistics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Widdowson, H. (1979). *Teaching English as communication.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Yule, G. (1996). *Pragmatics*. Oxford: OUP.

INDEX

ABOUT THE AUTHORS

Sri Wuli Fitriati, Ph.D. is an Associate Professor at the English Language and Literature Department, Faculty of Languages and Arts, Universitas Negeri Semarang (UNNES). She has been teaching at UNNES since 2005. In 2009, she got a scholarship for an oral communication skills course from SEAMEO RELC (Regional Language Center) in Singapore. She obtained her Doctorate degree from the University of Southern Queensland (USQ) Australia in 2015. Since then, she has taught *Discourse Studies* course for Master's degree students and *Advanced Discourse Studies* for Doctoral students in the Postgraduate Program of UNNES. At present, she is the coordinator of Master's degree program of English language education. Her research articles on discourse studies in relation to the teaching of English as a foreign language have been published in some international reputable journals and national-accredited journals. Her recent Scopus-indexed article is *Non-native writers and the use of appraisal resources in research article introductions* published in IJAL (Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics) in 2019. Her works can be accessed in Google Scholar, SINTA and Scopus. She has served as a supervisor of her students' final projects, theses and dissertations. She has also actively taken part in national and international conference presentations and has provided training for teacher professional development. In addition, since 2017 she has been a reviewer of UP UKMPPG (*Uji Pengetahuan Uji Kompetensi Mahasiswa Pendidikan Profesi Guru*, or Knowledge and Competency Test for Teacher Professional Education) and PPG entrance exam.

Agatha Lisa, S.Pd., M.Hum. is a doctoral student in English language education at Universitas Negeri Semarang. She obtained her bachelor degree from the English Language Education Department at Universitas Sanata Dharma Yogyakarta in 2015. She received her Master's degree in English Language Studies at Universitas Sanata Dharma Yogyakarta in 2017. She has written several research reports on discourse studies and English language teaching and actively participated in various national and international conferences since 2013 when she was still in her fourth semester as an undergraduate student. In 2014, she presented in an undergraduate conference and received a certificate as the best paper presenter with the topic adjacency pairs and politeness strategies. In 2017, she joined Asia TEFL and TEFLIN International Conference as a paper presenter and her research article was published in a book entitled *"Selected Papers; The 15th Asia TEFL and 64th TEFLIN International Conference*, published by UNY Press. In 2017, she joined a national conference and writing competition in Bali and her team won the second winner as the best research paper. In the same year, she attended an international conference in Bandung namely CONAPLIN (held by UPI) as a paper presenter. In 2018, she joined Cambodia TESOL, iTELL (held by British Council and UNS) conference and BICOLE (held by ITB) as a paper presenter. She is also a member of ALTI (*Asosiasi Linguistik Terapan Indonesia*). She actively participates in workshops and other teacher professional development. In early 2018, she joined 11 weeks of English online course held by RELO of the U.S. Embassy and she got an achievement as the most resourceful student. In early 2019, she joined the winter 2019-five-week English online course which was held by The American English (AE) E-Teacher program of U.S Department of State and FHI 360.

Appti
Asosiasi Penerbit Perguruan Tinggi Indonesia

BADAN PENGEMBANG BISNIS UNNES
UNNES PRESS
Penerbitan & Percetakan

Hak Penerbitan pada Unnes Press
Dicetak oleh Unnes Press
Jl. Kelud Raya No.2 Semarang 50232 Telp./Fax. (024)8415032

ISBN 978-602-285-212-4
9 786022 852124