

Introduction to Discourse Analysis

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INTRODUCTION

WELCOME TO DISCOURSE ANALYSIS!

In the previous semesters, I'm sure that you have already been introduced to *syntax*, *grammar*, and *linguistics*. Now as you have had a strong foundation to go further, in this subject you will be introduced to analysis of language beyond sentences. To help you understand the subject comprehensively, this module will present basic concepts and the scope of study and be the basis for your learning the other five modules. Now are you ready to go to more inspiring exploration of the beauty of language use? All right.

In the first part, you will be introduced to various definitions of discourse and discourse analysis. In other words, definitions from different perspectives will be presented in the first part. The discussion is expected to help you get a comprehensive view of discourse analysis so that you will be able to analyze discourse in appropriate contexts and perspectives. This will avoid unnecessary confusions that are normally experienced by novel discourse analysis students. The next portion of this part will be devoted to explore the scope discourse analysis can cover. In this part, you will be expected to understand topics and discussions that may be found under this subject. It does not mean that you will be expected to do all the topics and discussions. In this part, you will also be given the scope that might be covered in your study.

The second part will be used to introduce to you various systems of analysis. This is expected to help you strengthen your understanding of the definitions and the scope of study covered in this subject. By the presentation of various systems of analysis, you will be able to understand how the analyses are to be done as well as how each definition brings with it different choices of level of analysis complexity. As you go along the discussion you

will be invited to do some exercises. This is important to help you strengthen your understanding. Therefore, don't forget to do the exercises carefully. Never overlook them.

Now, let's start with your exciting intellectual journey!

LEARNING ACTIVITY 1**Toward An Analysis Of Discourse**

In this learning activity, you will be introduced to various definitions of discourse and the place of discourse in the plane of language. After doing the activity, you are expected to be able to understand the nature of discourse and develop an alternative definition of discourse in your own language.

DEFINITIONS OF DISCOURSE

It is always helpful to start studying a subject by studying the definitions. We will also take the same strategy, i.e. starting with definitions. As suggested by the name, definitions will give a kind of guide or hints about what the subject is. In additions, definitions will also give information about the components of the thing defined. However, this is not wholly true about discourse analysis. As I always say in many occasions, it is not easy to define discourse analysis (see for example, Suherdi, 1994, 1997, 2006). This is partly because there are many different, even conflicting and overlapping perspectives, ranging from a very linguistic-oriented to socio-political one (Fairclough, 1992). In other words, discourse is different thing to scholars working in different disciplines (Brown and Yule, 1983). To give you detailed illustrations, let's see how many different writers use their perspective to define discourse.

Widdowson (1984: 100), for example, defines discourse as “a communicative process by means of interaction.” This definition is very simple. For Widdowson, discourse is a communicative process manifested through interaction. The definition can be understood to say that discourse is a process of communication. In other words, there should be “something” to be communicated; there should also be the giver or sender and the receiver of that particular “thing”, and there should be an interaction between the sender and the receiver.

From the definition we can see that discourse might be in the form of spoken communication or written communication. As spoken communication, the process face-to-face, while in written communication, the sender and the receiver may be isolated by even very far distance. In the spoken forms, it can be in the forms of daily conversation such as

introduction, buying a train ticket, booking a hotel, etc., while in the written form it can be writing essays, stories, and descriptions; or sending a letter, an sms, or even business contract. In other words, a discourse can be an spoken communication or a written one.

Now, let's see other definitions, for example, that, which is given by Gumperz. Gumperz (1977: 17) defines discourse as "certain communication routines which are viewed as distinct wholes, 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." Clearly this definition gives more detailed and specific hints on what a discourse is. For Gumperz, a discourse is not only a kind of communication, but also a routine. It should be a communication that is part of our routines. Furthermore, as explicitly stated, it should also be a distinct whole. It means that it should be easily distinguished from other routines. In other words, the difference from other routines should easily be identified usually, as Gumperz said, through clearly openings and closings. Hence, if in a meeting or an encounter, more than two discourses involved, it will be easy for us to see when a discourse starts and when it ends. In addition, it will also be easy to see when other discourse starts and when it ends. Seeing the elaboration of Widdowson's definition, for example, has a distinguished opening, normally in the form of greeting, e.g. "Good morning." At its end, it normally has parting as the closing, e.g. "See you then." Likewise, a story is opened with an orientation and ends up with a resolution. To give you clearer idea, an instance of introduction and a story will be presented here.

Opening	A: Good morning. Are you here for the conference?
Exchanges of information	B: Yes. Are you? A: Yes. By the way, my name's Dea. B: Nice to meet you Dea. My name's Agni. A: Nice to meet you too, Dea. B: Where are you from? A: Surabaya. How about you? B: I'm from Medan. A: Are you from English department? B: No. I'm majoring in math

Opening	A: Good morning. Are you here for the conference?
	education. How about you?
	A: English. B: Oh my God! Look at the time. I think we need to rush for the conference.
Closing	A: Yes. See you then. B: See you.

In the conversation, we can see when the conversation starts and when it ends. We can say that there are three parts in the discourse, i.e. an opening, an exchange of information, and a closing. Now let's have a look at the structure of a story.

Orientation	Once upon a time, there was a very beautiful girl, named Cinderella. She lived with her stepmother and stepsisters. They were very bossy and let Cinderella do all the housework alone.
Complication	One day, there was an invitation from the palace. The king wanted all the girls in the country to come to a ball. Cinderella was very happy, but her stepmother and stepsisters didn't want her to go. So, they left her alone in the house.
Resolution	Fortunately, a fairy godmother came to help her. Cinderella then went to the party, and danced with the prince. He fell in love with her. Then they got married and they lived happily ever after.

Again, look at the story. It has three parts: orientation, complication, and resolution. In the orientation, the writer tells us who were involved in the story, where they took their roles, and when it happened. In other words, it tells us the context. The second part, the complication, tells us the problems the heroine was faced with. The last part tells us how the problems were solved.

With the illustrations, you are expected to have clearer picture of how the structure of a discourse distinguish a discourse from other discourses. All in all, you are expected to get initial understanding of what a discourse is. However, discourse may also take very formal and complicated forms. Fairclough (1992) identifies that in social theory and analysis, discourse has been used to refer to different ways of structuring areas of knowledge and social practice. In this perspective, discourse has been analyzed for its role as a tool of expressing ideologies, power, dominance, inequality, and bias (Van Dijk, 1998). In this definition, discourse has been defined in a very broad sense. It covers not only daily communication, but also political communication. It may cover communication of ideology, power, dominance, and even inequality and biases in society.

From the three definitions discussed in the previous sections, we can see that a discourse should be a process of communication through interaction (Widdowson, 1984), distinct routines and characterized by clear openings and closings (Gumperz, 1977), and can be used to communicate political as well as daily topics.



EXERCISES

Exercise 1

Now as you have been introduced to different definitions of discourse, try to formulate an alternative definition in your own word.

Now let's go on to how discourse is defined in the perspective of linguistics. In linguistics, discourse has also been viewed in different perspectives. It, among others, has been used to refer to different types of language used in different sorts of social situations, such as newspaper discourse, advertising discourse, classroom discourse, the discourse of medical consultation (Fairclough, 1992: 3). The definition gives you more

straightforward hints on what a discourse is. I'm sure you are familiar with newspaper contents such as editorials, news items, articles, etc. You are also familiar with advertisement both in written forms and in electronic forms on TVs or electronic billboards. Are they different from each other? Are they also different from classroom dialog between a teacher and his/her students? How about a dialog between a doctor and his/her patients? Are they all different? Again, to help you get clearer picture, look at the following examples!

This is the example of newspaper news item, taken from *The Jakarta Post*, Saturday, June 13, 2009. As you will see, the way the text is organized, the words chosen, and the grammatical items used are different from other texts that follow.

ANIMAL PROTECTION

Orangutans 'stressed' in zoos

Desy Nurhayati

THE JAKARTA POST/JAKARTA

The Center for Orangutan Protection (COP) is urging the Forestry Ministry to enhance its monitoring of how orangutans are treated in zoos across the country, after finding out most of the primates were not well looked after in their compounds.

After conducting a month-long observation in five big zoos last month, the group found the zoo managements had neglected the protected species' welfare.

The research, which was conducted in Surabaya Zoo in East Java, Taru Jurug Zoo in Surakarta, Gembira Loka Zoo in Yogyakarta, Tamansari Zoo in Bandung and Ragunan Zoo in Jakarta, gave each of the 28 orangutans observed an eight-hour examination.

The group revealed some of the primates were distressed because they lacked proper facilities while captive, including inadequate water access and a lack of areas to play.

According to a consensus by the World Association of Zoos and Aquariums, the standards of animal welfare include the right to sufficient and proper meals, physical comfort, freedom to behave normally and to be free from any physical and mental disorders.

Some activists campaigning for orangutan welfare have also argued orangutans were the human being's closest kin; therefore their needs were almost the same as that of humans, which included a variety of sceneries and privacy.

"Some of the orangutans were placed in cages alone and were not given playing facilities, thus mak-



J.P./ROCKY YUDHISTIRA

Motherly love: Hamidah, a female orangutan, is nursing her baby at the Schmutzer Primate Center in Ragunan Zoo, South Jakarta. The baby Mio, seen in this file photo, was born last Nov. 18.

ing them stressed," COP researcher Luki Wardhani told a press conference Wednesday.

She said their distress was highlighted by anomalous behaviors, such as self-inflicting pain and eating regurgitated food.

Out of the 28 orangutans, 22 were placed in enclosures resembling a small island and six others were put in concrete cages.

"Those placed in cages suffered more, because they only had limited mobility," Luki said.

The orangutans also became distressed as they were exploited.

"They were forced to perform in front of the zoo visitors, but they were not well fed," she said, adding animal shows and public feeding were also a major cause of stress.

Their state of distress made them

more prone to diseases because they became less immune, she said.

According to the group, the zoo with the worst conditions for orangutans was Taru Jurug Zoo, while the conditions in Ragunan and Gembira Loka looked better.

COP captivity campaign manager Seto Hari Wibowo said zoos were meant to be a conservation place for endangered species because they were also threatened in their natural habitat due to rampant forest destructions.

"Zoos should be places we can rely on to protect orangutans, but ... they have failed to support conservation efforts because they do not take good care of the species," he said.

Therefore, the group urged the government to enhance its monitoring of orangutan conservation in zoos.

The next is an example of classified advertisement, again taken from a newspaper, i.e. *The Jakarta Post*, Saturday, June 13, 2009. Again, look at the organization, the words used, and the layout of the texts. Again, it is different from other texts that follow.

ACCOMMODATION

LB BULLUS, SOUTH JKT., short/long stay, swim pool, gated area, daily room service, laundry, breakfast, call: 081280843909

ADVERTISEMENTS

FOR THE BETTER OF CLASSIFIED AD in The Jakarta Post. Just Call/sms : ERWAN. 0810707337 P/hfax: 021-7311224/73448923

ANNOUNCEMENTS

AA - ALCOHOLICS ANONYMOUS
For meetings, call 081-913-4556 ; or See our website <http://aa-indonesia.org>

APARTMENTS



Type: RENT (YOUR NAME), text to:
0856 111 9000

****THE BEST HOMES FOR LEASE IN CBD****
Cityloft USD 1,100 86m2 Strategic location. Good for business and residential. Call 081385860055
Somerset Grand Citra USD 1,700 139m2 2+1br Exclusive. Mega Kuningan call 0817748862***
Puri Casablanca USD 1,200 110m2 3+4Twr 2 B Mid/loft Great Parks for kids call 0816754448**

0811.918191: Pakuwonans, Senayan, City Sudir, Rm/Mansion, The Capital, The Peak, Setiabudi, Casa Blanca, Golf - Hill email: intergraha@gmail.com

APT HAMPTONS PARK PONDOK INDAH
2br+study Nicely furnished. \$1500/mo. 1 yr min. 0816423517 / 70308900

Citylofts Sudirman, For off - Res, 104m2 23rd Fl, Selection Unit, Excellent View. Sale - Rent. Call: 081380040690

APT KUSUMA CANDRA, Prime Loc in SCBD, For Rent, 2br, 120sqm, Pool View, Furn High Floor. Handover 0817177.998

Apartment 3 br with 2 toilet FF in Jkt CBD. Handover address. 3 to 5 min to tol road /

For Rent / Sale : Kempinsky Apartment F37 280m2, 4+1Bdr, Connected to Grand Indonesia Mall. Call : 081330796836 or 08138008787

For Rent Apt Puri Imperium 17th Floor, 3br 2 bath, Maidroom+bath fully furnished, city view Call : Santy 021-46599233 / 081386016107

For Rent ne Essence Apt Keb Baru 2Br 71-85sqm furnish excel loc. Price US\$1,200-1,400 Call : 0811887752

For Rent Casablanca Apartment, Kuningan 1/23P4GPH Bedrooms, size 72-4725om+FF Call: 8310046, 081 8989 905, 081 6186 8250

For Sale/Rent Istana Sahid Apartment Sudirman 2Br (129m2) & 3Br (178m2) FF Nice location Pls call: 0818 - 170506

Kempinsky (Grand Indonesia) ** Brandnew 3Bdr (250sqm) Furn / Unit. Best View, Nice Interior Angles 0811919741, 0818146411

MARBELLA APARTMENT Residence Jl.Bangka, Kemang - Unit B.307 Full Furnished, All New, Kitch + 2 Bedrooms 1500USD/month (nego) Contact Natalia 08567884839

MEDITERANEA MARINA ANCC Lt.25, 45m, 2KT, Furnish, View city & pool Jual / sewa 08164846088, 33688715

On Lease, The Kempinsky Residence located in Thamrin, 25th Unit Fl, FF, 2 Beds and Casablanca Mansion located in Casablanca 19th Fl unit 14,3 Beds, FF. Call : Juliana 08129568837, 94260337

Pearl Garden, 4+1Br, 400m, Top floor, UF, Great view. Lmt'd **Century 21 Ambassador** **0817 748 862 / 0817 9933 943**

QUICK TO SELL at Pakuwonans Residence. Penthouse 6 Br, Townhouse 4br, V. East. Loci : 9808-4828, 0813-1042-6525

Rent / Sale : Four Season, Syalendra, Casablanca, Pavillion, K.Chandra, Pondok Indah etc. Etzabeth 0816.730501

Senayan Residence, 185m2, 3BdrM, 2Bthrm, Fully Furnished, beautiful designer interior, private lift, double glazed. Many extras, US\$ 2,500/mnth. Call Owner : 0811925887

Very Nice Apt at The Peak, 3bdr 159m2 US\$2300/mth, 3bdr 232m2 US\$3200/mth Please call : 7510489, 7514472, 08818184405

BUSINESS

Growing Local **arsitek** co seek business

SAT - TOEFL- IELTS - GMAT Preparation Math / Verbal / Writing, Math For IB / GCE / IGCSE / International Curriculum Ph.71238550 Jl.D Raya No.4 Tabet

FOR RENT

CIPETE. Beautifully renovated large bungalow. 5 min to Kemang, 20 to CBD, 4brms, 23 KW, large garden, gazebo, 10x5m pool, 2 tel. lines. Call 081314705742

FOR SALE

Thamrin Residence Apartment : Center Jakarta CBD Area : Best Tower - Best View Nego 1 Contact : Mr.Iwan 0815304451

FURNITURE

FOR SALE- NEW ITEM & USED. Furnitr, Watch, Paintings, Accsrs, Etc. Pls call 0812137588 16 By Appt. Only/Krisna

GARAGE SALES

100's of Showroom Samples / Export Quality / Rattan & Wood Baskets / Hampers/Accessories/ Ceramics / Furniture / Sofas / Office Desk & Equipment/Household - Treadmill, Must Sell Open 10.00 to 16.00 - June 13/14 - June 20/21, Jl.Martimbang V no.4, Keb.Baru. Tel : 726-2322, email: movingsalems@yahoo.co.id

Moving Out, Household things for sale only Friday, Saturday & Sunday Jl.Haji Saidi I No.39, Cipete, Jaksel

GARMENTS



Sweaters Rp. 89,900 (Usual Rp. 800,000)! Jackets Rp. 199,900 (Usual Rp. 1,000,000)! Lthr Jackets Rp. 299,900 (Usual Rp. 2,500,000)! Shirts Rp. 89,900 (Usual Rp. 700,000)!

BRIGHT HS.SW.Pool, 5Bdr+4Bath, garden Big, Livr.Kitchen-Furn, Quiet etc in Kemang \$1250M. Call 0813.144.601-85 No Broker

Bainese Style House, Kemang, 1000m, 4Bdr, 3Bth, Pool with Waterfall, Gazebo, Fish Pond. For Sale/Rent Min 2yrs. Call : 08176950018

Bunch Golf Loka Indah 3bdr, 2bthr, new renov gdn 24hrs sec, PHJau 5bdr, big gdn, pool 6 cars garage. Ambsdr Permits 081513334295

Charming hse for rent at Jl.Jaya Mandala IV/29E. Quiet & flood-free 4Br on one floor, pool & pretty garden 24/7 maintenance service by owner. Furnished/unfurnished. Phone Yaji at 08121179999

Expatriate Housing Assistance help you to find property in Kemang, Kembangan, Cipete, \$1,500 - \$5,000 / mth, 4-5Bdr, Pool. First choice Kemang Ph 7180255 / 99029265

FOR RENT!! Marbella, Kemang, 1bdr, 38m2, furnished minimalist min. 1yr, call 021-93068168, 0816-737788

For Lease, Newly Renovated House, in Jl.Ampera 2 No.118, Land : 750m, Bld: 650m, 4Rms +1study, Private Compound with 24hours Security, Marble Tiles, Teakwood, Pool, Generator & large Kitchen. Price US\$3,200-/month incl Tax. contact : 0812.9001818 or 70702349 (Hans)

For Rent : An Exclusive 2 storay house w/ area 848m2, located at Permata intan III blok U6, Permata Hijau w/4bedrooms, reading room, 6 cars garage, swimming pool, huge living rooms & all bedrooms w/Italian - marble, beautiful - garden, very quite & 24 hours security, Negotiate USD 3.750/month. Pls contact direct owner 0816836888 (MrRay)

House at Exec, Paradiso Ji.PAntaras South Jkt, Expats area, 4Br, US\$ 1950/mth. Incl : FFurn, 24 hrs security, SC, Maint, Cable TV, Complex, S.pool, T.court, Playground, Pet ok Widodo 0816807190

Jeruk Purut - 2 Storey - 500+600sqm, 5bdr+4bth-s.pool-marble-quite area Yudy : 0818194648 / 5213006 Ray white

JL MDR 1000, Rp. 2.4 Mln. Dtdm - 4bdr - 2bthr - 2bth

Another kind of advertisement is electronic advertisement as can be seen below. Again, it has different layout, different organization, and different linguistic features.



Next is another example of advertisement, i.e. the billboard. Again, you will find the unique characteristics of this kind of discourse.



Now, look at another kind of discourse, i.e. classroom discourse. For that purpose, look at the segment of a classroom discourse (taken from Suherdi, 1994). In the segment, we can see that the segment has an observable structure. At least, we can see it as consisting of teacher's question, student's answer, teacher's request to repeat, student's repeated answer, teacher's second request to repeat, student's silent, teacher's explanation. In the segment, we see the teacher's insistence in asking questions. This is because the teacher, as normally happens in the classroom, is the real source of information. Besides, the teacher's responsibility does not lie in asking questions, but rather in explaining the concept being asked. However, before explaining the materials, it is imperative for teachers to, first of all, check if the students already know the materials.

T What do you do with a LETTER?
 S6: Weather! ...6...
 T: Pardon?
 S6: Weather! ...1...
 T: About the weather? ...3...
 Ss: ...
 T: Uh yes, okay.
 sometimes we write about the
 weather in letter,
 especially when we write
 write from MELBOURNE,
 we usually say something about
 the weather, don't we?

The last example, a dialog between a doctor and his/her patient, at a glance seems to have the same form as that between a teacher and his/her students as shown above. In fact, although taking the same form (i.e. dialog), it is very much different from the teacher-students dialog. As can be seen in the transcription, the questions asked by the doctor are genuine, i.e. the questions that the answers are only known by the patient. To get the clear idea, look at the transcription below!

- P: Good evening, doctor!
 D: Good evening, Sir. What’s the problem?
 P: I get a severe pain in my chest.
 D: Do you have any history of heart problems?
 P: Yes. I had a heart attack last Monday?
 D: O. K. Now, would you take your clothes off? Let’s check what happens.
 P: O. K.

Again, through the illustrations, you are expected to get a clear picture of various discourses commonly found in our society. At this point, it is hoped that you have had an appropriate understanding of the nature of discourse. However, a brief discussion of the place of discourse in the plane of social interaction will be presented at the end of this section. In systemic linguistics, especially in the systemiotic approach (See Suherdi, 2006) discourse has been considered to be one of the three strata on the language plane in social interaction (Ventola, 1988, cf. Martin, 1992). To make it simple, a schematic representation is presented here.

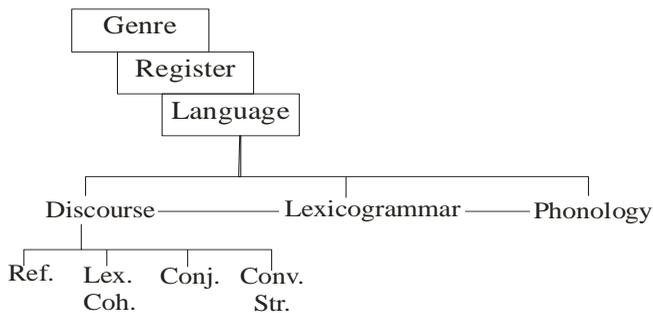


Figure 1.1
 The Place of Discourse on the Language plane

As can be seen in Figure 1.1, discourse is the highest level in language plane. It is above lexicogrammar and phonology. That is why discourse is also considered to be unit of language beyond sentence-level.

To conclude the discussion, let’s look back at the definitions of discourse. To have a confident understanding, the criteria put forward by Van Dijk (1997) will be presented here to help clarify what and what is not a

discourse, i.e. (1) it must be “language in use”; (2) it must involve the communication of beliefs; (3) it must be coupled with interaction, and (4) it must justify itself to other discourses. In other words, discourse must be authentic language, not invented one, in an interaction and communicate what the interlocutors think, believe, feel, want, etc. Still in this relation, Schiffrin (1994) emphasizes that discourse must be a collection of inherently contextualized units of language use, and not merely a collection of de-contextualized units of language structure.

Exercise 2

Again, as you have been given illustrations of discourse, list spoken and written discourses that you are familiar with.

Answer Keys To Exercises

Exercise 1

It can be formulated in many alternative wordings, among others:

- 1) Discourse is a language communication in a real situation.
- 2) Discourse is a communicative activity in systematic way.
- 3) Discourse is a communication using language with certain rules of opening, talking/writing, and closing.
- 4) Etc.

Exercise 2

- 1) Spoken discourse may include:
Conversations, storytelling, spoken announcement, debate, spoken invitation, warning, etc.
- 2) Written discourse may include:
Newspaper contents, magazine, announcement, memo, advertisement, letters, leaflet, etc.

Such as:

Discourse analysis is the examination of texts from various disciplines in order to give light to interpreting of those texts within the contexts of each discipline or combination of disciplines.

In the next part, you will be introduced to definitions and historical background of discourse analysis and its relationship with other disciplines. After doing the activity, you are expected to be able to understand the definition of discourse analysis and mention the scope that can be covered by discourse analysis.

DISCOURSE ANALYSIS AND THE SCOPE OF STUDY

Now, as you have understood the nature of discourse, you will be introduced to the nature of discourse analysis and its scope of study. To give you sufficient information, the discussion will be presented together with its historical background. This is intended to give you not only the boundaries of the scope and the relationship with other disciplines, but also how and why those areas are covered in the scope of study of discourse analysis. For that purpose, some review of how discourse analysis is developed, and what concepts and disciplines have been parts of the development will be presented prior to the presentation of the definition of discourse analysis.

The first scholar whose thoughts will be discussed here is Teun A. van Dijk (1985a). His contribution to this field has been very productive (See for example van Dijk, 1985a, b, c, and d). For that reason, his thought will be summarized and presented for you here. **First**, this prominent proponent of discourse analysis thinks that discourse analysis is the combination of an old and a new discipline, that is to say, classical rhetoric (the art of good speaking) and new developments in humanities and social sciences. Hence, its origin, as he said, can be traced back to the study of language, public speech, and literature more than 2000 years ago. As you may also know that in the past, rhetoric was very popular and played important parts in the planning, organizing, operating, and performing public speech in political and legal settings. However, after some important revivals in the Middle Ages and the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, rhetoric lost much of its importance in school curricula and academic research. In this conjunction, he has the following to say:

”The emergence of historical and comparative linguistics at the beginning of the nineteenth century and the birth of structural analysis of language in at the beginning of the twentieth century replaced rhetoric as the primary discipline of humanities. Fragments of rhetoric survived only in school textbooks of speech and communication, on one hand, and in stylistics or the study of literary language, on the other.”

Parallels to this decline, according to van Dijk, new developments in several fields of the humanities and the social sciences eventually led to the emergence of this subject, that is discourse analysis.

In spite of its long historical stance, van Dijk believed (1985a) that the origin of modern discourse analysis began in 1960s and was signaled by the publication of (appeared in Communication 4) a new critical analysis of Prop by Bremond, an application of modern linguistics and semantics to literature by Todorov, the well-known extension to the analysis of film by Metz, the famous rhetorical analysis of publicity pictures by Barthes, and the first introduction to the new discipline of semiotics, *sémiologie*, also by Barthes. A special issue (Communications 8) which was then published after the aforementioned series, was completely dedicated to the structural analysis of narrative. As van Dijk commented, although the background, orientations, objects of research, and methods of all the authors were still far from homogeneous, the common interest in discourse analysis within the wider framework of a linguistically inspired semiotics influenced and provided coherence in these first attempts.

Along with these attempts, in the other side of the ocean, Hymes published an influential book of readings *Language in Culture and Society* (van Dijk, 1985: 3). Although there are obvious differences between the two sides, yet the interaction between structural linguistics and anthropology appeared to be very fruitful for the initial interest in the study of language use, discourse, and communication forms. Hymes' collection, as van Dijk said, not only contained the great names of linguistic anthropology (or anthropological linguistics) such as Boas, Greenberg, Goodenough, Levi-Strauss, Malinowski, Firth, Sapir, and many others, but also the first collection of work from what soon be called sociolinguistics (Brown, Bernstein, Gumperz, Bright, and others). It means that not only discourse, style, forms of address, and verbal art, but also the social, cultural, and historical contexts, and the variations of language use can to be studied systematically.

Other contributions that van Dijk mentioned include Chomsky's generative-transformational grammar (1955) and Pike's tagmemic approach to language and human behavior (1967), Hartmann's text linguistics (1964), and Harris' linguistic discourse analysis (1952), Palek's hyper-syntax (1968), and Holliday's "systemic grammar" (1961). From this historical review, van Dijk draws some conclusions. First, the early interest in systemic discourse analysis was essentially a descriptive and structuralistic enterprise, mainly at the boundaries of

linguistics and anthropology. Second, this interest primarily involved indigenous or popular discourse genres, such as folktales, myths, and stories, as well as some ritual interaction forms. Third, the functional analysis of sentence and discourse structure as well as the first attempts towards text linguistics often took place independently of or against the increasingly prevailing paradigm of generative-transformational grammars. Both the formal sophistication and the inherent limitations of this approach to language would decisively influence the development of discourse analysis and other studies during the 1970s.

In 1970s, van Dijk noted several important contributions which wholly and explicitly dealt with systematic discourse analysis as an independent orientation of research with and across several disciplines. However, as he highlighted, this development did not come alone. There were several important theoretical and methodological inspirations shared by discourse analysis. **First**, a critical extension or refutation of formal, context-free transformational grammars that to some extent gave room for sociolinguistics to take shape in the late of 1960s. **Second** was the discovery in linguistics the philosophical work by Austin, Grice, and Searl about speech acts. **Third**, within the framework of grammatical theory itself, it was repeatedly maintained that grammars should not merely provide structural characterizations of isolated sentences, which, with other arguments, led to the development of text grammars, mainly in Germany and other European countries. **Last**, but not least, is the development of artificial intelligence, which stemmed from the extension of cognitive research to models of memory for texts and of process for text understanding and production.

Some development is also noted by van Dijk. First, increasing attention to the analysis of everyday conversation in sociology which served as a critical refutation of the prevailing macro sociological approaches to social structure. In later development, not only conversations but also dialogs in the classroom or other institutional settings received extensive interest, such as in discourse analysis approach to classroom talk by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975; for further development of this approach to ESL classroom discourse, see Suherdi, 2006). Finally, the return of these developments to the starting point, i.e. anthropology as indicated by the increasingly autonomous orientation of ethnographic research on communicative events, labeled the "ethnography of speaking" of the "ethnography of communication"

developed by Hymes, Gumperz, and others, and other further developments such as that by Halliday, Martin, and others in 1990s and 2000s.

Exercise 3

Again, as you have been given a comprehensive review of historical background discourse analysis, list the names of scholars contributing to the developments of discourse analysis up to this point of our discussion.

This prolonged review of historical background is intended to help you to understand not only the definitions, but also the history and its relationship with other disciplines. Now, we shall look at some alternative answers to our question “What is discourse analysis?” For this purpose, alternative definition given by Douglas A. Demo (2001) has been examined and will be taken as our object of discussion. Demo defines discourse analysis as:

“the examination of language use by members of a speech community. It involves looking at both language form and language functions 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.”

There are at least five points that can be further discussed in relation to the definition, including:

1. Discourse analysis is the examination of language use by members of a speech community

This point means that discourse analysis deals with the examination of language use, i.e. language as it is used, not language as a dormant system. In addition, this also suggests that the users are the members of a speech community. This might mean that the examination criteria should include those aspects of use in its natural settings as really used by the members of a speech community. To illustrate this, you might remember that once in our classroom, there were some cases in which we were taught to construct sentences in isolation without even thinking of whether these sentences were really used in their life. Discourse

analysis does not deal with this kind of language exercises, but rather the real language as used by doctors and patient in a medical consultation, or teacher-students dialog in real classrooms or by a letter writer when he/she sends a letter, an essay writer when he/she writes essays, etc.

2. It involves looking at both language form and language function

It is clear from that statement that discourse analysis concerns with both language form, including the expressions and the structures. In one sense, your memory of analyzing a sentence structure is, though very minimum, helpful to understand how discourse analysis concerns with the language form. Of course, in discourse analysis, it is not as simple as is in the sentence structure. It more deals with text grammar or text linguistics.

The second object of analysis is the function, the language function. Hence, it is not enough to analyze the form, but rather you should go further to see the functions the texts do in the communication. In many cases, the same sentences serve different functions, depending on the speech act futures of the utterances they use in the communication. For example, this sentence “Do you understand English?” may mean that the speaker is asking whether you speak or understand English. But, in other cases, it may mean that the speaker is getting angry because you are insisting doing or not doing something that he/she wants you to/not to do. Evidently, this interrogative sentence is serving two different functions.

3. It includes the study of both spoken interaction and written texts

Our review of the historical background of discourse analysis has given you some hints that it deals with not only written texts, but also spoken interaction or spoken text. In this respect, we may say that we can have spoken discourse as well as written discourse analyses. That’s why this module has been organized in this perspective, i.e. spoken (modules 2 and 3) and written discourses (4 and 5).

4. 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.

This point clearly means that discourse analysis identifies linguistic features that are particular to certain genres or text types. For example, texts in descriptive genres are characterized by simple present tense, especially linking verbs, modifiers + noun constructions, etc.; while

those in recount genres by past tense, adverb of places and manners, etc (For detailed discussion of these genres in Indonesian curricula, see Suherdi, 2009 and Permendiknas No. 22 Tahun 2006). In addition, it also deals with social and cultural factors pertained to the texts analyzed. Every text has its own social and cultural contents and constraints. A descriptive normally socially functions to describe something or someone. In a case of lost child, for example, police will need a description of the child in order for them to be able to seek to find the child. In the meantime, a recount functions to tell somebody past events or experiences. With the same case, the parents of the child need to tell the police what they were doing or did the last time he and she saw the child.

5. A discourse analysis of written texts might include a study of topic development and cohesion across the sentences; and

With this point, it means that in analyzing written texts, discussions usually include a study of topic: how a topic is developed, where it is located in the sentence, and what the writer intends to do with that way of placing, etc. Besides the topic, discourse analysis also deals with cohesion, that is, how components of text interrelate to each other to build a whole unity.

6. An analysis of spoken language might focus on these aspects plus turn taking practices, opening and closing sequences of social encounters, or narrative structure.

In the meantime, in analyzing the spoken discourse, apart from those aspects, it also deals with turn taking practices, i.e. how each speaker take their turn to speak; opening and closing, i.e. how speakers open and close their conversation in different social activities or encounters; and how each encounter is structured.

Exercise 4

Now, before closing, as you have been given a definition discourse analysis and the elaboration of the key points, write (1) important points of discourse analysis definition in your own words, and (2) find other definitions of discourse analysis that other scholars made in other sources or references.

As for the scope of the study, we will be talking about two sub-topics: the scope of discourse analysis study and that of which this module will cover. In relation with the former, you will be introduced to the realm of field study that might be and has been covered by discourse analysis. In the meantime, in discussing the latter, you will be invited to a discussion of the coverage of this module, i.e. the delimitation that we will make in order to put this module in a realistic and productive perspective.

As we have seen in the review of discourse analysis historical background and definition, discourse analysis is closely related and owes many areas of studies supports and contributions in its development into its nowadays status as we know it as an in dialog paragraphendent discipline. On the other sides of its existence, discourse analysis also contributes much to many areas of discipline such as law, history and historiography, mass communication, poetics, clinical psychology, social psychology, and political analysis. To give you a clear idea of how it contributes to those disciplines, again, what van Dijk (1985) has presented will be summarized and presented here.

In the field of law, van Dijk considered that discourse analysis has been contributive in much of its object domain such as laws, legal (inter-)action, and legal documents; in history and hitoriography, in its texts and spoken discourse forms; and in mass communication, it deals with mass-mediated messages and their condition of production and perception, and in developing media texts and talks. In addition, the relation between discourse and pictures, photographs, or films are also analyzed through this the use of discourse analysis. In the meantime, poetics, interested in literary texts and dramatic dialogs, has been closely associated with the structuralist discourse analysis; while clinical psychology has paid attention to therapeutic discourse, and social psychology to the interaction of cognitive and social aspects of persuasive communication and attitude change, to the situational analysis of verbal interaction, and to discourse-mediated formation of social representations and attributions. At last, in politics, it deals with political analysis of discourse.

Of course what has been presented above is only parts of what really can be covered by discourse analysis. As van Dijk himself admitted, "there are more disciplines involved in discourse analysis than could be represented here." It suffices, however, for the purpose of this module, to end this

discussion with van Dijk's comments on the increasingly multidisciplinary nature of discourse analysis as he has the following to say:

"This increasing multidisciplinary integration has led to the emergence of the new interdiscipline of discourse analysis as an independent field in the humanities and social sciences."

This remark, to some extent, helps to explain why there so many different, even some are conflicting, definitions of discourse and discourse analysis. This is because there are so many disciplines involved in discourse analysis. That is also why discourse analysis in practice takes different theoretical perspectives and analytic approaches such as speech act theory, interactional sociolinguistics, communication ethnography, pragmatics, conversation analysis, and variation analysis (Schiffrin, 1994). But, with the increasing integration of this perspective into a multidisciplinary perspective, in the future, we might be able to have more uniting and agreed definitions.

The presentation of so many fields of study that can be covered by discourse analysis is not intended to give the picture of the scope of study that you will go through, but rather to show you how wide the scope of study that discourse analysis could reach. However, it is too ambitious to ask you to cope with that large coverage. Besides, it is wise to have you devote your time to explore discourse analysis and its application in analyzing texts involved the processes of teaching and learning. Hence, the scope of this module will be restricted to studying discourse analysis in analyzing teacher-students classroom dialogs, students' spoken language performances, and students' written texts (works). To give you a clearer idea, the topics will be discussed in the rest of this section.

Exercise 5

Now, before going on to discuss the scope of this module, as you have been given a brief summary of how discourse analysis relate to other disciplines, (1) write important points of the relationship covered by the scope of study of discourse analysis, and (2) try to develop your own definitions of discourse analysis in a multidisciplinary perspective.

*Answer Keys To Exercises**Exercise 3*

Such as van Dijk, Bremond, Todorov, Metz, Barthes, Hymes, Boas, Greenberg, Berstein, Gumpers, Widdowson, Halliday and Sinclair and Coulthard.

Exercise 4

- 1) Discourse analysis is the examination of language use by members of a speech community, meaning it is the language that is actually used which becomes the concern of discourse analysis, not a dead language, or segments of texts which are not used.
- 2) It involves both language form and function, meaning that discourse analysis is concerned not only with the structure or grammar or expressions of language but also the functions they carry in the real communication.
- 3) It includes the study of spoken and written texts, meaning discourse analysis covers all forms of texts, spoken or spoken and written ones.
- 4) It identifies linguistic features characterizing the genres, meaning that each genre has its own linguistic feature. Discourse analysis is able to identify those features.

Exercise 5

It can be formulated in many alternative wordings, among others:

- 1) With law, it can be used in analyzing legal actions, interactions, and documents.
- 2) With history, in analyzing historical spoken discourse and texts.
- 3) With mass communication, in analyzing mass-mediated messages, the development of texts.
- 4) With poetics, in analyzing literary texts.
- 5) Etc.

Such as:

Discourse analysis is the examination of texts from various disciplines in order to give light to interpreting of those texts within the contexts of each discipline or combination of disciplines.



S U M M A R Y

Discourse has been defined in many ways, and based on many different perspectives. That is why there are so many differences, and even some are conflicting, definitions in the literature. However, it is all about systematic ways of using language in real life situations. It should be systematic in the sense that it has certain ways of opening, dealing with the matters, and closing. In addition, the structure of discourse is also different from one another. In some narrative, the structure may take orientation, complication, and resolution order; while in recount orientation, series of events, and reorientation. In real communication, discourse can be in spoken, and in written forms. Conversations, debates, and teaching are normally conveyed in spoken forms, while letters, readings, and expository texts are in written forms. To sum up, discourse should be a form of communication, a routine, can be spoken or written, and in an interaction.

In linguistics, discourse has been used to refer to different use of language in different social situations such as newspaper, advertising, classroom, and medical consultations. In systemiotic approach in Hallidayan systemic linguistics, discourse is considered to be one of the three strata, together with lexicogrammar and phonology, of language plane. It can be studied in terms of its reference, cohesion, logical conjunction, and conversational structure.

In the meantime, discourse analysis may be defined as the examination of language use by members of a speech community. As indicated in the definition, that the analysis is beyond sentence level, in both spoken and written forms, including linguistic features as well as social and cultural factors. To really understand the definition, it is wise for students to read the historical background of this newly developed discipline.

Based on the definition, the scope of the study of discourse analysis in general and that which will be covered in module has also been discussed and presented. Hence, it has been made clear that, although the scope of study covered by discourse analysis may be very broad, this module will be restricted to analyzing discourses involved in classroom English teaching-learning processes. For it is not only beyond the reach of this module, but also far from being relevant for English education students like you.

**FORMATIVE TEST 1** _____

Choose the correct answer!

- 1) In a definition of discourse, this term is very central....
 - A. language structure
 - B. language usage
 - C. language use
 - D. language development

- 2) A discourse is normally characterized by specific....
 - A. mechanics
 - B. structure
 - C. performance
 - D. competence

- 3) Discourse is a communicative routine meaning....
 - A. incidental
 - B. accidental
 - C. regular
 - D. segmental

- 4) Discourse analysis is particularly concerned with the analysis of language at the ... level.
 - A. word and morpheme
 - B. phrase and compound words
 - C. clause and its components
 - D. text and its characteristics

- 5) In its history, discourse analysis was affected by the development of the following disciplines, except
 - A. anthropology
 - B. physics
 - C. rhetoric
 - D. sociology

Check your answer with the Key which is provided at the end of this module, and score your right answer. Then use the formula below to know your achievement level of the lesson in this module.

$$\text{Level of achievement} = \frac{\text{The right answer}}{\text{Total score}} \times 100\%$$

Meaning of level of achievement: 90 – 100% = very good
80 – 89% = good
70 – 79% = average
< 70% = bad

If your level of achievement reaches 80% or more, you can move to the next Unit. Good! But if your level of mastery is less than 80%, you have to study again this unit, especially parts you haven't mastered.

LEARNING ACTIVITY 2**System of Discourse Analysis**

In this learning activity, you will be invited to see and learn the systems of analysis commonly used in discourse analysis. In other words, after finishing this activity, you are expected to be able to explain the system of analysis. However, as has been explicitly stated at the end of Learning Activity 2, our focus will be on discourses involved in English classrooms. For that reason, discussion on the system of analysis of natural discourse will be confined to some introductory remarks. The majority of this activity will be devoted to discussion on classroom discourse.

A. SYSTEM OF DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

In relation to the discussion of the aforementioned topic, we will refer mostly to the work of Flowerdew (2002) for written discourse analysis, Edmondson (1981) for natural spoken language, and my own work (Suherdi, 2006) for classroom discourse analysis. Flowerdew identified four approaches to discourse analysis, including genre analysis, corpus-based studies, contrastive rhetoric, and ethnographic/naturalistic approaches. In the meantime, Edmondson (1981: 54-74) identified four systems of analysis of spoken discourse, i.e. speech acts sequences, tagmemic model, and rank-scale model; while Suherdi (2006), after comparing various approaches, proposes the use of systemiotic approach to classroom discourse analysis.

As has been stated earlier, the focus of this module is on classroom discourse analysis, and discussion on non-classroom discourses, again, will be restricted to introductory remarks. For that reason, in this section, approaches identified by Flowerdew and Edmondson will be discussed at a glance; while the systemiotic approach will be given more room at the rest of this section. Their works will be summarized and presented below.

The four approaches identified by Flowerdew (2002) are more focused on written discourse, especially academic discourses. First model is genre analysis. Starting with works in 1960s on formal feature of broad language varieties and register (e.g. Barber, 1962; Halliday, McIntosh, and Stevens, 1964), and steadily became narrower and deeper (Swales, 1990), this approach reached maturity with the book-length studies of Swales (1990) in

academic discourse, and Bhatia (1993) in business, academic, and legal genres. More recent studies (e.g. Freeman and Medway, 1994) has been more contextually than linguistically grounded. Other important work has also been conducted in Australia (e.g. Martin, 1985, Derewianka, 1990, Christie, 1986).

The second approach is contrastive rhetoric which is the study of the similarities and differences between two languages and how the influence of the L1 may affect the way individuals express themselves in the L2. This approach goes back to Kaplan (1966), Clyne (1987), Connor, 1996, Ventola, 1992; Ventola and Maureen, 1996). To get a concise yet somprehensive idea of the rationale for this approach, look at what Grabe and Kaplan (1996: 109) explain:

What is clear is that there are rhetorical differences in the written discourse of various languages, and that those differences need to be brought to consciousness before a writer can begin to understand what he or she must do in order to write in a more native-like manner (or in a manner that is more acceptable to native speakers of the target language).

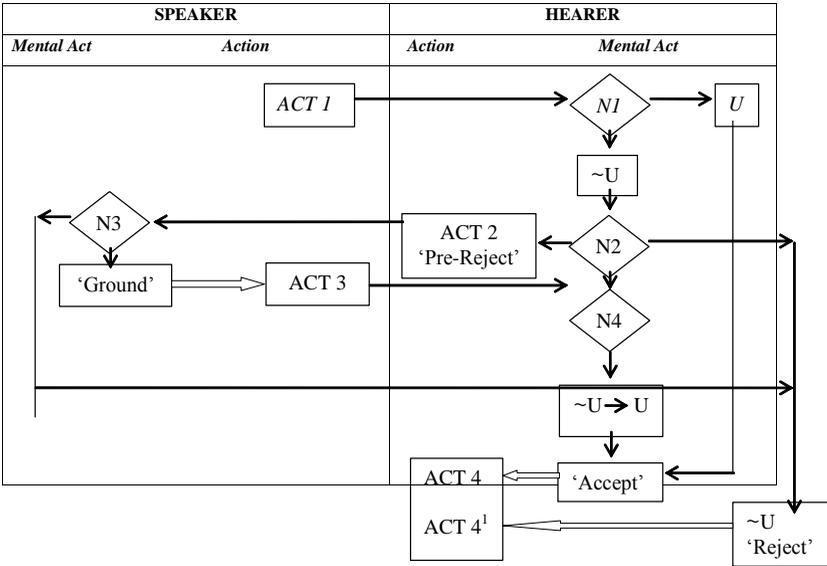
The writers argue that there is a “preferred expectations about the way information should be organized.” This expectation, in their opinion (p. 109), can be examined and the resulting description can form the basis of pedagogic materials.

The third is corpus-based studies which are concerned with the collection, structuring, and analyzing large amounts of discourse, usually with the assistance of computers. Processing includes the operations of quantifying (counting the number of words or phrases), concordancing (producing lists of given linguistic items with sufficient context to determine syntactic, semantic, and paradigmatic properties), and parsing (syntactic analysis). Avalaible works include, among others, Sinclair and Collin Cobuild project (Sinclair, 1991).

The last is ethnography, or more broadly, naturalistically influenced approaches view texts as only one of many features of social situation, which includes equally the values, roles, assumptions, attitudes, and pattern of behavior of the participants, or texts producers or receivers (Flowerdew and Miller, 1996;l Van Lier 1988; Candlin and Plum, 1999). Ethnography emphasizes direct observation, interview, and other modes of analyzing the situational context, in addition to textual analysis.

In the meantime, Edmondson (1981: 54-74), as has been mentioned earlier, identified four systems of analysis of spoken discourse, i.e. speech acts sequences, tagmemic model, and rank-scale model. **First**, the analysis of speech act sequences is developed by Rehbein and Ehlich (e.g. 1975, 1976) based on the model of the interactional process presented by Labov (1971: 209; 1972: 122-3) and relevant to the notion of the tied or adjacency pair. In this analysis, it is argued that an adjacency pair, in the case of “rejection” in the conversational unit is not brought to a potential point of closure, but rather moved to a sequence of speech acts, and not having a closed pair of such acts. The model, according to Edmondson, is essentially one of psychological reconstruction, and the decision nodes allow of different paths through the psychological network. To help you get the visual picture of the network, the schematic representation developed by Rehbein and Ehlich (1975), as adapted by Edmondson (1981), will be presented here.

The representation can be understood as saying that an act in the part of speaker, through a mental process [N1] may directly be understood [U], and finally result in an accept which brings about Act 4; but, it can also not be understood [~U], followed by another mental process [N2], which is followed by another act [Act2] in the form of ‘pre-reject’, at the same time, in the part of the speaker, another mental process [N3] takes place and result in other act [Act3], which is then followed by other mental process [N4], followed by a non-understanding then understanding which then result in an accept. In the meantime, there is also a probability if the third mental process [N3] result in a non-understanding and then reject [~U ‘reject’] which then brings about Act 4¹.



Tagmemic model is developed by Klammer (1973) to establish the 'Foundation for a theory of dialog structure.' In this model, language is to be viewed as social behavior. The analysis is concerned with the internal structure of different types of dialog paragraphs (Dialog paragraphs). Dialog paragraphs are conversational units which combine in certain ways in conversations. The central claim, as highlighted by Edmondson (1981: 61), is that an utterance as an element in a DIALOG PARAGRAPH has both grammatical function as an initiating, countering, or resolving unit, and a lexemic function such as question, remark, or proposal. The relationship between the two is one of 'manifestation' such that for example an Initiating Speech (Sp-I) may be made manifest in a Question, and the following Resolving Speech (Sp-R) in an Answer. Such a pair forms a non-compound, simple DIALOG PARAGRAPH. The lexemic pairs given are:

- Question – Answer
- Remark – Evaluation
- Proposal – Response

Besides, the simple, there is also complex Dialog paragraphs, in which an Initiating slot is followed by one of more ‘countering’ slots (Sp-Cs), and the occurrence or non-occurrence of Resolving unit (Sp-R) will determine whether or not the resultant DIALOG PARAGRAPH is itself ‘resolved’ or ‘unresolved’. If the final exchange contains a Sp-R, the whole DIALOG PARAGRAPH is ‘resolved’. The examples are by no means exhaustive; however, the discussion will be ended up with a summarizing comment put forward by Edmondson as he said that the distinction between ‘grammatical’ and ‘lexemic’ categories is far from clear and problems of identification and application with this model are considerable. However, a tagmemic model such as Klammer’s offers a means of combining the notions of interactional structure and illocutionary force, and a notion such as that of ‘discourse paragraph’ would seem to have more general and complex structural potential than that of the tied or adjacency pair.

The last analysis is the rank-scale proposed by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), but because this will be discussed extensively when we discuss the framework offered in Suherdi (2006), the discussion will be presented later in the next section.



EXERCISES

Exercise 6

Now, before going on to discuss Sinclair and Cluthard’s system of analysis and its problematic issues, (1) write important systems put forward by Flowerdew (2002) and Edmondson (1981) and (2) give brief explanation for each of them.

In introducing some historical background of systemic approach, I began with some approaches that have been used in analyzing classroom discourse. It includes Flanders (1970), using an “introspective” a priori approach (Flowerdew, 1990 as cited by Love, 1991: 31); Mehan (1979) and Erickson and associates (1981 and 1982) using an educational ethnography (Van Lier, 1988: 60), Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) and subsequent works based on it using an interactional, functional, rank-scale approach.

Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) work has been seminal and widely adopted, adapted, and further developed to accommodate various phenomena in a variety of teaching learning situations. This may be partly because of the "pioneering way in which it draws attention to systemic organizational properties of dialogue and provides ways of describing them" (Fairclough, 1992: 15) with progressively greater precision (Larsen-Freeman, 1980: 19). In addition, compared to that Flander's, it allows for more complex analysis of classroom discourse (Love, 1991: 3). These, at least in systemic tradition, put Sinclair and Coulthard's work in the center of many similar studies.

Further review of the work shows, however, that when applied to more informal classroom situations, Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) system and its various adaptation such as Coulthard and Brazil's (1981) and Stubbs (1981) appear to be inappropriate. This is mainly due to their failure to distinguish what Labov (1972) called A-events, in which the first interactant is also the Primary Knower; and B-events in which the first interactant is the Secondary Knower. In more informal classroom interaction, this A/B-event distinction is essential. In such interaction, the occasions in which the students serve the function of the Primary Knower might occur in significant number (for more the tailed explanation of A- and B-events, and the Primary and Secondary Knower, see Suherdi, 2006).

In addition, Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) system and its various adaptations seem to have been developed only to account for synoptic moves. It is not equipped with any tools to deal with the dynamic moves (to be explained later). This has rendered it less than complete. In other words, some system which describes these dynamic moves is required. For example, in classroom situation where there is no response from the students or when there is a misunderstanding, many dynamic moves will be inevitable. The interaction between the teacher and the student does not always flow in a predicted, synoptic way. At times, the flow of interaction goes off the track, or otherwise is stuck at a certain stage on the track. When this happens, some unpredicted, dynamic moves are required to get the flow back to the expected track or sustain the flow of discourse. In some classroom situations, the incorporation of the dynamic moves is inevitable.

In the aforementioned classroom interactions, for example, where interaction is by no means neat and linier, handling these kinds of moves and recognizing the distinction of A- and B-events as well as the synoptic moves are essential if an appropriate analysis is being aimed at. Possible problems in

analyzing those kinds of interaction have been highlighted and efforts on dealing with these dynamic moves have been initiated by some discourse analysis proponents, for examples, Coulthard and Brazil (1981), Stubbs (1981) and Ventola (1987, 1988a, b) which have been mainly based on the work of Berry (1981a, b, c) and Martin (1985).

To provide a concise introduction to the significance of dynamic moves that will be one of the main foci of this book, an explanation on some points in the development of classroom discourse, from Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) conception to the one presented in this book, will be discussed in the following section.

B. SINCLAIR AND COULTHARD'S FRAMEWORK OF ANALYSIS

1. The Rules

Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) has provided useful basis for discourse analysis, classroom discourse in particular. They developed a comprehensive system of analysis treating classroom discourse as comprising five ranks, namely: lesson transaction, exchange, move, and act. To help clarify the hierarchy, a diagram adapted from their work is presented in Figure 1.1.

As shown by the diagram, a lesson typically consists of an unordered series of transactions, whereas a transaction normally consists of several exchanges, which manifest in three elements of structure, i.e. preliminary, medial, and terminal. Exchanges which realize preliminary and terminal elements are selected from the same move called Boundary, whereas those which realize the medial element are a class of exchange called Teaching. Hence, there are two major classes of exchanges, Boundary and Teaching. The former functions to signal the beginning or end of what the teacher considers to be a stage in the lesson: the latter comprises the individual steps by which the lesson progresses.

The Boundary exchanges consist of two moves, framing and focusing. The two moves often occur together. However, the framing move frequently occurs on its own, the focusing move does so only rarely.

The Teaching exchange comprises eleven sub-categories, six of which are Free and five Bound. The function of bound exchanges is fixed because they either have no initiating move, or have initiating move without a head, which simply serves to reiterate the head of the preceding free initiation.

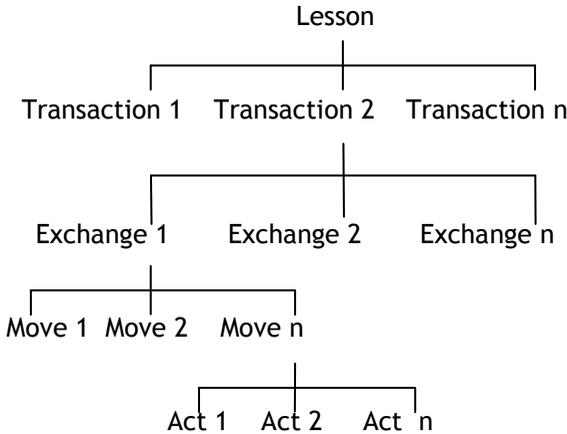


Figure 1.1 Structure of Classroom Discourse
(Adapted from Sinclair and Coulthard (1975))

The free sub-categories include: Teacher-Inform, Teacher-Direct, Teacher-Elicit, Pupil-Elicit, Pupil-Inform, and (Teacher) Check. And the bound sub-categories comprise: Re-initiation (i), Re-initiation (ii), Listing, Reinforce, and Repeat. (For a more detailed account, see Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975: 49-56). In the next lower ranks come moves and acts. There are five classes of moves, which realize the two major classes of exchange (Boundary and Teaching), namely: Framing and focusing which realize boundary, and Opening, Answering, and Following-up moves which realize teaching exchanges.

Acts are the lowest rank units in Sinclair and Coulthard's system of analysis. There are three major acts which probably occur in all forms of spoken discourse, namely: elicitation, directive, and informative. They appear in classroom discourse as the heads of initiation moves. An elicitation is an act which functions to request a linguistics response. A directive is an act which functions to request a non-linguistics response. And an informative is an act which function to pass on ideas, facts, opinions, information and to which the appropriate response is simply an acknowledgement that one is listening. To exemplify, some portion of analyzed texts drawn from Sinclair and Coulthard presented in Figure 1.2. Some little modification in the form of the chart has been made to suit the room available. In Sinclair and

Coulthard’s (1975) chart, the acts labels are placed in columns next to each move column.

Type of exchange	Opening	Answering	Follow-up
Elicit	What about this one. (s) This I think, is a super one. (s) Isabel, can you think what in means? (el<n>)	Does it mean there’s been an accident further along the road? (rep)	No. (3) (rep)
Re-Initiate		Does it mean a double bend ahead? (rep)	No. (3) (e)
Re-Initiate	Look at the car. (cl)	Er slippery roads? (rep)	Yes. (i) (e) it means ‘be careful’ because the road very slippery. (com)

Figure 1.2.
Example of Analyzed Text Using Sinclair and Coulthard’s Framework of Analysis

Before concluding, one major point needs to be emphasized, i.e. that in this Sinclair and Coulthard’s version of exchange structure, each move class can only occur once (Coulthard and Brazil, 1981); however, as Coulthard and Brazil identified, it has now been claimed that two informing moves can also co-occur (p. 101). Hence, a further effort is needed to help explain this. In this relation, Coulthard and Brazil’s (1981) work might be very helpful to pursue the development of exchange structuring. And for this book’s convenience, the following discussions will be mainly focused on exchange structure and various approaches towards exchange structuring.

2. Some Problems

Exploring some different kinds of data, Coulthard and Brazil identified some problematic points in exchange structuring system proposed by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975). This has been evolving around the fact that in some cases, it is not unproblematic to distinguish in the first place between eliciting

and informing, and between initiations and replies. To exemplify, they cited an example drawn from Sinclair and Coulthard (1975):

- T : can anyone tell me what this means
P : does it mean danger men at work
T : Yes

In spite of many efforts seeking to find solutions, problems remain not well-solved. Details of the efforts may be found in Suherdi (2006). For that reason, promising solution offered by Margareth Berry (1981) will be introduced to you. This framework will be referred throughout Module 2 and 3, especially in the discussion of discourses.

C. BERRY'S FRAMEWORK OF ANALYSIS

Like Coulthard and Brazil's, and Stubbs', Berry's (1981) contribution to the development of analysis system of discourse and classroom discourse based on the Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) is also very significant. For that reason, a glance of introduction to her model will be presented here, and a comprehensive discussion will be presented later in Module 2.

Berry has seen the systems proposed by Coulthard and Brazil and by Stubbs (she refers to Coulthard and Brazil, 1979 and Stubbs, 1979 concerning the same topics), as well as that of Burton (1978), as greatly different from one another, in spite of the fact that they have been developed out of the same root, i.e. that of Sinclair and Coulthard. Instead of choosing one of the available systems, following Halliday, she proposed a multilayered approach.

She argued that the aims of the discourse studies are twofold: to describe texts in such a way as to be able to say something worthwhile about the individual texts; and to work towards a theory of discourse.

With regard to the first aim, she argued that when one is describing texts one wishes to be able to compare the texts or bits of texts in such a way as to be able to show similarities and differences. And an account of discourse structure based on a single linear structure for each unit, she argued, doesn't allow one to take account of enough similarities and differences. When coding, she maintained, one finds oneself forced to code in the same way

things which one intuitively feels to be different and to code as different things which one intuitively feels to be the same (p. 121).

In connection with the second aim, she tried to develop a system that could predict the distribution of surface forms, to generate ‘grammatical’ forms of discourse and to block ‘ungrammatical’ forms (p. 122). Again, to her, an approach based on a single linear structure seems to be too limited and limiting to enable one to carry out this aim successfully. She identified that a major defect lies on the inappropriate way of showing that an element is obligatory under certain circumstances, optional under others, and of specifying under relevant circumstances.

In this regard, she proposed an approach that takes into account three layers: interpersonal, textual, and ideational (this has been based on Halliday’s three functions of the structure of information (p. 126). She identified two major parties which are always present in that activity, i.e. the primary knower (someone who already knows the information and secondary knower someone to whom the information is imparted).

Based on the two-party scheme, she came to proposing four functions:

K1 for the admission of knowledge of the information by the primary knower and the consequent stamping of the information with primary knower’s authority.

K2 for the secondary knower’s indication of the state of his own knowledge in relation to the information.

Dk1 for delaying K1

K2f for following up K2

To exemplify, one of the examples given by Berry is presented here:

Quizmaster	:	In England, which cathedral has the tallest spire
Contestant	:	Is it Salisbury
Quizmaster	:	Yes
Contestant	:	oh

In the example, quizmaster is the primary knower, and the contestant, of course, the secondary. The primary knower in this example did not do K1 in the first slot; rather he/she did Dk1 to allow the secondary knower to do K2.

Only after the secondary knower did K2 did the primary knower do K1 which was then followed by the secondary knower did the K2f.

If in developing the interpersonal layer, she managed to reflect the view of discourse as knowers' transmitting and receiving information, in developing the textual layer, she tried to reflect the view of discourse as speakers' taking turns (p. 131). Based on such view, she maintained that there must be at least one speaker and this speaker must make at least one contribution to the exchange. She labeled the first contribution of the first speaker ai, and underlined it to show that it is obligatory. In addition, she labeled the first contribution of the second speaker bi; and as it is not obligatory, she did not underline it. To exemplify, using the same example above we can have:

Dk1	K2	K1	Kf
Ai	Bi	Aii	Bii

In the example, we can see that the first speaker was the primary knower, and the second speaker was the secondary knower. The first slot shows ai, the second slot shows bi, the third shows aii, and the fourth shows bii.

In the two layers above, the knowers of the information and the speakers of the information have been discussed. The last layer of Berry's approach to exchange structure is the ideational, which is concerned with the information itself.

In this respect, she suggested that the minimum amount of information for an exchange is a completed proposition. This completed proposition might be presented straight away by the first speaker, or be left to the second speaker to complete the proposition (p. 139-40). Exploring various possible functions at this layer, she came to the following:

- pb for propositional base, i.e. providing a basis for completed proposition by predicting the form of the completed proposition.
- pc for propositional completion, i.e. completing the proposition.
- ps for propositional support, i.e. supporting the proposition completed.

Again, to exemplify, the example cited above will be used. Using this layer to complete the representation of the exchange structure of the example, we can have:

Dk1	K2	K1	K2f
Pb	Pc	Ps	
Ai	Bi	Aii	Bii

In the example, the first speaker provided a pb for the second speaker to complete the proposition, pc. As pc is predicted, when it is successfully completed, the first speaker provide a ps to support the proposition.

To sum up, suffice it to say that the two aims mentioned earlier have successfully been achieved. From the point of view of coding texts, she claimed to have been able to show more similarities and more differences between the exchanges of the texts than that would have been possible with an approach based on a single linear structure (p. 144). Moreover, she has been able to show the similarities and the differences at the same time. The following examples given by Berry might help clarify the statement:

	Quizmaster :	in England, which cathedral has the tallest Spire	Dk1	pb	ai
	Contestant :	is it Salisbury	K2	pc	bi
	Quizmaster :	yes	K1	ps	aii
And					
	Son :	which English cathedral has the tallest spire	K2	pb	ai
	Father :	salisbury	K1	pc	bi
	Son :	oh	K2f		aii

From the point of view of constructing a theory of discourse, she claimed to have been able to predict the obligatoriness of all elements which must occur if an exchange is to be well-formed (p. 145). The last example presented above might also help exemplify the claim.

Exercise 7

Now, before closing, as you have been given a brief introduction to the systems of analysis given by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) and Berry (1981), write brief explanation for each of their system.

*Answer Keys To Exercises**Exercise 6*

Flowerdew (2002) identified four approaches to discourse analysis:

Genre analysis analysis of different use of language and its relevant contexts.

Corpus-based studies analysis through quantifying, concordancing, and parsing.

Contrastive rhetoric analysis of differences and similarities between L1 and L2 and the effect of L1 on L2 learning.

Ethnographic/naturalistic approaches analysis through the use of data from observations and interviews.

Edmondson (1981: 54-74) identified four systems of analysis of spoken discourse: Speech acts sequences consider speech acts as not rigid structures but rather depends on whether the understanding can be constructed by both speakers and hearers.

Tagmemic model is concerned with the internal structure of different types of dialog paragraphs (Dialog paragraphs).

Rank-scale model views discourse as a rank-scaled structure starting with the highest, i.e. lesson, to transactions, exchanges, moves, and end up with act as the lowest.

Exercise 7

This may include:

- 1) In teaching, including analysis of teacher-students interaction patterns, questioning techniques, etc.
- 2) In learning, including students position in classroom interactions, students' verbal contribution, and students' written texts.

**S U M M A R Y**

Systems of analysis that have been developed and used in discourse analysis have been presented and discussed briefly in the efforts of giving you introductory knowledge that might be useful to understand the discussion of analysis of spoken discourse in Module 2 and 3, and of written discourse in Module 4 and 5. The discussion has been presented in two broad divisions: the system of analysis of spoken and that of

written discourses. In analyzing written discourse, four approaches identified by Flowerdew (2002) has been chosen. First model is genre analysis which starts with works in 1960s on formal feature of broad language varieties and register, and steadily became narrower and deeper and finally reached maturity with the book-length studies of Swales (1990) and Bhatia (1993). More recent studies (e.g. Freeman and Medway, 1994) have been more contextually than linguistically grounded. The second approach is contrastive rhetoric which is the study of the similarities and differences between two languages and how the influence of the L1 may affect the way individuals express themselves in the L2. The main argument of this system is that there is a “preferred expectations about the way information should be organized.” This preferential expectation can be examined and the resulting description can form the basis of pedagogic materials.

The third is corpus-based studies which are concerned with the collection, structuring, and analyzing large amounts of discourse, usually with the assistance of computers. Processing includes the operations of quantifying (counting the number of words or phrases), concordancing (producing lists of given linguistic items with sufficient context to determine syntactic, semantic, and paradigmatic properties), and parsing (syntactic analysis). The last is ethnography, or more broadly, naturalistically influenced approaches view texts as only one of many features of social situation, which includes equally the values, roles, assumptions, attitudes, and pattern of behavior of the participants, or texts producers or receivers. Ethnography emphasizes direct observation, interview, and other modes of analyzing the situational context, in addition to textual analysis.

In the meantime, Edmondson (1981: 54-74), as has been mentioned earlier, identified four systems of analysis of spoken discourse, i.e. speech acts sequences, tagmemic model, and rank-scale model. First, the analysis of speech act sequences is developed by Rehbein and Ehlich (e.g. 1975, 1976) based on the model of the interactional process presented by Labov (1971: 209; 1972: 122-3) and relevant to the notion of the tied or adjacency pair. In this analysis, it is argued that an adjacency pair, in the case of “rejection” in the conversational unit is not brought to a potential point of closure, but rather moved to a sequence of speech acts, and not having a closed pair of such acts.

Tagmemic model is developed by Klammer (1973) to establish the ‘Foundation for a theory of dialog structure.’ In this model, language is to be viewed as social behavior. The analysis is concerned with the internal structure of different types of dialog paragraphs (Dialog paragraphs). Dialog paragraphs are conversational units which combine

in certain ways in conversations. The central claim, as highlighted by Edmondson (1981: 61), is that an utterance as an element in a DIALOG PARAGRAPH has both grammatical function as an initiating, countering, or resolving unit, and a lexemic function such as question, remark, or proposal.

The last analysis is the rank-scale proposed by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975). Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) work has been seminal and widely adopted, adapted, and further developed to accommodate various phenomena in a variety of teaching learning situations. This may be partly because of the "pioneering way in which it draws attention to systemic organizational properties of dialogue and provides ways of describing them" (Fairclough, 1992: 15) with progressively greater precision (Larsen-Freeman, 1980: 19). In addition, compared to that Flander's, it allows for more complex analysis of classroom discourse (Love, 1991: 3). These, at least in systemic tradition, put Sinclair and Coulthard's work in the center of many similar studies.



FORMATIVE TEST 2

Choose the correct answer !

- 1) The following are the systems presented by Flowerdew (2002), except
 - A. corpus-based studies
 - B. tagmemic model
 - C. genre analyses
 - D. ethnography

- 2) Contrastive Rhetoric is primarily concerned with
 - A. the differences of similar discourses
 - B. the similarities of different genres
 - C. the effects of L2 on L1 learning
 - D. the effects of L1 on L2 learning

- 3) Which function belongs to lexemic function of an utterance?
 - A. Initiation
 - B. Remark
 - C. Counter
 - D. Response

- 4) In a corpus-based studies, the following steps are important, except
- A. quantifying
 - B. concordancing
 - C. parsing
 - D. reducing
- 5) The following is the right way of ranking the elements of a classroom discourse
- A. lesson, move, act, exchange, transaction
 - B. exchange, act, move, lesson, transaction
 - C. lesson, transaction, exchange, move, act
 - D. act, lesson, transaction, exchange, move

Check your answer with the Key which is provided at the end of this module, and score your right answer. Then use the formula below to know your achievement level of the lesson in this module.

$$\text{Level of achievement} = \frac{\text{The right answer}}{\text{Total score}} \times 100\%$$

Meaning of level of achievement: 90 – 100% = very good
80 – 89% = good
70 – 79% = average
< 70% = bad

If your level of achievement reaches 80% or more, you can move to the next module. Good! But if your level of mastery is less than 80%, you have to study again this unit, especially parts you haven't mastered.

Answer Keys to Formative Test

Formative Test 1

- 1) C
- 2) B
- 3) C
- 4) D
- 5) B

Formative Test 2

- 1) B
- 2) D
- 3) B
- 4) D
- 5) C

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