Discourse Research in

The Multitude of Approaches

An Academic Journey of
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ACKNOWLEDGMENT

I would like to express my special gratitude to Professor Ridwan Sanjaya (The Rector of Soegijapranata Catholic University) as well as the former Rector (Prof Budi Widianarko) who encouraged me to take the golden opportunity in my academic career to write books on the topic of my expertise (Discourse Analysis).

Secondly, I would also like to thank my friend Dr. Ekawati Marhaenny Dhukut, M. Hum and Ignatius Eko who helped me a lot in finalizing this book within a relatively limited time frame.

I cannot express enough thanks to my colleague lecturers for their continued support and encouragement: Dr. Angelika Riyandari; Dr. Heny Hartono; and other lecturers. I offer my sincere appreciation for their tireless support and motivation to make this book into existence.

The completion of this book could not have been accomplished without the support of a few lecturers and students who were involved in making the research reports available for this publication. Thanks to my parents in heaven who I believe keep on guiding me in my career journey. The countless times you kept caring for your children during our hectic youth will not be forgotten.

Finally, to my caring, loving, and supportive wife Rini Heriwati, my two daughters Bernie and Patricia. Your encouragement when the times got rough is much appreciated and duly noted. It was a great comfort and relief to know that you manage your lives despite less and less time available for you while I completed my work. My heartfelt thanks.

God Bless us all.

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REVIEWER'S REMARK

DISCOURSE RESEARCH IN THE MULTITUDE OF APPROACHES is a book written by Antonius Suratno who has been teaching Discourse Analysis in the English Department ever since the Faculty of Language and Arts at Soegijapranata Catholic University was established in 1998. Teaching for over twenty years has made Sir Anton a master in Discourse Research. This mastery is even more proclaimed when he graduated his Doctorate Degree from Newcastle University in the UK with a dissertation on "Metadiscursive Interaction in Research Articles: A Case of Indonesian Scholars Writing in Bahasa Indonesia and English" in 2012.

This book is organized into five chapters. Chapter 1 introduces readers to Social Functional Linguistics as an approach to analyzing Discourse. Sir Anton had intelligently put his thoughts in using Discourse Research for his arguments in making a contrastive analysis of an interactional metadiscourse and articles written in English as compared to the Indonesian language. Having used his academic papers during his doctoral study makes this book interesting as his genuine thoughts and concern in Discourse Analysis becomes a good example for his students and readers who take interest in his study to follow. His following chapters are also equally valuable for students who want to learn how to use Discourse Analysis in their academic work.

Chapter 2 is focused on Electronic Corpus Analysis. Making use of a hedging strategy to discuss non-science student's theses and of

articles from an Economics journal becomes a commendable showcase in applying a corpus analysis. The next chapter, i.e. chapter 3 showed how to employ Critical Discourse Analysis to analyze the 1955's speech of late President Soekarno and Bali nine news from *Suara Merdeka*.

Meanwhile, chapter 4 which dealt with a Conversational Analysis of the pedagogical reflexivity of the interactional organizations of English classes and text-based vs sound-based CMC; and chapter 5, which gave other kinds of approaches to deal with love metaphor English and Indonesian poems, in addition to spoken and written features of personal blogs - are equally valuable for readers who are eager to use Discourse Research fruitfully. If readers are looking for a book that springs from a down to earth discourse researcher, then this book by Sir Anton would be recommended to read and to make as reference!

Congrats for the book!

Dr. Ekawati Marhaenny Dhukut, M. Hum

The Chief Editor of CELT Journal and
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OVERVIEW

HISTORICITY, PARADIGM, DOMAIN, AND APPROACHES TO DISCOURSE

Discourse is defined differently in different fields of studies. Discourse, at the macro conceptual level, is seen as the general domain of all statements in the form of spoken or written texts that have meaning and effect in the real world. In general, discourse is seen as a matter of conversation in a particular topic that occurs in society. In a more scientific domain, Michael Stubbs (1983) states that something is called a discourse if it has the characteristics of (a) attention to the use of language that is greater than sentences or utterances, (b) focus on the relationship between society and language, (c) concern with dialogical interactive tools of daily communication (in Slembrouck, 2006: 1-5).

In the linguistic realm, discourse is understood as a linguistic unit that is greater than words or sentences that can involve one or more people. In this particular area, Crystal and Cook define it as language units that are larger than sentences that have coherent meanings, specific goals, as well as contexts (in Nunan, 1993: 5). This means that discourse can be interpreted as an object or idea that is openly discussed to the public both verbally and in writing. Discourse is a complete linguistic record of communication events, both oral and written and is seen as a series of interrelated sentences and form making up of a meaning unity.

The term discourse analysis was first introduced by Harris in 1952 who initiated an examination of the rules of language and explaining how sentences in a text are linked by a kind of extended grammar (Cook, 1989: 13), and at that time Harris was widely opposed by American linguists who agreed with Franz Boas, Edward Sapir, and Bloomfield. Harris was considered against the mainstream who predominantly believes that language studies should focus on the form and substance of the language itself, not other aspects. Then, in 1961 a systemic grammar emerged, which was largely initiated by Halliday. In his study, many thematic arrangements were analyzed for sentences, interfaith relations, and discourse. Furthermore, in France, many discourse analysts developed a semiotic approach, with figures such as Todorov, Barthes, and Eco.

In the area of language studies, discourse is relatively recent and comes to existence as a response to the structuralist dominant views of language. Discourse analysis in the language study is a form of dissatisfaction of formal structural linguistic paradigms which tends to view language as a system consisting of micro-units such as affixes, phrases, words, clauses, sentences that are less concerned with language use. Although meaning often cannot be comprehensively understood in words, clauses, or sentences that are separate from the context, it often has to be seen in larger and broader units such as conversation and broader language contexts.

Historicity

In 1935, Firth once recommended that linguists should turn to study language in use. In 1964 in America, Dell Hymes developed a sociolinguistic approach to the study of speech, communication and forms of greeting, which would later become a broad and growing

study of discourse. After that, discourse analysis in America was continued by tagmemic linguists, such as Pike (1967) and the conception developed was broader than Harris. At that time Pike suggested that language research that was not familiar with dictionaries and there were no bilingual informants in researching must pay attention to all nuances of the meaning of language in its use, namely its social context.

In the early 1970s, there were many philosophical studies of word acts, which were pioneered by philosophers such as Austin, Grice, and Searle. In this philosopher's view, verbal teachings are not mere sentences, but certain forms of social action. When sentences are used in a social context, a sentence does not only have the meaning of the sentence itself, but also has a meaning or illocutionary function, based on the intention, belief, or meaning of the relationship between the speaker and the listener. This development further provides a pragmatic dimension to the study of discourse (van Dijk, 1985: 5)

In the 1980s, the study of discourse analysis was a settled field of study. In this era many discourse theories had emerged, for example, Stubs (1983), Brown and Yule (1983), and van Dijk (1985). The subject matter or focus of studies in this era had also expanded, such as concerning gender differences, politics, human and community emancipation, in relation to discourse. Likewise, in the 1990s, for example, the appearance of the writings of Deborah Schiffrin (1994), Guy Cook (1994), Norman Fairlough (1998) further advanced the study of discourse.

Although the way of looking at a discourse is different, language is still the object of study. Studying a discourse on this basis is to analyze the use of language contained in it. In this case, the use of the language is not only the linguistic aspect, but also includes aspects of composing the message, logical reasoning, and the existence of facts that can be convincing as an argument. In other words, discourse is a combination of four types of structure, namely the structure of ideas, the speaker's thought process, the choice of the speaker's language and the situation. From then on, discourse analysis has grown into a more established field of language study (Brown and Yule, 1983: 26).

Analysts' Paradigms

Discourse analysis is a study of the elements that make a coherent discourse (Cook, 1994: 6). The focus of discourse analysis studies, according to Crystal (1985) is structure, which naturally exists in spoken language, for example conversations, interviews, comments, and certain utterances. Understanding the discourse analysis above, however, is still in the basic understanding category, because the field continues to grow. As seen from the mindset of the analysts, there are three major paradigms each analyst subscribes to, namely (a) positivism-empirical, (b) constructivism, and (c) critical views.

According to the positivism-empirical perspective, the analysis of the analytical focus is focused on its regularity, which is the programmatic sentence and the cohesive discourse. Because according to this understanding, language is a connecting bridge between humans and the objects of the outside world, so the language needs to be well ordered. This positivistic tradition of discourse analysis studies the rules that must be fulfilled by the discourse for good discourse. In this view, the subject must be in a separate part of the investigated object

of investigation. Analysis of the discourse of this model is still much influenced by the mindset of a transactional view of language.

Given the emphasis and interest, the positivists are primarily interested in investigating discourse from the viewpoint of cohesion and coherence. They believe that the proper piece of discourse is the one that is composed in a cohesive and coherent way. Cohesion refers to the unity of ideas linking one word to another in a well-connected fashion. Coherence, on the other hand, is the way a piece of discourse is composed in a logical set of ideas making it meaningfully understandable texts. A coherent text is non-ambiguous and well-linked in an easily perceivable meaning.

The concept of constructivism in studying discourse is different from the understanding of positivism-empiricism. In studying discourse, subjects - objects of communication cannot be separated. This mindset is much influenced by phenomenological thinking. In the realm of linguistics, this group is known as interactional views. This view strongly opposes to the positivistic/empiricist ideas which strictly distinguishes subjects from the objects in the analysis of discourse. Constructivists do not believe that language, as the object of analysis, is extricable from human beings, as the subject of the analysis. Language is not viewed as the means by which objective realities can be understood through the correct use of language, ignoring the human subject as the language producer in discourse.

This ideology sees the subject of communication and social relations as a central aspect. The subject of communication is seen as an actor who is able to control the discourse for certain purposes. Each statement is an act of creating meaning, self-expression, and forming the speaker's identity. Through constructivist lenses, a human subject

is a key actor and is central in the discourse production in particular where social meanings and connections are mended and interconnected. Therefore, the discourse analysis of this model is intended to uncover certain hidden meanings of the language. The way to do so, an analyst may position him/herself as the speaker, the writer, or the producer of the discourse by delineating the meanings from the way the discourse meanings are constructed and structured. Mediated discourse and pragmatic analyses are two cases in point.

The third and last paradigm is critical. This is called critical because it is initially meant to criticize the constructivists who are seen to be less sensitive to the process of discourse production as well as the meaning production of the discourse which is inextricable from both institutional and historical factors. The individual person producing discourse is not the neutral human subject separable from the produced discourse utterances. In contrast, they attempt to investigate the connection between the produced discourse with the implicit or explicit social, political, cultural as well as hegemonic ideology adhered to by the discourse producers. Language, thereby, shall not be deemed as a neutral means by which ideas and thoughts are expressed. Language is never a free medium of expression. Every language utterance carries with it non-independent agenda.

A critical view of discourse considers the power factor and ideology play a part in language production. They both play a role in shaping the type of subject (actor) and the behavior that follows it. In the process of producing, reproducing, and distributing discourse, the subject is very instrumental. Therefore, the resulting discourse needs to be addressed critically (criticized). Discourse analysis of this model focuses on the strength of the subject in producing discourse.

Foucault is a leading figure in philosophy who has been the progenitor of critical view. In discourse study, his critical view has been developed into some streams in critical discourse analysis. Fairclough, Ruth Wodak, and Van Dijk, and Gunter Cress have particularly been much influenced by Foucault. Subjects in the analysis of critical understanding are considered non-neutral individuals as a result of the fact that language itself is never value-free. The purpose of this type of discourse analysis in this paradigm is to look critically about: the role of certain subjects, themes, perspectives used, and certain actions that are being carried out in society. Language may be used to insert power, to oppress others, to retain power or maintain status quo. Nonetheless, the significant role of the critical view of discourse is to dismantle the hidden agenda behind the use of the language. Such issues as what power is inserted, what ideology is subscribed to, which power relation is being created and maintained, whose perspective of language is being used, what topic is dominant and why is it so, are among the potential aspects of analysis in critical discourse. Because their perspectives are always critical, this third type of discourse analysis is called critical discourse analysis.

Language data in discourse analysis are characterized by (a) that the parts of the language form a unity (interrelated), (b) prioritizing the attainment of meaning, so that the grammatical standardization is secondary, (c) the language is present in a particular context, and (d) the data originates from authentic observations, not made up. Conversely, non-disursive language data in pure linguistics perspective have the following characteristics of (a) loose sentences, (b) arranged according to correct grammar, (c) without context, and (d) results of thought that tend to be artificial (Cook, 1994: 12).

Domain & Approaches

There are three research paradigms and there are four domains of discourse analysis. Discourse domains reflect which area the investigation is particularly concerned with. According to Davies and Elder (2004), they are:

1. Rules and principles:
    - pragmatics (including speech act theory and politeness theory)
    - conversation analysis
2. Contexts and cultures:
    - ethnography of communication
    - interactional sociolinguistics
3. Functions and structures:
    - systemic-functional linguistics (SFL)
    - Birmingham school discourse analysis
    - text-linguistics
4. Power and politics:
    - pragmatic and socio-linguistics approaches to power in language, Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA)

While as for which framework an analyst generally focuses on, Van Dijk (2003) divides the discourse analysis framework into three major structures, each of which supports each other, including:

1) Macrostructure. This is the global/general meaning of a text which can be understood by looking at the topic of a text. The theme this discourse is not only content but also a certain side of its event. In this analysis, the meaning is inferred via discourse contexts.

2) The superstructure is the framework of a text: how to structure and discourse elements are arranged in full text and how discourse is structured.

3) Microstructure is the meaning of discourse that can be observed by analyzing words or their smaller units. Such as a prefix than signifies passive or active structures.

However, the analysis of discourse is not confined by and limited to the above framework. At risk of sounding repetitive, it must once more be stressed that a discourse analysis concerns practically any form of text; be it written, spoken or visual, etc.
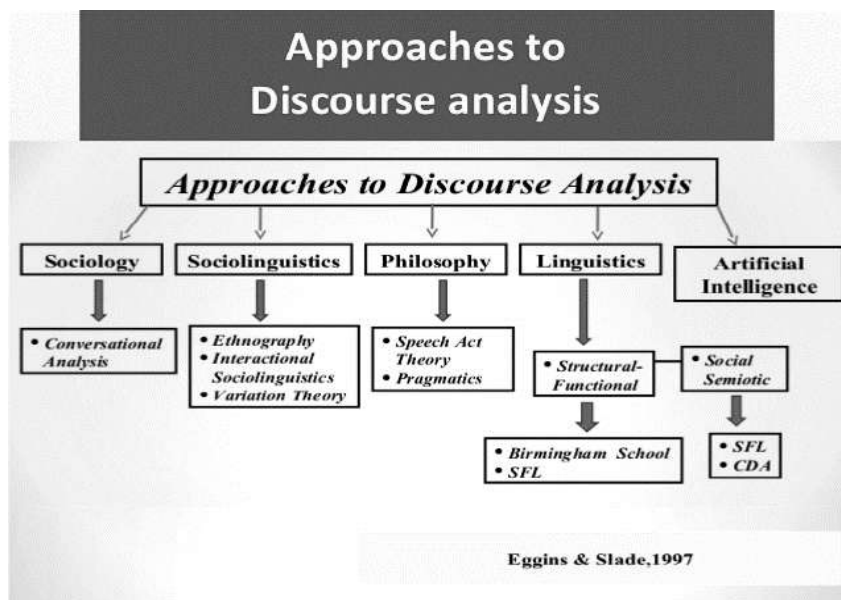
Figure 1. The family tree illustrates the multitude of approaches

A written and oral discourse, both viewed as a language and social reality can be analyzed by various research approaches. These approaches include (despite being not limited to): (1) Content Analysis, (2) Grounded Theory, (3) Ethnography of communication, (4) Genre Analysis, (5) Ethnomethodological Conversation Analysis (CA), (6) Semiotic, (7) Pragmatics, (8) Critical discourse analysis (CDA),

(9) Functional Pragmatic Method, (10) Hermeneutics, (11) Mediated, and (12) Multimodal approaches. The family tree in Figure 1. proposed by Eggins and Slade illustrates the multitude of approaches.

Discourse analysis researchers are given the freedom to choose the existing approaches depending on the discourse characteristics they face. The section to come presents some different research reports of discourse analysis using different discourse research approaches starting from structural-functional analysis of academic texts, Conversation Analysis, to variationist' approaches.

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CHAPTER I

SFL IN ACADEMIC DISCOURSE

Systemic Functional Linguistics (henceforth SFL) is an approach in discourse analysis. Defined simply, SFL is a language approach that is used to analyze how the language is used in various contexts that exist in everyday social interaction, both in the form of speech and writing. In this definition, systemic is defined as a whole system, while functional is something that can be used or applied in various kinds of scientific fields. Thus, SFL as an approach in the study of discourse can be used and can be categorized as a multifunctional approach to analyzing oral and written discourse. Systemic Functional Linguistics in linguistics is also often referred to as Functional Grammar, but the word grammar, in this case, is different from the general understanding of grammar which is interpreted as the study of the rules of language form. SFL views language with a broader perspective because language is viewed as resources for making meaning and as a means that allows us to be able to communicate ideas and interpret their meanings.

This approach was introduced by M.A.K Halliday in the 1960s. He believed that language research should be seen as a part of Sociology rather than Psychology. His thinking was heavily influenced by his teacher, J.R. Firth, an English linguist who argues that language is a system and that of context is essential to explicate meaning. In the SFL, there are 3 metafunctions serving as the basis for analysis, namely: 1. Ideational (related to the knowledge of the discourse), 2.

Interpersonal (related to interpersonal relationships or people around the discourse), and 3. Textual (relating to how the discourse is arranged and forming meaning in the spoken and written discourse). Thus, SFL makes it a language approach to studying discourse in the activities of discourse analysis.

In the language field, the SFL approach greatly influences grammar in the realm of linguistic development and opens up new horizons that influence language research. In examining a language, SFL looks at language based on function, specifically phonological level, morpheme, and syntax. The advantage of this approach is that we can know that each phoneme (sound) has a function so that it can distinguish meanings. Each articulated ideas have contents and expressions, and hence its function emerges. Then at a greater level, namely syntax, this approach emphasizes the preposition function and sentence structure, meaning that the linguistic elements in a sentence can be explained by referring to the function so that a logical understanding is generated. That way, SFL has succeeded in seeing each component of language based on functions and inspired the idea of the relationship between structure and function of language, such as those working in the academic discourse.

Academic discourse refers to all kinds of language used and produced in academic settings - by academic members which include teachers, lecturers, and students, in written, spoken and online forms. Academic discourse, also known as the concept of how students communicate scholarly ideas and build relationships with their learning activities in general, is a valuable factor to consider in teaching. Communication is very important for all students to

succeed, and academic discourse emphasizes appropriate communication to allow progress in-class activities and project work.

Academic discourse can cover everything from lecturing, reporting, listening, to debating, from presentation to metacognition and even writing to criticizing. Teaching your students to communicate and interact with the use of academic vocabulary is the core of academic discourse.

For most students, the concept of academic discourse is not a naturally discernible concept. Instead, it must be modeled by educators, and both are taught and recognized by students and teachers. Strategic instruction is very important to give students ideas of what academic discourse is, as well as how it feels and looks. Integrating the development of these skills can enrich communication in the classroom and encourage deeper retention and learning.

Academic discourse is not something that comes easily to most students; rather, it is something that needs to be taught, scaffolded by teachers. With strategic instruction around what academic discourse sounds, looks and feels like, it can be a useful tool that enriches all classroom interactions and facilitates deeper learning and retention. As we have developed the key elements of academic discourse, research on academic activities may reflect on how academic discourse could become stronger in the classrooms as can be reflected through the following research articles.

1.1 WRITERS VIS-A-VIS DISCOURSE COMMUNITY: A CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS OF INTERACTIONAL METADISCOURSE

This article reports a contrastive analysis of interactional metadiscourse used in research articles written in Bahasa Indonesia (BI) and English (Eng) by Indonesian scholars. This case study involved 6 scholars of 6 distinct disciplines (Economics, Medicine, Ecology, Applied Linguistics, Literature, and American Studies) writing research articles (RAs) in two languages BI and Eng., made up of two corpora, 30 BI and 30 Eng. Drawing on Interpersonal Metadiscourse (IMD), the analysis focused on the use of five metadiscourse devices to determine the text interactivity and the extent writers reach out to different target readers. Quantitative analysis unleashes that there is a significant difference between the two corpora where Eng RAs use a higher frequency of IMD despite variations of distribution. The differences reflect contextually different expectations about what RAs should be like in two different languages which are notably intended to different audiences, local and international. Differences of the audience seem to have affected strategies in interaction, resulting in the deployment of more devices as they write Eng RAs and thus making them more interactive than BI RAs. The aforementioned variations of devices use are attributable to differences of disciplines as a response to different discourse communities.

Keywords: *interactional metadiscourse, academic writing, research articles, contrastive analysis, discourse community*

Introduction

In this highly competitive world, academics all over the world are involved in prestige contest of publishing activities. Publishing has become a prime target of all research endeavors as it has been one of the inevitable consequences of the digital era as it is becoming an academic norm (Salem and Baumill, 2013). To comply with the existing norm, they are compelled to write research reports in the various journals in the language which is representative to broader audiences. It has been generally accepted that writing research articles, one of the businesses of academic writing, is an act of academic discourse. Like oral communication, it manifests through the act of writing which can be investigated in terms of its' interactivity.

Interest in the study of textual devices deployed by academic writers has recently gained momentum due to the strategic roles of academic articles in the dissemination of science and knowledge in the midst of the mushrooming of journal publishers. Various literature has reviewed research reports on written textual devices and are generally of the opinion that such studies contribute to new insights on discursive and pragmatic aspects of texts, and thus they are considered to potentially improve the communicative function of texts and facilitate readers to better comprehend textual meanings. Through such undertaking, researchers may investigate textual meanings beyond sentence level by way of exposing what discursive devices are tacitly deployed and how they add up to writers' attempts to reach out to target readers.

The domain of study is contrastive rhetoric upon which various academic texts from different cultures and disciplines have been

contrasted. Very few research, if we don't want to say any, reports how the same persona of writers write articles in two different languages and how they consider the audience through the deployment of metadiscourse elements. Researchers in this area are generally of the opinion that rhetorical styles are bound to be nationally linked and hence contrastive rhetoric is known to be intercultural contrastive analysis.

This study takes its inspiration from socio-constructivism which sees writing as a meaning-making activity and whose nature is both individually and socially oriented. Drawing from such a notion, it could be postulated that textual rhetorical style should not only be the result of the differences of nation-state cultural and disciplinary backgrounds writers have grown up in, but also for whom the texts are written. Thus, making this study unique in that it attempts to investigate how the same persona of writers interacts with different target readers.

This is a discourse study, an interpretive discovery of the meaning of the language used by the actors in describing and understanding social phenomenon' (Abdelal, et al., 2006, p.709). Also, following Vande Kopple (1985, p. 87), interpersonal metadiscourse helps express writers' personalities and how writers react to the propositional content of text which characterizes interaction with the readers and thus constitute an important means of facilitating communication, supporting writers' position and making a relationship with readers.

Metadiscourse embodies the idea that writing goes beyond and above the level of the basic propositional information. It is traditionally linkable to written discourse whereby writers indicate to

their readers how they can organize, classify, interpret, evaluate, and react to the texts (Vande Kopple, 1985, p.83). Studies of this sort are grounded on the beliefs that writers leave their footprints on their writing which may unravel writers' attempt to interact with the audience; drawing on *pathos* and *ethos* which refer to the personal appeal of writers' feeling, character, credibility and authority.

This study attempts to discover if the same persona of writers differs in his or her deployment of interpersonal metadiscourse and if their understanding of the discourse community has something to do with strategies of interaction with the readers. This study is expected to be significant in critically contributing to the proposition that writers are influenced by the Discourse Community (DC) and genre in which the texts are written and to provide input to the teaching of writing.

Review of Literature

The most widely-known strand of research taking the social context of writing is Contrastive Rhetoric (although there are newly emerging approaches to writing, e.g. Barton &Papen, 2010). From the available literature, much research on metadiscourse has helped to conceptualize context into that of national or linguistic culture. Among researchers who have devised such a context as the primary research frameworks are Garces (1996) and Moreno (1997) comparing Spanish and English RAs, Zarei (2011) contrasting Persian and English.

Socio-constructivists see writing as a meaning-making activity whose nature is both individually and socially oriented. Halliday & Hassan (1985) contend that language is primarily the domain of sociology (also see Halliday, 1978) due to its socially creative function, for which context and discourse are intertwined. Context underlies discourse

with its features used to interpret discourse; but because speakers' role manifests through texts, then discourse is a means by which context is observable (Van Dijk, 2008, p 131). Drawing from the understanding that communicative events are accomplished by a series of interlocking acts realized linguistically (Kress & Van Leeuwen, 2001) to persuade readers, writers can devise appropriate lexical signaling such as metadiscourse.

The understanding of how the members of the community communicate one another encompasses, among other things, the people involved, the mode of interaction, the medium used, and the purposes. Communities create discourse and discourse creates communities (Devitt, 1993) influence the conceptualization of genre theory and efforts to investigate the interplay between the two. The context in the genre is argued to entail a complex interaction of situation, genre and culture (Devitt, 2004) but due to the complexity of the interaction, the context is generally simplified as a DC. Writing in an academic context, therefore, is writing in a social setting as well as writing for its social members. In written communication, one of the elements which can be exerted to promote interaction and to overtly bridge the two aspects is metadiscourse (Hyland, 2005). The good choice of such elements presupposes an awareness of readers' expectations, but in order to cater for the expectation of the readers, writers are constrained by adherence to the applicable DC norms.

Some social constructivist researchers address the interpersonal aspects under the terms "voice as self-representation" (Cherry, 1988; Ivanič & Camps, 2001) and "stance" (Hyland, 1999, 2004). Other scholars in second-language writing explore the same issue using "voice" term (Prior, 2001; Matsuda, 2001; Atkinson, 2001). For the

evaluative language, the issue of writer's dialogic features has been explored under the term "authorial stances" (Biber & Finegan, 1989; Hunston & Thompson, 2000) and "evaluation" of entities and propositions (Thetela, 1997; Hood, 2004). Other researchers explored the concept of interpersonal to investigate interactions under the term "metadiscourse", which refers to a rhetorical domain regulating communicative language functions.

The early conceptualization of interpersonal taking the metadiscursive perspectives provides these further accounts. A distinction was made between the metadiscoursal and propositional elements. Anything that links to the propositions is categorized as textual, which helps to organize what is called a coherent discourse, and the rest, as interpersonal, which conveys the writers' attitudes to the texts (see Vande Kopple, 1985). This concept of metadiscourse was used in early research by (e.g. Crismore *et al.,* 1993; Hyland, 1998b, 2000). Later on, interpersonal metadiscourse is further understood to help writers express personalities, indicate reactions to the propositional content of texts, and characterize the interaction with readers about the content (Hyland, 2005). As pointed out by Hyland (2002a) and Thompson (2001), interests in the interpersonal aspect of writing have expanded beyond the scope of European languages (Zhang & Zhang 2002; Rui & Xin, 2009), despite constraints in different genres (Myers, 2001).

Interpersonal metadiscourse interaction

The notion of interaction in discourse study should not be the sole phenomenon in the spoken discourse, as both spoken and written modes of communication share some basic elements, i.e. agents and messages. Writing, though clearly monologic as an activity, is

nonetheless dialogic in its communicative structure' (Nystrand, 1986, p.36). The two share communicative orientation in common which allows interactions to happen albeit achievable through different properties.

Previous studies on interaction in writing have contributed to the understanding of the reader or audience's strategic roles in writing processes, as bringing in the audience into the texts improves the quality of writing products (Thompson, 2001). Other researchers, Hyland (2004b, 2005); Thompson and Thetela, (1995); Thompson, (1997); Myers, (1999); Hyland, (2000; 2005) adopts different theoretical frameworks to come up with the accounts of what interaction means in the written discourse.

Thompson (2001), using both interactive and interactional resources, outlines the lexico-grammatical features signaling the other voices in the textual contexts. Hyland (2005) adopts this model to explore interaction, believing that interaction can be achieved by both textual and interpersonal metadiscourse simultaneously. Nonetheless, Halliday and Hasan' (1976, pp. 26–27) emphasize that interpersonal function concerns the social, expressive and conative functions of language, highlighting speakers' angle, attitudes and judgments.

In spite of agreeing with Hyland (2004a, 2005), I personally contend that the notion of interaction should primarily be externally oriented mainly because interaction requires two parties to get involved in, i.e. writers and readers. Dafouz-Milne (2008) provides assurance that both textual and interpersonal metadiscourse qualify to fulfill persuasive functions, but persuasion is a matter of degree of persuasiveness. The persuasive degree of both textual and

interpersonal metadiscourse stretches in the persuasion continuum, as illustrated in **Figure 1. 1**.

- PERSUASIVE	+ PERSUASIVE
textual	interpersonal

Figure 1. 1. Degree of explicit persuasion in the metadiscourse continuum (Dafouz-Milne, 2008, p.33)

Thus, it is clear that textual and interpersonal metadiscourse lies on different levels of explicitness in their persuasive functions. Research by Williams' (1989) and Crismore and Farnsworth's (1989; 1990) reveals that writers of scientific texts wanting to persuade the audience using logical, ethical, and emotional arguments, tend to use a larger amount of interpersonal metadiscourse than textual metadiscourse. I, therefore, consider the model developed by Crismore, et al. (1993) is a compatible analytical tool for this study.

Methodology

This study employs descriptive quantitative and qualitative approaches. Despite using quantitative approach, analysis does not primarily put an emphasis on generalizing the findings from the research samples, but rather from the theories and thus, it is typically "analytic inductive" referring to a systematic examination of similarities or differences between various social phenomena in order to develop concepts or ideas (see Robinson, 1951 and Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). The primary data were collected out of the selected articles which mad up text corpora to be tagged quantitatively to determine the frequencies of the IMD devices use.

Chi-square statistic was deployed to find out whether the differences or similarities of the elements in the two corpora, if any, are statistically different. Finally, the qualitative method was adopted to display the co-textual and contextual use of each device in the unfolding discourse.

Corpus and discourse are incorporated to invigorate the research design, as both are complementary to each other in looking into the data. The former may inform the variously taken for granted yet often very important aspects of language use, and the advantage is its being instantaneously able to investigate the language in sizable samples of text corpora (Hyland, 2009, p. 110), while the later helps contextualize the quantitative findings.

Research subjects are six scholars who were academically productive as shown by the frequency of publication in BI and Eng. Data selection was made on the basis of the article length of the average 3000 words per article in order to maintain the balance of comparison and the analytical model adopted Crismore, et al. (1993), whereby metadiscursive interaction was judged by the frequencies of the occurrence of each of the investigated categories as illustrated in the table.

Table 1. 1. IMD taxonomy (Crismore, et al., 1993)

Category	Functions	Subcategory	Tokens in text
Hedges	Express commitment to the truth value of the text	*Epistemic verbs* *Probability adverbs* *Epistemic*	May/might/ must Probably/ perhaps / maybe It is likely
Certainty markers	Express total commitment to the truth value of the text		Undoubtedly/ clearly/ certainly
Attributors	Refers to the source of information		X claims that... According to....
Attitude markers	Express writer's affective values towards text and readers	*Deontic verbs* *Attitudinal adverbs* *Attitudinal adjectives* *Cognitive verbs*	Have to/ must/needs to Unfortunately/ remarkably It is absurd/ it is surprising I feel/ I think/ I believe
Commentaries	Help to establish reader-writer relationships through the text	*Rhetorical questions* *Direct address to the reader*	What is the future of applied linguistic research like? You must understand

Data presentation and analysis

1. Quantitative Analyses

The section to follow present the results of data analysis.

1.1 Contrastive IMD in BI and Eng RAs

This is the look of the comparison.
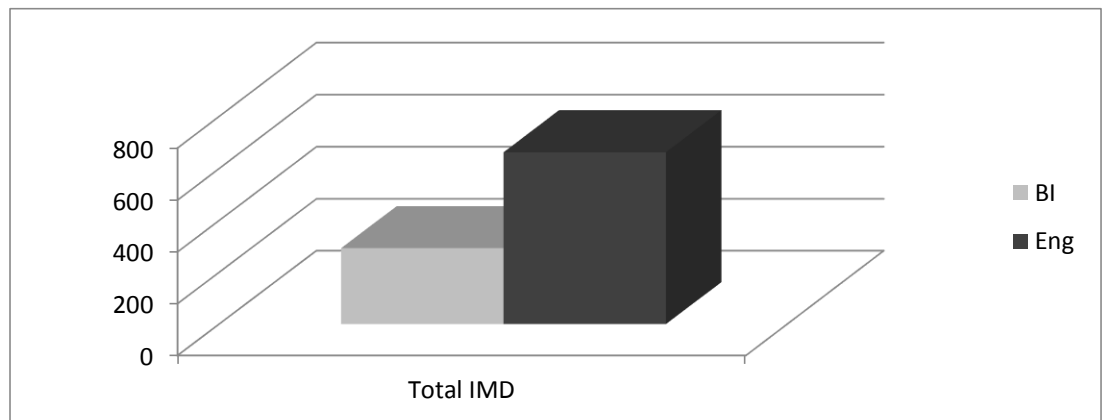
Graph 1. 1. *Contrast between BI and Eng RAs*

As shown in **Error! Reference source not found.**, RAs written in Eng used more than twice larger number of devices than those written in BI. (BI, n= 293; Eng, n= 662). The average number of devices per 1000 words used in Eng RAs is considerably higher (6.89) than in BI RAs (3.0). All in all, the general outlook of the contrast between the two categories of texts that emerges indicates that Eng RAs use more overt interaction devices than BI RAs. Chi-square statistic indicates that the difference is highly significant (χ_2=145.805; p = 0.000) at the 5% level of significance. This suggests that the difference between BI and Eng IMD frequencies is not simply by chance.

The following is the detailed look of the contrast between Eng and BI RAs.
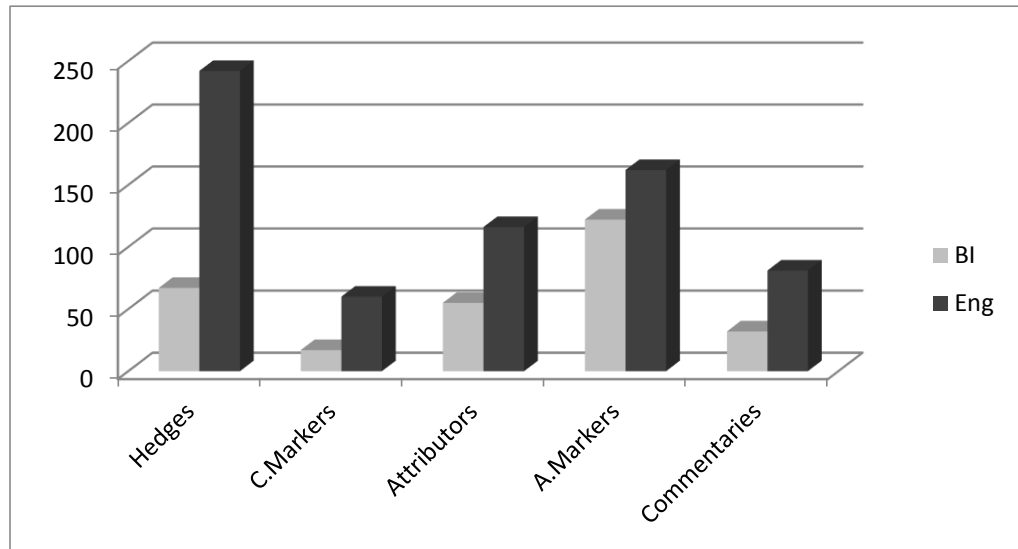
Graph 1. 2. Contrast between BI and Eng in each element

As each element in 60 investigated RAs was contrasted, a distinct look between BI and Eng RAs emerges. From the most to the least frequent, here come subsequently hedges, attitude markers, attributors, commentaries and certainty markers. Chi-square value displays a statistical significant difference (χ_2=31.214; p = 0.000) at the 5% level of significance. By treating the data as categorical data: 0-15= low, 16-30=average, and 31-59= high, the cross-tabulation of IMD frequency indicates a significant difference, in particular, the high category of case frequency. This Table clarifies how data of the elements of IMD as the set variables in this study were distributed.

The results display the frequency of use (85.4%) in Eng RAs, in contrast to (50.2%) in BI RAs in high category, however, the opposite is true with regard to the low category, albeit the very low margin of difference.

Table 1. 2. Cross-tabulation of BI and Eng IMD

			Score Category			
			Low	Average	High	Total
BI-Eng	Indonesian	Count	80	66	147	293
		% within BI-Eng	27.3%	22.5%	50.2%	100.0%
	English	Count	33	65	573	671
		% within BI-Eng	4.9%	9.7%	85.4%	100.0%
Total		Count	113	131	720	964
		% within BI-Eng	11.7%	13.6%	74.7%	100.0%

The contrast signals that writers might have uniformly considered that they need to deploy more elements when they write Eng RAs and it is in the language that the idea of DC and the implied readers are embedded which has influenced the decision.

1.2. IMD viewed from a disciplinary perspective

This section of the analysis is linked to disciplines of the research subjects.
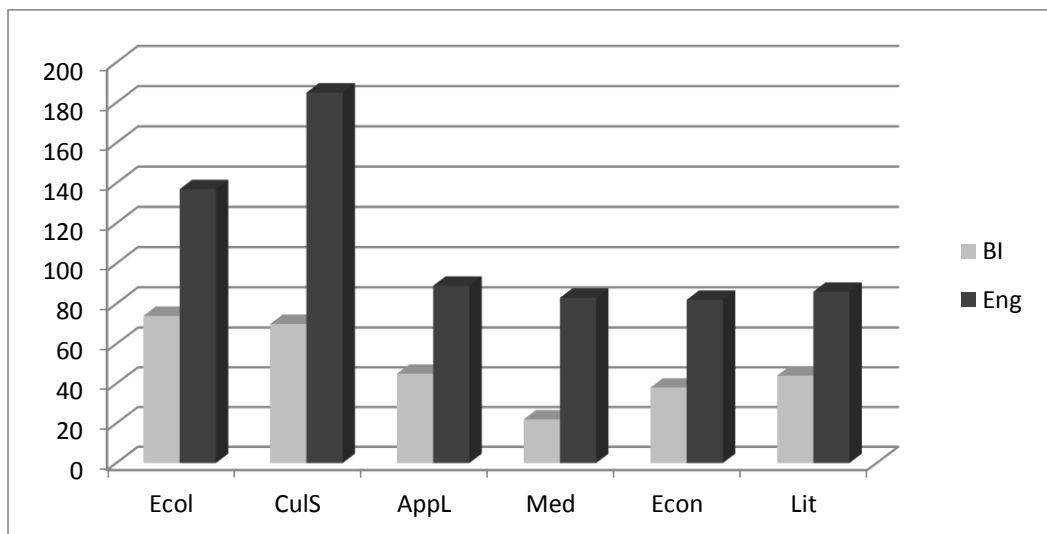
Graph 1. 3. Contrast between BI and Eng RAs

It displays the distribution of the IMD devices across the 6 investigated disciplines and an extreme contrast is noticeable in Cultural Studies and Medicine. The rests of disciplines remain different despite showing a slightly similar look of case frequency. Eng RAs use twice as many as BI RAs, despite an indication of variability, signaling the possible link with disciplinary culture (Hyland, 1999; 2004b).

IMD is used 11.38 times in every 1000 words. Medical RAs are interesting in that they use IMD almost as frequently as the three disciplines in Eng RAs, but with a very small number of frequency in BI RAs. As situated within each individual discipline, the patterns of distributions vindicate the characteristic of disciplinary variations. Chi-square statistic indicates (χ_2 =11.699; p = 0.039) at the 0.05 level of significance.

Table 1. 3below presents an overall picture of the frequency of IMD on each individual case of disciplines.

Table 1. 3. Frequency of IMD elements in BI vs. Eng

Elements	Ecology	Cultural studies	Applied Linguistics	Medical	Economics	Literature
Hedges	20 ; 35	13 ; 74	12 ; 18	4 ; 31	14 ; 25	4 ; 59
Cert. Markers	8 ; 28	2 ; 9	3 ; 15	1 ; 3	0 ; 1	3 ; 4
Attributors	14 ; 27	25 ; 39	2 ; 3	8 ; 35	5 ; 34	1 ; 0
Att. Markers	26 ; 39	26 ; 23	20 ; 25	7 ; 41	13 ; 19	30 ; 21
Commentaries	6 ; 8	4 ; 40	8 ; 28	2 ; 1	6 ; 3	6 ; 1
Total	74 ;137	70 ;185	45 ; 89	22 ; 83	38 ; 82	44 ; 85

As depicted in each individual case below, the difference does not necessarily mean that writers always use more IMD in Eng RAs. Despite the evidently higher total frequency of cases in the use of IMD in Eng RAs, there are a few exceptions in Cultural Studies and Literature in the way attitude markers were employed, as well as in the frequency of commentaries in Economics and Literature RAs. Unlike the rest of the cases where writers deploy more IMD devices, Cultural Studies and Literature scholars used fewer attitude markers in Eng RAs (subsequently 26; 23, and 30; 21). The same is true with Economics and Literature in the use of commentaries (subsequently 6; 3, and 6; 1). Subjects of the research probably feel a need to be more interactive when writing Eng RAs, but there is a case where writers need to do otherwise when writing BI RAs. It is probably due to the need to comply with the demands of the readers pertinent to each individual discipline.
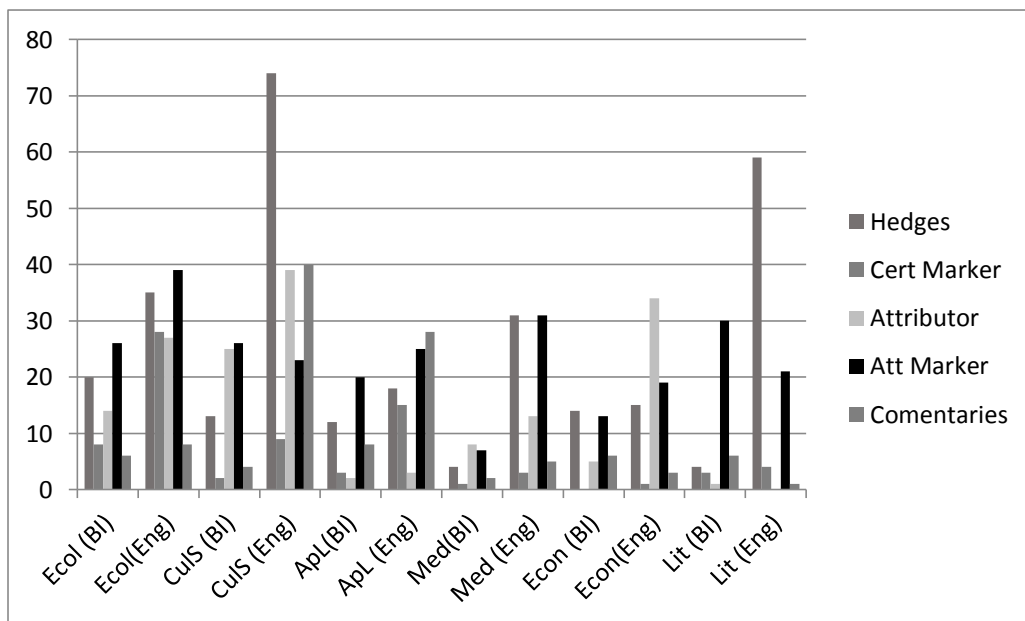
Graph 1. 4. Frequency of IMD individual device in BI and Eng RAs.

2. Co-text and context analysis

Co-textual and contextual analyses are instrumental in showing how each device performs its discourse function in the texts.

2.1. Hedges

The use of hedges appears to signal the varying levels of writers' confidence overstatements or simply modesty in claim-making. It ranges from writers' considerate nature not to be overconfident to being modest about the knowledge claim he/she makes. The following excerpts are made available to provide a clearer account of what discourse functions hedges serve.

> (1a). Community itself is not always homogeneous. There is always gender as well as wealth differences and there are conflicting interests that *may* result from those differences. (*CulS-Eng2*)

> (1b) Angka angka ini terkesan cukup tinggi, tetapi *kemungkinan* jika dicermati kondisi di lapangan baik kegunaan maupun mutu sarana *kemungkinan* besar tingkat akses aktualnya jauh lebih rendah. (*Eco-BI1*)

> *These figures look high, however, **probably** if both the use and the infrastructure quality were seen in their real condition, the actual degree of access is **likely** much lower.*

These excerpts show the writers' intentions to appeal to the readers signalling the purpose of interacting with the readers by leaving the propositions open to the floor to accept or to decline. By using *may* in (1a), the writer aspires to reveal the lack of certainty about proposition or the lack of belief about its truth value, although it may

also indicate his/her caution in the claim-making. By saying so, the writer is essentially attempting to minimize erroneous claims, while *probably* in (1b) it indicates how the writer lacks conviction as regards the truth value of the proposition. The word l*ikely* is intended to show the readers a degree of unpredictability, although the outcome of the suggested propositions may be more certain than uncertain. In (1b), there is a double uncertainty, i.e. writer is not sure as to why the figure is high, and if it will remain the same should the condition be changed, and second, if the real-life condition is changed, will the raised issues also change?. The writer is leaving with the readers as to the appropriate interpretations of the proposed ideas. There is a chance for the writers to leave a particular issue open for discussion, especially when the issues concern putative, contentious, or controversial issues.

(2a). Societal fields or sectors are such institutional arrangements, and their influence on organizations **may be** great, resulting in isomorphism, the tendency for likeness: banks, as part of a banking sector, will tend to look organizationally alike, hospitals will tend to look the same organization-wise after a while, and government departments will... (*Eco-Eng1*)

(2b). Kondisi ini **boleh jadi** turut mendukung terciptanya sistem matrilokaal bilokaal disamping sistem patrilokaal yang merupakan tradisi asli keluarga Tionghoa di Tiongkok. Hasilnya yang unik adalah budaya campuran dalam keluarga-keluarga tersebut. (*Lit-BI1*)

*This condition **probably** contributes to the creation of matrilocal-bilocal system in addition to the Chinese original patrilocal tradition belonging to Tionghoa families in Tiongkok. The unique result is a mixed culture of the families.*

Hedges in the last two excerpts were deployed to mitigate statements. By using *may be* (in 2a) and *boleh jadi (probably* in 2b*)*, the writer attempts to soften the tone of the propositions to avoid a likely head-on collision with other people's claims. As a case in point, the sense of sentence (2a) would convey different meaning should the writer replace *maybe* with *is* or even *must be*. In the same vein, should the phrase *boleh jadi (probably)* in sentence (2b) be omitted, the sense or tone of the sentence will radically change.

2.2. Certainty Markers

Being the least frequently used, it is by no means that certainty markers play a less essential role in persuasion. By saying *certainly* (in Eng RAs) or *tentu* or *pasti* (in BI RAs), the writers allow the readers to know the tone or the mood of the proposition that imbues the sense of certainty. With a high level of certainty, writers signal the readers for not necessarily questioning the truth value of the statement, as a result of the conveyed sense of assurance. By using *certainly* not only does the writer make his/her proposition strong, but also convince readers about the validity of the claim which at once play a two-way evaluative function. By using *certainly* or *tentu*, the writers intend to ascertain the readers as regards the truth of the knowledge.

(3a). With that in mind, I consequently understand why Grove commented: "had de Tocqueville visited the U.S. recently, he *certainly* would have added another American cultural value. (*CulS-Eng4*)

(3b). Kondisi ini *tentu* menimbulkan dampak negatif berupa gangguan kesehatan masyarakat dan pencemaran lingkungan. (*Med-BI1*)

*This condition **certainly** brings about negative effects such as health hazards and environmental pollution.*

Certainty markers *certainly* and *tentu* (*certainly*) allow the writers to make his/her proposition stronger. In (3a), preceded by "had....." signaling the first clause of a conditional sentence and *certainly* in the completion clause, the argument becomes more robust. Similarly in (3b), by using *tentu* (certainly), the writer intends to convey a strong message that, unless due care is taken seriously, health hazards and environmental pollution are inevitable. In spite of sharing the interactional role in the texts, different degrees of certainty, however, will vary its effect on the readers. Compared to the above extracts, sample (3c) should affect differently on the readers' interpretation,

(3c) To my understanding, it seems that the concept of interaction that Brown (1989) proposed in his article is *somewhat* different from this current article due to the mentioning of the mutual aspect of communication[1].

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[1] The sample is self-created to provide contrast with the extract taken from the corpora.

due to the difference in the degree of claim certainty. The word *somewhat* in (3c), preceded by a clause with copula *seems,* conveys an apparent dubitable sense or less convincing tone in the part of the writer and the proposed ideas. Compared to the extracts found in the Eng RAs corpora, with marker *somewhat*, the sense of assurance of sentence (3c) is downgraded.

2.3. Attributors

According to in Eng and *menyatakan* (*claim*) are two most frequently used attributors.

Attribution deals with who is projected as the responsibility bearer of assertions in the texts (Hunston, 2000), displaying voices in the texts because it reveals how evaluation is performed in citation practice (Thompson & Ye, 1991). Different voices in the texts can either be assimilated or kept separate (Fairclough, 1992) and the way persuasion works 'is not just about making a strong case for one's own view but rather about taking account of others' views in the furtherance of one's own' (Charles, 2009, p. 167). In such a practice, writers may assimilate or separate statements from the cited information. All writers in this study opted for separating them to allow the readers to notice the link between the cited information and their positions relative to the citations. Assimilating can be done by paraphrasing and putting the name of the writers and year of publication in between parentheses, which in effect, tacitly attributes the origin of the information.

(4a) Sanghvi 2006 *claimed* that head and neck cancers are common in India and account for about 30 of cancers in males and about 13 in females. *According to* John Andrew Ridge's study

2009 head and neck cancer is more common in men, 66 to 95 of cases occurring in men. (*Med-Eng3*)

(4b) Khususnya perihal iklan, Sobur **menyatakan** bahwa memahami "komunikasi periklanan" kajian semiotika tidak hanya memperhatikan "bahasa sebagai alatnya" namun juga "gambar, warna, dan bunyi" (2004:116). (*CulS-BI4*)

*In particular regarding advertisement, Sobur **claims** that in understanding ' Advertising communication' semiotic analysis does not merely pay attention to 'language as its means' but also ' picture, colour, and sounds' (2004:116).*

Through the use of the word *claimed* in (4a) and *claim* in (4b), for instance, the writer provides a hint to readers as regards his/her acknowledgement of other people's opinions or positions, which is needed to help the readers to link with his/her position in the upcoming propositions, and (in 4a), by attributing that neck cancers are common in India to Sangvi's (2006) claim. Similarly, using the phrase *according to,* the writer intends to attribute the ideas to the originator, in this case, the study by John Andrew Ridge. In most cases, it is only after the writer states the position relative to the cited ideas that the words *claim* and *according to* begin to show a particular evaluative function that links self-position with other people's standpoints pertinent to the argued propositions. There is a slight difference between (4a) and (4b), in that, before acknowledging other person's ideas, the writer in (4b) starts by introducing the issue to which the cited information will be linked. Attributors function to indicate the writer's acknowledgment of others' opinions, needed to strengthen her/his position and to help make the readers aware of

the newly proposed ideas relative to the existing knowledge. This is partly what has been referred to by Bakhtin (1994) as dialogism, in that all languages are dialogic in a way that new knowledge is intermingled with the existing ones, despite frequently resulting in a double-voicing or ventriloquism, meaning that bringing in new ideas and linking them to other people's inevitably involve interpretation and reinterpretation.

2.4. Attitudinal Markers

In the analysis of concordances, the word *interesting* or *menarik* (in BI) is intended by the writer that the point s/he makes specifically provides an interest in different respects relevant to the circumstances around which the adjectives are used, such as "*interesting in… , because… or to know…, etc.*". Whereas, *unfortunately,* or *sayangnya* (in BI), is used to imply that beyond the proposed arguments, there is a residual negative sense needed to be stated that warns the readers not to take it for granted in understanding the proposed ideas. The following excerpts are made available to clarify their discourse functions.

> (4a). The company demanded a fixed peso-dollar exchange rate for the repayment of its external debt and/or another rate increase of 42%. After a long renegotiation finally in 2006 President Kirchner decided to terminate the contract and return the company to the state control. **The most interesting** of the case of Argentine is the privatization of Buenos Aires water supply provision during 1993 to 2006. (*Eco-Eng3*)

> (4b). Staging (stadium) histopatologik leher setelah diseksi elektif dan rekurensi pada leher setelah observasi, telah dipakai untuk menentukan kecepatan metastasis occult berbagai tumor

berbeda dalam berbagai literatur. *Sayangnya*, tidak satupun dari metode ini yang seluruhnya sempurna. (*Med-BI4*)

Neck histophatologic staging, post elective dissection and recurrence on the neck after observation, have been used to determine the spread of metastasis occult of various tumors. **Unfortunately***, none of the methods is perfect.*

With the use of the word *interesting* or *menarik (*in BI) and *unfortunately* or *sayangnya* (in BI), both in the concordances samples and in the two extracts, I presume that the primary effect on the readers will be the transferable shared attitude to the propositions because prior to discerning the upcoming proposed ideas, the readers have been assisted by the writers' guiding sense of attitude to them, which overtly provides a meaningful hint of the intended meanings. Where the attitude markers are present, the readers are brought into the nuance of the message which brings them to sensing positively or negatively over the proposed ideas. In (4a) the phrase *the most interesting* is used to highlight how come privatisation over water had ever been made before it was eventually taken under the state control in 2006, which is in itself interesting, while in (4b) *sayangnya* is used to express a regret about the existing methods (in spite of their pervasive use). From the samples, we can see that attitude markers can be said to function as a bonding agent by linking between the preceding and the following propositions through a sense-positioning function of the markers, like in (4a), the writer initiates the sentence by unraveling the prevalent use of 2 methods to determine the spread of cancerous tumors, then the proposition

following attitude marker, *sayangnya*, is indicating the ineffectiveness of both methods which is regrettable.

2.5. Commentaries

Commentaries function themselves as the devices to interact with the readers by explicitly and implicitly involving the readers in unfolding discussions. The direct reference to the readers *anda (you),* along with the accompanying words in the sentence where the pronoun *you* appears, helps make the text explicit in treating the readers as the discursive agents by being allowed to help judge and participate in the unfolding discussions. In the concordances above, by using *anda,* the writer directly invites the readers to get involved by experiencing something, such as "If *you* type correctly..." (12) and "*You* may change..." (13). In (12), by saying *anda* (you) in a subjunctive sentence, the writer invokes the reader as the doer who should be performing something, and in (13) the writer essentially conveys a message that it is not somebody else but you (the reader) who may change something. Compared to the rhetorical questions, this type of commentary is certainly more explicit in referring to the readers. Different from samples (12) and (13), with the question *how* in (82) "How is its aesthetical value?" the readers are assumed by the writer to be present to address the issues by way of describing some possible characteristics in order for something to be categorized as being aesthetic in value, or in (84), the question *why* may demand that the readers find the answer to the question raised by the writer. Hence, the use of the rhetorical questions, as shown in the concordances above as well as the examples from the extracts below, provides examples of how the readers are involved in a direct dialogue by answering the questions. Research on this type of dialogue has been done by Thompson (2001) and part of his claims is

that questions are assignable to the readers in-the-text by assuming that they are raised on readers' behalf.

(5a) Sebagai contoh, jika **anda** ingin membuat test pilihan ganda, langkah yang harus **anda** lakukan adalah klik Add Question pada status bar sebagaimana yang muncul pada tampilan berikut. *(ApL-BI4)*

*For example, if **you** wish to create a multiple choice test, the step **you** should be doing is click Add Question on status bar as shown on the following screen.*

(5b). ***Why is it easy to influence postmodern consumers to buy the products shown on ads?*** (*CulS-Eng3*)

Unlike in the concordances samples, the writer uses commentaries *anda* in (5a) to explicitly guide the reader to complete a particular procedure as expressed in a subjunctive mode of "if *you..., you should...*". In (5b), the writer implies that the readers know the reasons why it is easy to influence the consumers to buy the products shown on ads? The question *why*, persuades the readers to explore some other alternatives answers, before eventually aligning themselves with the writer that, it is indeed true that ads influence consumers better than other selling methods. Although equally implying the readers to be the agent who should answer the questions, different questions may bring different dialogical effects. As illustrated above, the question word *how* in the samples of concordances is different from *why* in that the readers may be

challenged to describe an object as shown in (82) or possibly to solve a problem like in (81).

Conclusions

Having seen the devices in two corpora and put them in the contrastive analysis, the results indicate that despite being written by the same persona of writers, devices used in BI RAs are distinct from those used in Eng RAs suggesting that in writing RAs writers have taken the target readers of a specific discourse community to which the texts are written into prime consideration. Given that writers are drawn to prioritize the need to reach out readers and are more committed to promoting a more intense impact on readers in processing the text when writing Eng RAs than when they are writing BI RAs, there is an indication that differences in audiences seem to have played a major role in their decisions to use metadiscourse devices. Writers make use of the devices more intensely and more persuasively interact with the readers when they write Eng RAs, as demonstrated by twice more frequent use of metadiscourse in Eng RAs, thus, making the Eng RAs more interactive than the BI RAs. This vindicates that discourse community very much influences writers' decisions. Writing in different languages is fundamentally writing for different audiences, language culture as well as in different linguistic styles.

The second conclusion was drawn from the attempt to situate the contrast between the two investigated corpora within two contexts in which RAs were written. Disciplinary context is more revealing in accounting for the difference. Despite showing a similar pattern of use in terms of total frequency counts, as each of the devices was further investigated, each writer indicated an idiosyncratic style of

writing distinguishing one from the other and highlighting each individual writer's specific disciplinary background. This result is consistent with previous studies (Hyland, 1999, 2004, 2005; Dahl, 2004; Yakhontova, 2006) which revealed that writers of distinct disciplinary backgrounds interact with readers within the contextual boundary of disciplinary culture.

The variations of data distributions of IMD in the RAs in both languages suggest that any decision made by writers belonging to either soft or hard fields, or as an individual, are presumably linked to the necessity to conform to the norms of the disciplinary cultures in order for the texts to be accepted by the relevant members of DC, although at the same time they indicate each individual writer's strategy to manifest an idiosyncratic style of writing. With each writer's attempt to interact and persuade potential addressees, it is obvious that RAs are not necessarily pure impersonal which only allows for the texts to speak for themselves in order to maintain objectivity. The texts even gain more credibility through writers' efforts to project themselves all along with the evolving discourse by way of commenting, stating position, taking a stance, and projecting discourse trajectory which facilitates readers' access to the texts.

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1.2 SCHOLARS' SELVES: A CASE OF WRITERS WRITING ARTICLES IN TWO LANGUAGES

This study aims to investigate the deployment of self-mentions in research articles written in Bahasa Indonesia (BI) and English (Eng) by Indonesian scholars. This study involves six scholars of six distinct disciplines writing research articles (RAs) in BI and Eng. Two corpora, each consisting of 30 research articles, were contrasted to find out how the same writers display the facets of self as they write articles in different languagess and their possible motives. Data of self-mentions were analyzed quantitatively in terms of the frequency, types, and qualitatively in patterns of use to establish the contrast between the two. The results shows that writers displayed two very distinct facets of self as they write in different language which suggests that they are drawn to prioritize the need to reach out the readers and are more committed to promoting a more intense impact on readers in processing the text when writing Eng RAs than they are when writing BI RAs. Despite obvious disciplinary variations and idiosyncratic styles, the person-markers use in the two investigated corpora also suggests that writers have taken the target readers of specific discourse community into prime consideration. Target audiences are a determinant factors in the decisions to use devices. Context and co-text analyses vindicate writers' commitment to knowledge claims dominant with attempts to involve readers in the unfolding texts, besides promoting self as committed writers.

Keywords: text interactivity, self-mentions, facets of sel, research articles, contrastive analysis

Introduction

Academic writing has played a paramount role in disseminating scientific research results to academic members. One of the academic genres most frequently used as a means of sharing scientific findings is a research article (Jezo, 2010). No wonder, despite the competitiveness, academics all over the world are persistent in getting their work published, as an academic publication is the benchmark of academic success.

Writing articles, one of the academic writing activities, constitutes an act of academic discourse. In such a nature it is inextricable from the message, medium and audience. Just like communication in general, academic discourse which manifests through the act of writing can be investigated in terms of its' interactional aspect.

The last two decades have witnessed the rise of interest in the study of textual devices used by academic writers alongside the rise of interest in the areas of pragmatic and discursive aspects of academic texts. Studies of this sort allow researchers to delve text meanings beyond sentence level through discursive devices and the results of which potentially provide meaningful feedback to the writers in improving comprehensibility as a result of their interactive functions.

Little is unfolded with respect to how the same persona of scholars writing in two different languages considers audience through the deployment of self-mentions to display the facets of self. Self-mentions also known as person-markers mark the presence of writers in the text that signify efforts to engage and involve the readers in the unfolding texts (see for instance Hyland, 2004b; Tse and Hyland, 2006) thus constitute an important means of facilitating

communication, supporting writers' position and building a relationship with readers.

Built upon socio-constructivism, this study raises questions whether the same persona of writers differs in the deployment of self-mentions when writing RAs in BI and Eng and if their understanding of discourse community (DC) affects the strategies in writing. There are three inextricable aspects linkable to academic writing activities: the actors, the writing activity and the context which will be the highlight of this endeavor.

The impetuses to this study are the recent research on intercultural variation of written academic discourse generally investigated under the research umbrella of Contrastive Rhetoric (CR) (Kaplan, 1966, Hinds, 1983, Crismore, et al., 1993, Connor, 1996 and 2002) and the role of the context in which discourse is shaped and how it shapes the discourse (Jorgenson & Phillips, 2002) with preceding research on genre (Swales, 1990). Last but not least, in the previously predominant stream of cross-cultural research, little is unfolded in respect of how the same scholars writing in two different languages consider the audience through the deployment of self-mentions.

The prime motivation for conducting this research is the idea that writers leave their fingerprints on their writing which may reveal the writers' efforts to interact with their audience. Secondly, the substantive role of writers' awareness of the audience in the creation of text and in generating meaning as well as how self-mentions are used in different research articles have not been adequately understood.

This study is expected to be significant for a number of reasons, i.e. to contribute critically to the proposition that writers are influenced

by the DC and genre in which the texts are written and to provide input to the teaching of writing in particular in the Indonesian context, since the result may be of benefit to language teachers to better understand Indonesian academic discourse so that they may be able to provide students with broader analytical tools for use in academic writing

Review of Literature

Socio-constructivism in writing

Socio-constructivism views actors as meaning makers and reality constructors within their environment and purposes (Bruner, 1996). Constructivism in the perspective of writing sees writing as a meaning-making activity whose nature is both individually and socially oriented. Thus, there are at least three inextricable aspects: the actors, the writing activity and the context which manifests in the writer and (imagined) readers, the situated activity of writing, and the creation of meanings. This connectedness is linked to Halliday & Hassan (1985) who contend that texts are never purely linguistics-emphasizing the semiotic function in discourse and in creating meaning in the social contexts. The interplay between context & discourse is often illustrated as follows: "context underlies discourse with its features used to interpret discourse; but because speakers' role manifests through texts, then discourse is a means by which context is observable like through *I, here, interesting, etc."*. (Van Dijk, 2008, p 131).

Genre, such as RAs which is generally believed to be both constraining and creative, should not be separable from the contexts in which the

texts are created. A context may emerge in different types which is recognizable through the language the texts are written in and the disciplines of the writers which may be connectable to the concept of discourse community, a determinant and instrumental aspect in text creation. Communicative events, noticeable through the texts, are accomplished by a series of interlocking acts realized linguistically (Kress & Van Leeuwen, 2001) and in an academic discourse they, as argued by Georgakopoulou and Goutsos (1997), are useable to persuade readers.

Interaction through self-mentions

Self-mentions in academic writing have been noted to have contributed to the interactional function in discourse. As claimed by Hyland (2005), they have enhanced writers' credibility as regards the knowledge claims. Through self-mentions, Hyland (2004) whose investigation was on the view of writing as social engagement, managed to reveal the ways in which writers project themselves into discourse to signal their attitudes and commitments. Secondly, self-mentions may be revealed through the accompanying knowledge-stating verbs such as *argue, claim, suggest, propose, maintain, assume* and *believe,* which help increase knowledge accountability (Malmström, 2008).

Research on self-mentions gains inspiration in the study of language and identity. Among the shared view underlying research on identity is the notion that language is inseparable from the analysis of contexts (De Fina et al., 2006, p.22), and in academic discourse, there exist the so-called social identities. They are "multi-faceted and dynamic constructs that derive from individuals" real affiliations to social groups and categories' (Sokol, 2005, p.322). They consist of

different individuals with different identities who altogether make up an academic community. In his term, academic community refers to a group of scholars who share various values, assumptions, and practices ascribed to the "pursuit and dissemination of knowledge...values that are shared and communicated by members of academia" (ibid., p.323) inside which individual members construct identity by maximizing the socially available resources inherent in the community.

We, therefore, could say that writing is not only a means by which information is circulated and disseminated but also a site where identity is constructed. Ivanič (1998, p. iv) argues that writing is an act of identity which mediates self-positioning in discourse by aligning self or contesting other-selves. The first persons *I* or *we*, for instance, maybe associated with knowledge claims and beliefs, acknowledging their responsibility and property rights (Ivanič, 1998, p.308), whilst by avoiding them the 'writer is withdrawing from all responsibility for an academic essay' (p. 306). Identity construction presupposes community acceptance whereby meanings are accepted socially. Thus, Canagarajah is right to advocate that, writing should not be limitedly-defined as a text construction, but rather as "a rhetorical negotiation for achieving social meanings and functions" (2005, p. 64).

As has been argued, among others, by Benwell and Stokoe (2006), Ivanič (1998), identity is something fluid, open to change and subject to contestation. In order for the member to be part of the discourse community, every individual member has to negotiate his/her own identity to a degree whereby he/she meets the expectation of the community. Sokol (2005, p.324), in a similar vein, suggests that

"Members of the academic community negotiate their identity within the range of possibilities accepted by this community and ascribed in its communicative practices".

Ivanič (1998, pp.90-106) proposes four aspects of identity that can be constructed through the act of writing: autobiographical self (writer's sense of root), discoursal self (choices of the form), self as author (choices of content), and possibilities for selfhood (the social contexts of writing). Nonetheless, research of identity in academic writing context has been predominantly on self as author. This could be because identity in the academic written discourse is a matter of the claim of authority, which is strongly associated with it. Authority pertains to the claim made by the writers in respect of the source of the contents of the information in the texts which is most clearly recognizable through the authors' presence in the texts. This is, probably the reason why the self of author, is considered as one of the clearest revelatory indicators of the writer's presence.

Previous research on identity focusing on the self of author has been done, among others, by Sokol (2005), Vassileva (2000, 2004) Hyland, (2002b, 2002c), and Tessuto (2008) who investigated the authorial presence as measured by the frequency of self-mentions. The criteria for determining writers' identities are grounded on the use of subject and object pronouns. Explicitness is determined by the overall number of occurrences in the texts as well as by the location where the pronouns were found. Other researchers have seen self-as-author as something which concerns with the writers' voice, in the sense of the writers' position, opinions, and beliefs. Among researchers investigating identity using voice are Ramanathan (1996); Ramanathan and Atkinson, (1999); Matsuda (2001, 2007), Ivanič and Camps (2001).

From the available literature, however, there are two schools of thought as to whether writers should be covert or overt in revealing self. The difference is resulted from the opposing principles abide by different academic circles, as the by-product of the opposing beliefs about what constitutes formal and scientific in academic writing. On the one hand, scientific proponents believe that academic arguments should be purely impersonal to maintain the objectivity and neutrality of knowledge so that academic writing is, in itself, a fully voiceless depiction of reality (see Hyland, 2002a, 2002b). On the other hand, the opposing view believes that an overt person's revelation reinvigorates scientific claims (ibid.). The two typically represents hard science and soft science adversary.

The old notion, currently still prevailing in many style guides of academic writing, explicitly recommends that academic writing should be distanced from a personal claim by avoiding the overt sighting of person-markers in order to maintain the objectivity of knowledge. This view has been rejected by Harwood (2005) who claims that in recent days this old view is no more tenable and has lost its empirical grounds. His claim has gained supports from other research findings. Some corpus studies on the use of personal pronouns in the academic writing have identified a number of functions that *I* and *we* can play role in the academic writing (see for instance, Hyland, 2001; Tang & John, 1999, Vassileva, 1998; Gragson & Selzer, 1990). Further to such a claim, Harwood (2005) proposes four functions of the pronouns in the academic texts which help writers to:

(1) organize the text and guide readers through the argument (e.g. First I will discuss x...)

(2) state personal opinions and knowledge claims (e.g. On the basis of my data, I would claim....)

(3) recount experimental procedure and methodology (e.g. We interviewed 60 subjects over the space of several months)

(4) acknowledge funding bodies, institutions, and individuals that contributed to the study in some way (e.g. I thank Professor X for his help with the calculations.)

Discourse functions of the self-mentions to reveal identity is certainly not fixed. Considering that "Members of academic community negotiate their identity within the range of possibilities accepted by the community and inscribed in its communicative practices" (Sokol 2005, p. 324), different pronouns used in different contexts of discourse may function differently.

Research method

Whilst the approach is a case study, the analytical tool used in this study is corpus-based contrastive rhetoric. The primary data are the selected articles that make up text corpora. Via quasi quantitative mappings, this study seeks to locate the differences in the use of self-mentions and also to identify their possible cross-linguistic resemblances between BI and Eng RAs. Whilst, qualitative analysis in this research is to trace the presence of the devices in the real context of use to help substantiate the quantitative findings. This study incorporates corpus and discourse analysis, both of which are complementary to each other in looking into the data.

This case study investigates genre of RAs written in BI and Eng by six scholars. The whole set of data for the research was collected in 4 universities in Semarang, Central Java for convenience reasons. The

procedure taken were: collecting pre-published RAs written by the subjects; selecting RAs on the basis of inclusion criteria; and establishing the final pre-analysed corpora.

Scholars in this study refer to lecturers who are academically productive as shown by the frequency of publication in BI and Eng in local and international journals. The average length is 3000 words per article. Wordsmith 5.0 was employed as an automatic search for self-mentions.

Table 1. 4. The self-mentions contrasted

Singular case						Plural case					
Subjective		Objective		Possessive		Subjective		Objective		Possessive	
B.I	Eng	B.I	Eng	B.I	Eng	B.I	Eng	B.I	Eng	B.I	Eng
Saya	I	saya	Me	saya	My	Kita	We	Kita	Us	Kita	Our

Part of the analyses highlights the frequencies of self-mentions use (with the exclusion of words such as the author, the researcher) to see the patterns of use. Co-text and context of use were to disclose their discourse functions. By adapting Hyland (2002c) and Hardwood (2005), self-mentions were analyzed descriptively. The higher the number, the more obvious the writers' commitment to knowledge claim and more explicit their effort to involve the readers in the unfolding texts.

Data analysis and interpretation

Below is the distribution of self-mentions.

Table 1. 5. *Singular and plural cases of self-mentions in BI and Eng*

Discipline	Singular						Plural					
	saya (S)	I (S)	Saya (O)	Me (O)	saya (pos)	My (pos)	Kami (S)	We (S)	kita (O)	Us (O)	kita (pos)	Our (pos)
Ecology	0	0	0	0	0	0	12	10	0	1	1	8
Cult-Stud	12	31	4	0	5	11	6	39	1	9	5	13
App. Ling	1	27	1	0	0	8	37	6	0	2	7	2
Medical	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Economic	9	5	3	0	2	1	11	18	3	1	0	4
Literature	3	2	0	0	0	0	13	2	1	0	6	2
Total	25	65	8	0	7	20	79	75	5	13	19	29

The total self-mentions in all cases is higher in Eng than that in BI RAs. However, as evident in the data, despite the high degree of variations across disciplines, the subject cases of *I* and *we* (subsequently 65; 75) in Eng and *saya* and *kita* (subsequently 25; 79) in BI RAs, rank the highest. While overall, the use of *I* is higher than *saya* in the total cases of occurrence (65; 25), the opposite is true as regards the total cases of *we* as opposed to *kita/kami* (79; 75). The second highest case is possessive plural *kita* and *our*, subsequently 19 and 29 cases. While the plural object case is consistently low in BI, it is not in Eng RAs. There appears to be a deviant case in singular object pronoun of *me*

and *saya*, in that *me* is non-existent in all Eng RAs, whereas *saya* has 8 cases in BI RAs. The following graph may provide a clearer outlook.
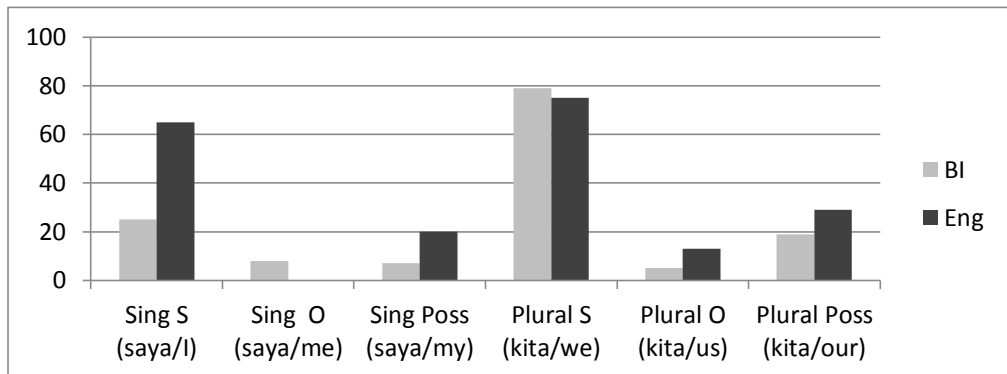
Graph 1. 5. The total frequency of self-mentions in two corpora

The Graph shows that there is a clear difference between the two corpora. All in all, the writers tend to employ more self-mentions when writing Eng RAs with the exception of the non-occurrence of *me* as a singular object pronoun with zero case which may well be linkable to agency-related reasons, and slightly more use of the plural subject *kita* in all BI corpora which may be attributable both the exclusive or inclusive meanings in BI. Despite more than double occurrence of *I* as a singular subject pronoun (as compared to *saya*), *we* as a plural subject pronoun case is less than *kita* in BI RAs. Also despite having comparatively similar look between singular and plural possessive pronouns, the total occurrence of plural cases is higher in Eng RAs, even more than twice higher in the case of singular possessive. The object pronouns rank the lowest, and are even markedly non-existence in singular case of Eng RAs.
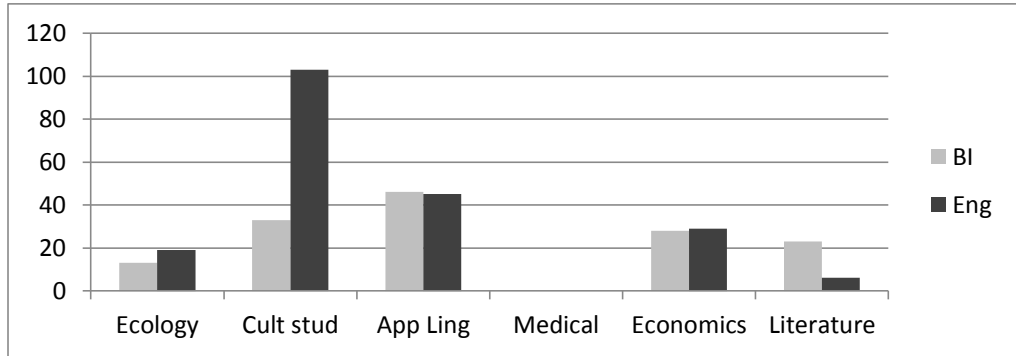
Graph 1. 6. Comparison of the total case frequency of disciplinary self-mentions

Writers of different disciplines differ in expressing self which indicates varied styles of writing. The table below elaborates the cases in the context of disciplinary.
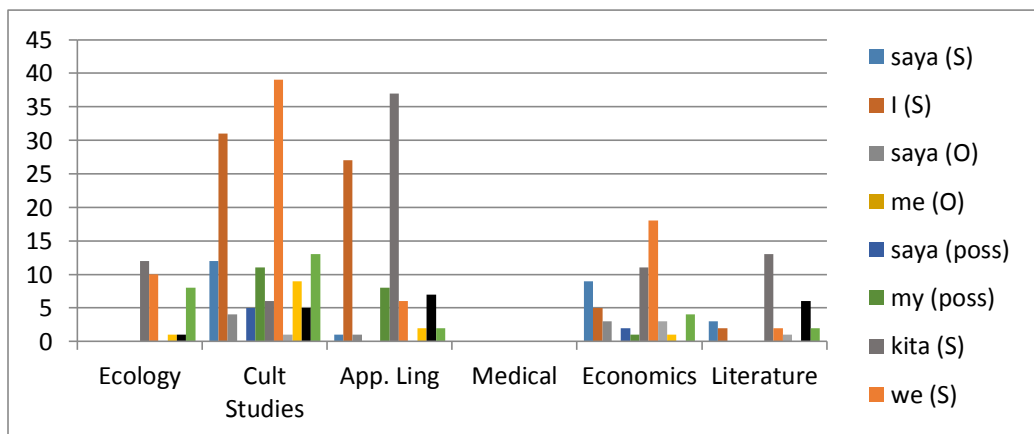
Graph 1. 7. Distribution of self-mentions cases across disciplines

In **Error! Reference source not found.**, variation is more revealing through the distribution of cases across six disciplines. Overall, the frequency of cases in both corpora can be called randomly distributed. Inconsistency is shared by five writers as regards the preference of pronouns use in BI and Eng Ras where the most

extreme cases are demonstrated by Applied Linguistics and Cultural Studies writers, suggesting that despite the disciplinary constraint, the use of pronouns is highly idiosyncratic.*.*

Co-text and context of self-mentions

Below is the immediate co-text and context where the subject case of *saya* and *kita* in BI as well as *I* and *we* in Eng RAs occurs. The table below lists the first four most frequent verbs which co-occur with the two- subjective pronouns (singular and plural cases) in two languages.

Table 1. 6. Frequency of verbs co-occurrence in BI RAs

Verbs that co-occur with *saya (S)*		Verbs that co-occur with *kita (S)*	
Verbs	*Cases*	*Verbs*	*Cases*
tafsirkan, artikan *(interpret)*	3	harus/wajib *(must/have to)*	6
diskripsikan *(describe)*	2	melihat, saksikan, perhatikan *(see)*	5
asumsikan *(assume)*	2	boleh *(may)*	4
mencoba *(try)*	1	berharap *(hope)*	2

This table lists the four most frequent verbs which co-occur with the two- 1st person subject pronouns.

Table 1. 7. Frequency of verbs co-occurrence in Eng RAs

Verbs that co-occur with *I (S)*		Verbs that co-occur with *we (S)*	
Verbs	*Cases*	*Verbs*	*Cases*
believe	3	need to /have to/ can/ must/ought to/should	8
prefer	2	see	5
examine	2	conclude	3
outline	2	outline	2

There appears to be a very close resemblance both in the choice of verbs co-ocurring with plural subject *kita* and *we*, in particular in the case modal verb use like *can, have to, must, should*. Interestingly, however, it is not the case with singular subject cases. The top four verbs co-occurring with pronouns in both corpora are almost identical in the frequency of use which may suggest similar functions attributed to the pronouns.

The frequent use of modal verbs such as *must/have to* and *need to* signals writers' attitude to the propositions which indicates confidence or assurance in stating them. The second most frequent verbs are *see/can see*, denoting a mental activity which is apparently intended to mean understanding processes or comprehension. The third frequent verbs used are *believe* and *interpret* which like *see* involves the mental activity which implies the intention of the writers to express the attitude to the suggested propositions. Of the affinities, there is a deviant case where verb *boleh(may)* which co-occurs with the subject case *kita(we)* (only in BI RAs) is relatively high. This might suggest that writers intend to express caution in proposing ideas. The table below lists the first four most frequent verbs co-occurring with the two- possessive pronouns.

Table 1. 8. Frequency of words co-occurring with possessive pronouns in BI RAs

Nouns that co-occur with *saya (poss)*		Nouns that co-occur with *kita (poss)*	
Nouns	*Cases*	*Noun*	*Cases*
penelitian (research)	2	pemikiran (idea)	2
disertasi (dissertation)	2	problematika (problem)	1
perhatian (attention)	2	identitas (identity)	1
pemahaman (understanding)	1	bangsa (race)	1

This table compares the frequency of nouns cases that co-occur with the 1ˢᵗ person plural possessive cases of *my* and *our* in Eng RAs.

Table 1. 9. Frequency of words co-occurring with possessive pronouns in Eng RAs

Nouns that co-occur with *my (poss)*		Nouns that co-occur with *our (poss)*	
Nouns	*Cases*	*Nouns*	*Cases*
opinion	4	culture	2
concern	3	Lives	1
findings	3	needs	1
interest	2	Time	1

The two tables show some affinities in the frequency of words co-occurrence in both BI and Eng RAs despite its rarity. However, from the functional perspective, there is a difference of emphasis between the case of singular and plural possessive pronouns. While the singular possessive pronouns along with the accompanying nouns are intended to show writers' authority as regards the knowledge claims, the plural possessive pronouns are used by the writers to manifest intentions to get the readers engaged in the unfolding discussions.

The extracts below help make the notion of interactive functions conspicuous. Besides showing authority, by saying *I propose,* the writer, likely means to say *I propose to you (readers)*; a sign of invitation to the readers to be in the hopeful position of agreeing with the writer, in spite of the freedom to be for or against her/him. While by saying *we should note,* the writer apparently means to involve the readers in considering the importance of the issues being proposed.

(1a). *I propose* that actually, as the example of the debate between Friedman and Mackey, not only the hierarchical principles of state can be found in the market and civil society actors, but also the principles of market such as mentioned in the above key. (*Eco-Eng3*)

(1b). **We should note** that Shakespeare's England was not a multi-racial society. These historical accounts describe the prejudiced attitudes displayed by either the state or the common people towards the existence of foreigners in their realm. (*Lit-Eng5*)

By saying *I propose* in (1a), the writer also warns the readers about an up-coming important issue to notice, for them to consider accepting or declining, and by saying so, at the same time, the writer is self-positioning his own interpretation relative to the proposed issues. While in (1b), by using a clause *we should note,* the writers intentionally attempt to engage the readers to judge the importance of the truth value of the proposition, which is likely meant to prevent the readers from misunderstanding the sentences that follow. Thus, it is not simply a notice, it is rather a reminder for not being wrong about the proposition. It is clear from the context, *we* in (1b) is not a plural 1st person subject referring to more than a single writer, but rather performs a function of engaging the readers in the texts.

In the sections to follow, there are instances in which the personal pronoun *I* and *kami* (exclusive *we* in BI) are used for the purpose of "organizing the text and guiding the readers through the argument" as referred to by (Hyland, 2001) (see excerpt 2a and 2b). The personal pronoun *kami* here, is exclusive in nature, referring to more than one

writers rather than inclusive reference involving readers as an insider party, which, in itself, makes it different from *kita* (or *we* in Eng) which often has a more inclusive meaning as shown by one example of *we* in the extract (1b) above. In spite of having the same discursive function, *I* (2a) and *kami* (2b) are different in that *I* represent the writer as a single person writer, while *kami* (*we*) refers to co-writers. The writers show their commitment by making themselves clear to the readers in demystifying the ideas of the texts.

(2a). Thirdly *I would like also to show* the strategies used and if possible the supporting condition that makes a certain actor influential, though for the supporting strategies for sure they are case-specific. (*Eco-Eng1*)

 (2b). *Kami tidak akan membahas* lebih lanjut karena pembahasan tersebut sudah barang tentu diluar signifikansi penelitian ini. Kita tunggu BAN PT sebagai mitra pembina dan bukan momok bagai dewa. (*ApL-BI5*)

We will not discuss it *further because it is beyond this research significance. We wait for BAN PT as the partner patron rather than a fearful god.*

As evident in (2a), the personal pronoun *I* explicitly denotes the writer (as a single person) and in (2b) *we* denotes co-authors, but both discursively share the same function in revealing the authority of the scholar-selves. 'I would like' in a grammatical context generally indicates an intention to do something or a wish to achieve something. By saying *I would like also to show...* (in 2a), the writer displays her/his authority to clarify something by showing an evidence about what the readers should particularly be wary of.

Unlike *I* in the two contexts above, the discursive meaning of *we* in (2b) is no more an intention but rather a promise or notification. By saying *Kami tidak akan membahas* (*We will not discuss),* a noticeable intent to outline ideas, the writer initiates a promise which is followed by a clause signifying the reason why.

There are cases in which author's presence was marked and where the pronoun *we* was used. These are the examples of cases in which the authors of the RAs speak on behalf of the readers and make a joint claim. It seems that such a discourse function often gains significance when the writers believe that knowledge has been accepted as a general truth. By using *we* to refer to both the writer and the readers, the writer is potentially less liable to any erroneous claim. Such functions add up to the sense of writers' commitment.

> (3a). "***We*** are on the threshold of a new era which is the bearer of great hopes and disturbing questions. What will be the effect of the changes taking place? Will everyone be able to take advantage of a global market? (*Eco-Eng4*)

> (3b). So, culture signs or codes, such as the examples illustrated are not easy to recognize unless ***we*** have a chance to grow within a culture. Solomon (1988: 4) explains that ***we*** may not always recognize the cultural codes that surround us, because most influential signs are not words et al., instead they are usually objects and social practices with hidden meanings that ***we*** usually are not accustomed to looking for. (*CulS-Eng5*)

We, in the two extracts above, are not meant to refer to the writers themselves. In (3a), by using *we,* followed by "on the threshold of a new era", the writer involves the readers in invoking the current world where all the people (obviously all-inclusive) should be facing both hopes and threats altogether. Whereas, in (3b) through pronoun *we,* the writer intends to remind the readers about the condition under which people have to be aware of. If a similar question is posed as to "Who has a chance to grow within the culture?", the answer would be again all-inclusive.

Another case involving readers in the text is realized through the use of possessive pronoun *our*:

> (4a). One of the criteria in judging how modern the culture of society is, in my opinion, can be based on how close the offers made by advertisements meet **our** daily needs or dreams. (*CulS-Eng3*)
>
> (4b). Kesimpulan yang dapat kita tarik di sini adalah bahwa QW penting sebagai salah satu software pembuat test yang dapat mendukung implementasi e-learning di dunia pendidikan **kita**. (*ApL-BI4*). *The conclusion we can draw here is that QW is one of the important test-makers of software which can support e-learning implementation in* **our** *education.*

Our is followed by a noun in Eng, while *kita* comes after a noun in BI. Discursively, as shown in contexts, the above possessive pronouns display the same discourse function in which the writers clearly intend to engage the readers in the unfolding discussion. Reminiscent of the functions performed by extract (4a) and (bb), the writers

wittingly refer to the readers subsequently as the owner of knowledge.

Hyland (2001, p. 123) claims that verbs like *think*, *believe* allow writers to 'build a personal ethos through an impression of certainty, assurance and conviction on the views expressed, an image strengthened with the use of personal pronouns'. In another study such as (Studer, 2008), such words have an evaluative function which amounts to the writer's commitment to the propositional truth. In the data, the examples of verbs, which come before pronoun *saya* in BI RAs and after pronoun *I* in Eng RAs, suggest such an attribute to the writers in better convincing the readers.

> (5a). Selain sifat orang Amerika yang mandiri, iklan ini, ***menurut saya*** juga memperlihatkan budaya Amerika yang masyarakatnya bisa diandalkan rasa kepercayaannya terhadap masing-masing, dan selalu siap untuk menghadapi segala macam tantangan. (*CulS-BI2*). *Besides showing Americans as being independent, **I think** this advertisement also shows that they are very reliable society and ready to deal with all sorts of challenges.*

> (5b). Understanding this value, ***I believe*** this can explain why we hear an American saying, such as to not put off tomorrow what you can do today and when there's a will there is a way. (*CulS-Eng4*)

As we can see in the extracts, the personal voice like "I think" and "I believe" could help make the text more objectively expressed through its evaluative function which in itself proves Knapp and Watkins' (2005, p. 206) right that grammatical resources of voice and modality are tightly linked to each other as the key devices of arguing.

Besides making the statement sound more objective, by saying *menurut saya* (*I think* in BI, in (5a) the writer also avoids expressing too blatant conviction about the truth value of her/his ideas in anticipation of a hefty clash with the likely reaction of the readers. *I believe* in (5b), on the other hand, discursively shares the writer's belief about the proposed ideas. The writer again initiates a proposition about what "understanding this value could mean", but unlike in (5a), this time the writer has a stronger belief about why his/her proposition should be trusted.

Another interesting point to make out of the corpus analysis is the use of inclusive pronoun *we* and *kita* (we in BI) providing a means by which the authors appoint the readers as the agents to take action in response to the proposed issues to strengthen his bond with the readers. They frequently use the first person plural pronouns (k*ita* and w*e*) in both BI and Eng RAs as shown below.

> (6a). It is an urgent task of the International Organizations to help promote a sense of responsibility for the common good. But to achieve this **we** must never lose sight of the human person, who must be at the centre of every social project. (*Eco-Eng5*)

> (6b). **Kita** bisa saksikan bagaimana gilanya orang jual ideology pepesan kosong, banyak janji tidak ada bukti. Rakyat dijadikan korban ambisi kekuasaan. (*ApL-BI2*). **We** *can witness how crazy people sell non-sense ideologies. People have been sacrificed at the cost of power ambition*

We in the last two excerpts is mainly intended to acknowledge the readers as the important actors in the texts. All pronouns *we*,

immediately followed by modal verbs, subsequently *must* in 'we must never lose', and *can* in "we can see" witness" are meant to give a stronger sense of acknowledging the readers as the joint-agents in the texts. Through pronouns *we*, the readers are assigned to witness the value of the ideas.

Conclusions

Having seen the devices in two RAs corpora and put them in the contrastive outlook, the data indicate that despite being written by the same persona of writers, devices used in BI RAs corpora are distinct from those in Eng RAs corpora. Writers in writing RAs have taken the target readers of the differing discourse community into prime consideration. Writers are more committed to helping readers in processing the text when writing Eng RAs than they are when writing BI RAs, suggesting that differences in audiences have played a major role in their decisions to use devices. This finding provides an insight that different uses of devices do not necessarily result from the differences of writers' national backgrounds but rather as a result of the language in which RAs are written.

The second conclusion was drawn from the attempt to situate the contrast between the two investigated corpora. The results suggest that disciplinary context is more revealing in accounting for the difference. Despite showing a random pattern of use in terms of total frequency counts for each individual device and despite the disciplinary constraint, each writer indicated an idiosyncratic style of writing This result is consistent with the previous studies (Hyland, 1999, 2004, 2005; Dahl, 2004; Yakhontova, 2006) in that self-mentions display writers' attempts to interact with readers by way of

promoting the sense of engagement in manifesting attempts to interact with the readers.

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CHAPTER II

ELECTRONIC CORPUS ANALYSIS

Electronic analysis of texts in linguistic research is relatively current because it only began to gain recognition in the late 1980s through John Sinclair with corpus-based research (analysis of a collection of texts) to examine classroom discourses. He later developed a Collin Cobuild dictionary project at the University Birmingham, UK, which bases its dictionary entries on the use of language in a real context or use in real everyday human life scrutinized via corpus data. Such an electronic linguistic analysis bases its findings on empirical evidence that leads to the perspective of the use of real, everyday language so as to open an understanding of how language works in the context of a particular discourse.

Based on the above definition, corpus linguistics is the study of corpus data of language using natural linguistic modelswhich are usually performed using specialized software on a computer. Thus, corpus linguistics is a method of obtaining and analyzing data quantitatively and qualitatively, not a theory of language or even a single branch of linguistics on an equal footing, such as sociolinguistics or applied linguistics. The corpus-linguistic approach can be used to describe linguistic features and test hypotheses formulated in different linguistic frameworks. Here are just a few examples that incorporate recording of different stages of language learning to provide information for learning a foreign language. Historical corpora can be used to track the development of specific features in English history, such as changes in the use of the modal verbs *must* or *should*; the

appearance of verbs *going* and *wanna*; or even sociolinguistic markers of specific age groups, like discourse marker can be explored for the purposes of sociolinguistic or discourse-analytical research.

The great advantage of the corpus-linguistic method is that language researchers don't have to rely on their own or other intuition of native speakers or even complex examples. Rather, they can use a great deal of authentic, natural language data obtained from different speakers or writers to confirm or refute/ disconfirm their own hypotheses about specific linguistic features on the basis of a strong and solid empirical basis.

2.1 HEDGING STRATEGY IN DISCUSSION SECTIONS OF NON-SCIENCE STUDENTS' THESES: CORPUS ANALYSIS

This research is conducted with a view to investigating students' theses stored in the thesis repository. The purpose of this study is to disclose the way students express academic hedging in presenting academic ideas in Chapter IV of their theses discussion sections. By deploying electronic analysis application this study attempts to analyze the way students use hedging techniques in expressing academic ideas so that the results are expected to contribute to the quality of students' academic writing and can help students who will write their theses. The analysis which involves corpus data with an accumulated collection of more than 100,000 words suggests that modal verbs were predominant devices used to hedge. Students tend to overuse Modal Auxiliary (62.6 %) with hedging devices of *can*, which is 36.75% of the total Modal Verbs. This may indicate that *can* is the most familiar hedge typically taught to and digested by Indonesian EFL learners. The misused hedging devices by the students showed that they lack knowledge of other relevant and less contentious devices to claim their academic findings such as *may*, *could be*, *may likely*, etc. This research, thus, provides input to students who will write theses by taking expansion of the repertoire of hedging devices into consideration to produce academic writings that are more convincing and acceptable by other fellow academics who may disagree with statements or academic statements that potentially cause polemic or refutation from other academics.

Keywords: electronic analysis, thesis corpus, hedging, academic ideas

Introduction

Over the past years, the use of hedges has gained increasing interests of linguistic researchers, especially those working on the area of discourse, and even more specifically those focusing on academic discourse area (e.g., Gillaerts & Van de Velde,2010; Hyland & Tse, 2004; Peterlin, 2005). The interests are not without reason as hedges play a critical role in academic discourse, especially where academic texts can manifest various aspects that can feed into the dissemination of scientific knowledge. In addition, students' final research paper, is one of the products of academic activities in the broader area of academic discourse may be of a vital means by which academic members record and share their academic viewpoints through the presentation of new academic findings whereby they argue and claim knowledge which requires ratification and acceptance from the relevant academic member of community called academic discourse community.

The research on hedges in academic fields is significant to conduct as it may help to investigate and find an essential element of academic argument because through them writers generally exert into their writings ideas and propositions that include claims of knowledge and rationale through their texts (e.g., Hyland, 1998; Hewings, 2006). Such an activity is considered as an act of knowledge sharing that employ academic messages in the academic communicative encounters among members of a specific discourse community. A DC encompasses people from various disciplines or discourse communities with the varied discourse strategies relevant to the subject matter and the target audience, and the nature of the

communicated   information based on the accepted genre and ideology of the discipline or discourse community (Bazeman, 1988).

One of the problems confronting students in writing an academic text is the use of hedges and boosters. Students are not generally trained to specifically write in academic styles. If they happen to be so, they are not well aware of the use and importance of hedges in their academic texts. They are innocent and as they are shown their mistakes in the use of hedges, they are often confused about what they exactly are and how to use them (Macintyre, 2013). Hedges are written devices useable for communicative strategies conveying the writer's degree of confidence about the truth value of their academic proposition and expressing an attitude to the audience (Hyland, 2004). Hedges sometimes is also known to be devices to express academic politeness and used to downtone academic claims.

A proper use of hedges enables writers to express a proportional strength and truth value of opinion and perspective expressed in the academic statements, to present unproven claims with caution and to enter to a dialogue with their audience (Hyland, 2005). Thus, the importance of hedges in academic discourse lies in their contribution to uplift the academic discourse onto a higher degree of acceptance by the readers. They provide an appropriate rhetorical tool and interactive means of communication, conveying both epistemic and affective meanings. In Hyland's term, they serve as a medium of ethos and pathos deliverance. That way hedges do not only convey writer's degree of confidence in the truth value of a proposition, but also an attitude to the audience. Despite their importance, however, students are not suffucuently equipped with

the knowledge of their use and function and often still find them difficult to use.

Previous literature and research on hedges in academic discourse suggest that there are still many beginners lacking the knowledge of hedges. As a result, they are prone to overuse, underuse, or misused them in their writing signaling their limited knowledge and experience of utilizing this important rhetorical device for their writing weaponry. This present research, thereby, is meant to respond to the above issue by investigating the undergraduate students' final academic paper written by students of non-science subjects.

The contribution that this kind of research may be giving is that more and more academics and scientists wishing to improve the quality of their academic writing may take this as a reference. This may also expand the types of research by maximizing the potential that the electronic analizer can do to investigate the texts and that this may also enrich the newly found research method dabbed as corpus and discourse study stream. The highlight of this research model is that it may potentially shed a new light on texts analysis useable for assessing the general portrayal of the text as well as scrutinizing the general features of the texts on the basis of disciplines which later can be readily exposed for learning and comparing various texts from different disciplinary backgrounds.

Theoretical Review

Electronic Text Analysis

Text analysis develops alongside technological development or to be precise part of Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) in language learning area. Electronic analysis or digital analysis is another word for corpus analysis. The differences of the meaning lie on the emphasis in which the first term puts more emphasis on process, whereas the second stresses the product (Adolphs, 2002). Corpus analysis is much used in corpus linguistic study which is a study of language which puts more weight on the rules and principles analysis where a large amount of data in the forms of words or phrases or sentences and altogether make up of corpora. To put it simpler, a corpus linguistic study is a study that is made on the basis of a large size of textual data collection on the aspects of linguistics analyzable through different aspects of language or categories of elements of language. The single corpus should generally be homogeneous in nature in that the collection of the text corpora should consist of the same types or the same genre of texts.

Due to its requirement to have a sizable corpus, the way to analyze requires electronic tools rather than a time-consuming manual procedure of analysis. Recent technology offers different types of software to assist the researcher to study big corpora, among a few to mention are Wordsmith Tool, Antconc Tool, etc. This present research will particularly employ the second as an electronical analyzer tool.

The computer software corpus analyzer is capable of conducting scanning of big data and produces output almost instantly. As a

result, researchers can enjoy speedy and easily analyzable data. The software can conduct various analyses such as Keywords, statistically count frequency, concordance, and collocation. This is the reason why this type of analysis is relatively recent due to the fact that corpus study and corpus analysis did not come to existence until computer technology was invented. In the linguistic world it is only beginning to be known in the 1980s, and it was not until the technology of analysis capacity was made available and the storage of data began to be capable of accommodating such purposes.

Academic Discourse

Academic writing is one of the forms of academic discourse that can be used to describe a wide range of texts, ranging from book chapters, research reports, undergraduate essays, academic abstracts, laboratory reports, book chapters, theses to dissertations. Due to its diversity, it raises a question about the status of academic writing. This is why Nash (1990, p. 9) at one time began to question whether "academic writing" can be called a "genre".

Academic writing is an academic text used to disseminate and distribute knowledge of a particular discipline to relevant academic circles or discourse communities. For the interest of this current study, academic writing is limitedly defined within the context of students' final research paper, i.e. a piece of academic writing aimed to report a study by students as partial fulfillment of the undergraduate degree completion in Indonesian academic culture.

As a part of the academic discourse, academic writers have to comply with an academic etiquette as the writers claim the knowledge truth or ownership and as such, they are bound to be cautious not to be overconfidet about the absolute truth of the knowledge. An attempt to do so is classed as a hedging practice, academic politeness and cautiousness about the way knowledge is shared with the relevant members of the community in the context of academic discourse.

Although writing has gained its importance in education since the 1990s, it remains a relatively new field of study (Sperling & Freedman, 2001). This may be partly as a result of the old notion that writing is second to speaking, given that speaking came before writing (Lado, 1964) and that spoken language is primary, whilst writing is essentially a means of representing speech for writing (Lyons, 1968, p: 38). No matter how important the written language has become in the lives of human beings, unlike the spoken language, it was not considered a language in its own right, as it is merely a way of recording language by means of visible marks (Bloomfield, 1933 in Venezky, 1999c). Consequently, the status of written language remains peripheral rather than central in the language study, at the very least, in terms of attention.

Currently, dichotomy between written and spoken language is no longer at issue. In referring to literacy as being embedded in the social context, Ivanic (1998, p. 59) summarizes that the distinction between spoken and written language is getting less and less easy to make, given the "speechifying" effects of communication technology. What is shared in common is that both have the same social purposes applicable in the social contexts. Purposes and interpersonal relationships are inherent in both modes of

communication that should allow them to gain equal status in human discourse. That is to say that the two should receive equal attention by linguists, discourse analysts and pedagogues alike.

Writing, particularly in the contemporary information and technology age, is recognized as a key factor in academic lives (Sperling & Freedman, 2001) and it has had tremendous effects on people and society (Ong, 1982). Writing enables us to learn a set of concepts, a skill of language analysis, and rhetorical strategies. The more we know how language and persuasion work, the more features of styles and arguments we can recognize and use. Through writing, we get involved in the dissemination and distribution of the knowledge and information to the members of the academic world in particular and the rest of the society in general. Another reason why writing is so important is that it helps shape our knowledge, visualize our thinking as well as reflect human nature as social beings.

Of equal importance is academic writing. Although literature on academic writing begins to be available and sheds light on conceptual ideas in written discourse such as writers' voices, authorship, creativity, identity, integrity, power, disciplinary variations, written discourse structure, text in context, etc., research on academic written discourse is still in need of reinforcement in terms of the guiding conceptual theories and methods due to the lack of strong constructs underlying research undertaking in academic writing (Matsuda & Atkinson, 2008).

Its relative contribution to the teaching of academic writing remains to be questioned as well. At the same time, efforts to establish research in academic writing have, in fact, indicated a noticeable

expansion. This is obvious in Ivanic (1998) who brought in the insight for analyses of students' writing that encompasses the concepts of writing as a social practice, identity, and ideologies in the knowledge-making processes. Whilst the first two are the interest in this current study, the last belongs in the more critical view of writing whose concern is primarily on the issue of power and ideology in the practice of writing. With respect to the notion of academic literacy as a social practice, she highlights the importance of the role that writing plays in the process of social construction of knowledge, as reflected by some work, for instance, by Bazerman (1988); Geisler (1994); and Hyland (2000). Through the concept, academic writing may be used to introduce students to the sense of discipline to develop the appropriate ways of expressing and using knowledge in order for them to enter into and gain acceptance from academic DC.

Socioconstructivism in writing (Bruner, 1996) views actors or agents as meaning makers and reality constructors within their environment and purposes. Constructivism in learning, in general, is widely known to be based on an assumption that learning is the process of knowledge construction through assimilation and accommodation, but in the perspective of writing, socio- sees writing as a meaning-making activity whose nature is both individually and socially oriented. Thus, there are at least three inextricable aspects: the actors, the writing activity and the context which manifest in the writer and (the imagined) readers, the situated activity of writing, and the creation of meanings.

This kind of connectedness may be linked to Halliday & Hassan (1985) who contend that texts are never purely linguistics-emphasizing the semiotic function in discourse and in creating

meaning in the social contexts. This is among the Halidayan' legacy handed down to the mainstream study of discourse that concerns that language in use is not primarily the domain of psychology nor a cognitively-bound phenomenon, but rather as part of Sociology (see Halliday, 1978), This, thereby, means that language is a means to create meanings in the social life of the language users. Unlike structuralism (Saussure, 1983) which sees meanings as deriving from the internal relationships among signifiers with the propensity of undermining the role of the agents, and constructivistic perspective discourse which is symbolic (representing personal beliefs, values), and situated (takes place within a social context). The interplay between context & discourse is often illustrated as follows: "context underlies discourse with its features used to interpret discourse; but because speakers' role manifests through texts, then discourse is a means by which context is observable through linguistic devices like through *I, here, interesting, etc*." (Van Dijk, 2008, p 131), including hedges.

Hedges

Hedges are defined as devices that show a writer's decision to withstand complete commitment to a proposition that allows information to be presented as an opinion rather than an accredited fact (Hyland, 2005). Hedges plays a pivotal role in academic writing that help strengthens the credibility and trustworthiness of academic propositions and assuring the readers to believe that what is being stated is academically convincing. Hedges are one of the communicative strategies deployable to convey the writer's degree of confidence in the truth of a proposition as well as to

express an attitude to the potential audience (Hyland, 2004). The proper use of hedges may, in turn, enables the writers to express a perspective on the shared knowledge, to mend a dialogue with the potential audience about the truth value of the knowledge with caution (Hyland, 2005). Hedges can also serve its function as a means by which the writers may down-tone the claim of the knowledge especially when the exact truth of a proposition can never be fully proven.

The use of hedges appears to signal the varying levels of writers' confidence overstatements or simply modesty in claim-making. It ranges from writers' considerate nature not to be overconfident or being modest about the knowledge claim he/she makes, such as shown in the examples of mungkin (may/maybe) and may, that is taken from the corpora.

In this study hedges are modified based on Mojica's 2005 and Hyland's 2004 Modal auxiliary which includes modal and lexical verbs like may, might, can, could, will, would, and phrases that use any or a combination of these like it may seem to appear, and it might be suggested. Should is taken as a booster as in Mojica (2005). Second, Epistemic lexical verbs include verbs that show epistemic acts such as seems, appear, look, believe, etc. The third category is epistemic adjectives and adverbs like possibly, likely, probably. Adjective, as well as adverbs, like certainly, definitely which are used to show confidence in the knowledge claim/s. In this last category there may be a combination of tentative verbs and modals together with self-mention, the device is considered a hedge when the claim seems to have been mitigated strengthened like in the example, the researcher strongly believes which made use of a tentative verb but was made certain by the use of the

adverb strongly, even though such a combination is often categorized as boosters.

This study examined over fifty undergraduate theses on non-scientific subjects of economics, psychology, and communication of the randomly selected Chapter IV discussion section of the final research project reports taken from Soegijapranata Catholic University library repository. The selection of theses was limited to those written and submitted in the school year 2015-2018, making up a total of 100,000 words corpora. It is only the section of research discussion that was selected and collected into a corpus ready to be examined prior to analysis.

Research Method

Nature of research

This research is a corpus-based electronic analysis using *Anconc Software Corpus Analyzer*, the characteristics of which is relying on the machine producing a digital output of data readily analyzable both quantitatively and qualitatively. Due to its nature, it can be designed into either qualitative or quantitative research or even the two are altogether mixed into a blended research approach depending on the research objectives. In this particular project, a digital analysis will be geared to producing the data of text keywords, concordances, and collocation which are mainly quantitive in nature. However, as the output of data also reveal the element of language context, the result of which can also be analyzed qualitatively to show how certain relevant data are used within the contexts of discourse, making it qualitative as well. Thus, it can be said that this model of research is mixed method research. It is quantitative in the sense that the electronic data will present

the mapping of the frequency and even statistical distribution, but it is also qualitative in that the digital data can portray the characteristics of language within the socio context of use and thus qualitative. What is new in this type of research is that the roles and the sophistication of computer is exploitable for scrutinizing and portraying the texts on the basis of certain aspects relevant to the intended focus of research. In the broader sense, it can be a versatile analyzer depending on the research purpose.

This study is descriptive in nature. A simple frequency count was used to quantify the qualitative data, prior to determining the differences of the types of hedging devices use in the investigated corpora. Eventually, the fact that there are still many undergraduate students who lack the knowledge of hedges in terms of use and function which often results in overusing, underusing, and even misusing them in their writing makes this research relevantly done to provide them with valuable inputs and feedback which they need in their academic writing. Therefore, the present research was conducted to investigate how hedges are used by non-science undergraduate students in their final research reports, in particular in in Chapter IV in which they present the data and research findings.

Data source

Data to be analyzed were taken from the campus library repository data of students' theses.

Research stages:

Text identification stage

Corpus study requires a large number of electronic data which is generally called text corpora making it a large body of texts. In this

stage, researcher will set up an inclusion and exclusion criteria to select the relevant from the irrelevant ones. This can be done by setting what corpus is going to be made, for instance, by determining the length of each corpus size, the genre of the text to determine the similarity of the characteristics of the text, as well as the purity of the text in a way that allows the machine to analyze only what is supposed to be analyzed. Say for instance, appendix, list of references, or index generally constituting part of the body of text are not the primary part of the body of the text. This research will deal with the size of corpora involving 100.000 (one hundred thousand) words of non-science undergraduate students' final research paper garnered randomly from the Thesis Repository.

On the completion of the data collection, data are to be refined by omitting the irrelevant parts of the text and once the finely refined data have been established they are joined together to make up of a corpus data in the RTF data format readily analyzable. This way, it is expected that the output of the electronic analysis represents the characteristic of the investigated text.

Data analysis

Once the corpus data making process is completed, it is high time to come to the analysis stage. Electronic data analysis will only focus on 3 major aspects of hedges (excluding boosters), i.e.:

1. Modal auxiliary. It is an analysis that will involve word search which will be useable to investigate the auxiliary use in the corpora both in frequency and in the context of use.

2. Epistemic lexical verbs. In this stage, word search function will be deployed to words or phrases that express writers' expressions that show believes, hopes, expectations, predictions, assumptions, projection, etc.

3.Epistemic adjectives and adverbs. This analysis focuses on the result of the words or phrases that express feelings, attitudes expressed in adjectives or adverbs forms. The two parts of speech can generally express the degree of evaluation about knowledge or proposition that may reveal intensity, quantity, frequency, quantity, etc.

4. Miscellaneous, which encompasses any expression of a certain extent, assumption, indicator, etc.

Overall, the aspects to be investigated are summarized in the following table:

Table 2. 1. Four categories of hedges

Types	*Samples*
Modal auxiliary	might, could, would, etc.
Epistemic lexical verbs	seem, assume, suggest, etc.
Epistemic adjectives and adverbs	perhaps, likely, mainly, etc.
Miscellanious	certain extent, assumption, indicator, etc.

Analysis And Discussion

As this research has been completed, the following section presents the analysis of data and discusses the findings. The data presentation is divided into two sections, i.e data presentation and discussion.

Data Presentation

From the corpus analysis, done through keyword search, the following is the summary of the hedges devices used throughout the whole analyzed corpora.

Table 2. 2. The summary of the hedges devices

| Types	Frequency	Percent (%)
Modal auxiliary	1458	62.6
Epistemic lexical verbs	459	19.8
Epistemic adjectives and adverbs	410	17.6
Miscellaneous	0	0 (%)

Modal Auxiliary
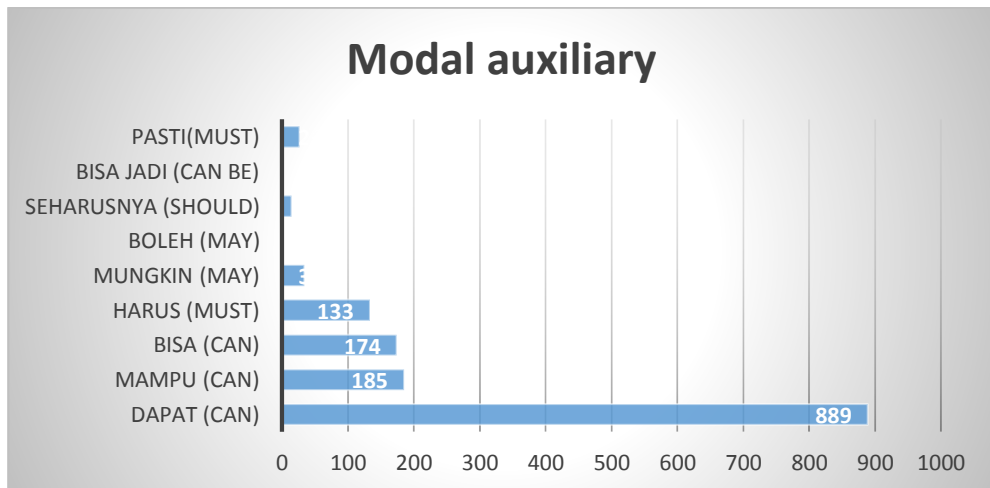
Graph 2. 1. The predominant use of dapat *(can)*

Of the displayed data, an outstanding phenomenon is the predominant use of *dapat* (can) which is non-comparable to other modal auxiliaries. This suggests that students have high confidence or even they can be said to have been overconfident about the propositions or the claim of the knowledge in their writing. In

contrast, they tend to ignore the importance of downtoning them in order for the ideas or preposition to get easily accepted by the potential readers. This is vindicated by few modal auxiliary of may, might, and maybe in the overall investigated corpora.

Epistemic lexical verbs
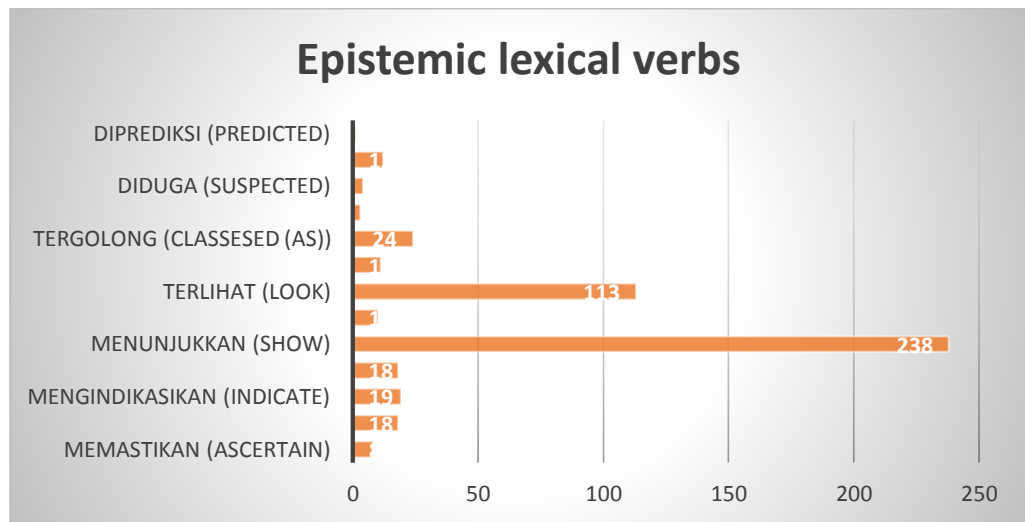
Graph 2. 2. Epistemic lexical verbs

Epistemic means experience, thus the frequent use of *look* and *show* might suggest the predominant reference to experience that are mostly generated from seeing the display of data, facts or truths. While for anything that is not explicitly observable the writers seem to fear of speculating, that is why the verbs *suspect, predict, indicate* were not preferred by the writers.

Epistemic adjectives and adverbs
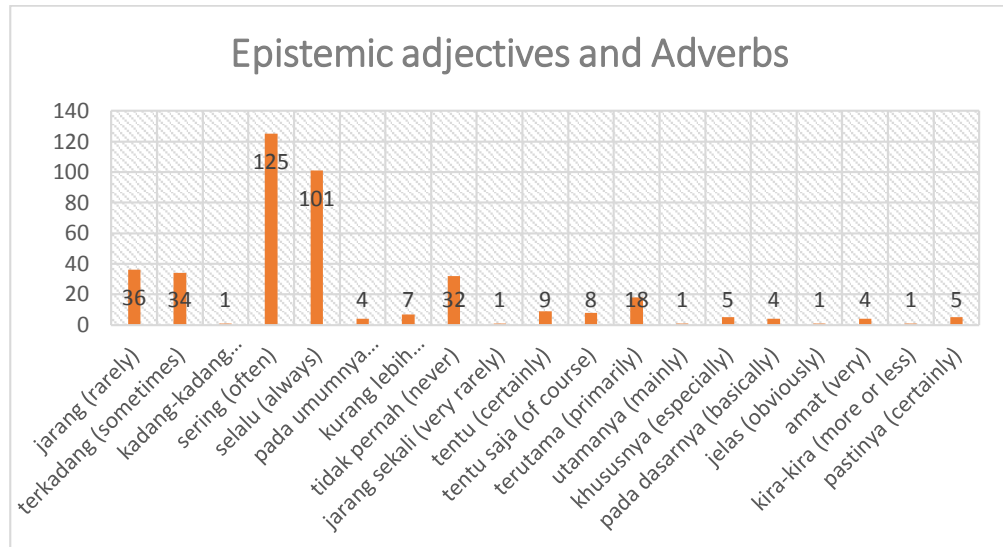
Graph 2. 3. Epistemic adjectives and adverbs

Among the most frequently used devices are *often* and *always* to display the writer's experience or factual truth about the academic prepositions and findings, although it may also reflect an unconscious overgeneralization of facts or findings.

Table 2. 3. Distribution of lexical frequency

Types	*Frequency*	*Percent*
Modal auxiliary	1458	Dapat 889
		Mampu 185
		Bisa 174
		Harus 133
		Mungkin 34
		Boleh1
		Seharusnya 14
		Bisa jadi 2
		Pasti 26

Epistemic lexical verbs	459	Memastikan 8
		Membuktikan 18
		Mengindikasikan 19
		Menandakan 18
		Menunjukkan 238
		Terbukti 10
		Terlihat 113
		Nampak 1
		Tergolong 24
		Terhitung 3
		Terbukti 10
		Diduga 4
		Diharapkan 12
		Diprediksi 1
Epistemic adjectives and adverbs	410	Jarang 36
		Terkadang 34
		Kadang-kadang 1
		Sering 125
		Selalu 101
		Pada umumnya 4
		Kurang lebih 7
		Tidak pernah 32
		Jarang sekali 1
		Tentu 9
		Tentu saja 1
		Terutama 18
		Utamanya 1
		Khususnya 5
		Pada dasarnya 4
		Jelas 1
		Amat 4

		Kurang lebih 7
		Kira-kira 1
		Pastinya 5
Miscellaneous	2327	0

The overall look of hedges distribution:
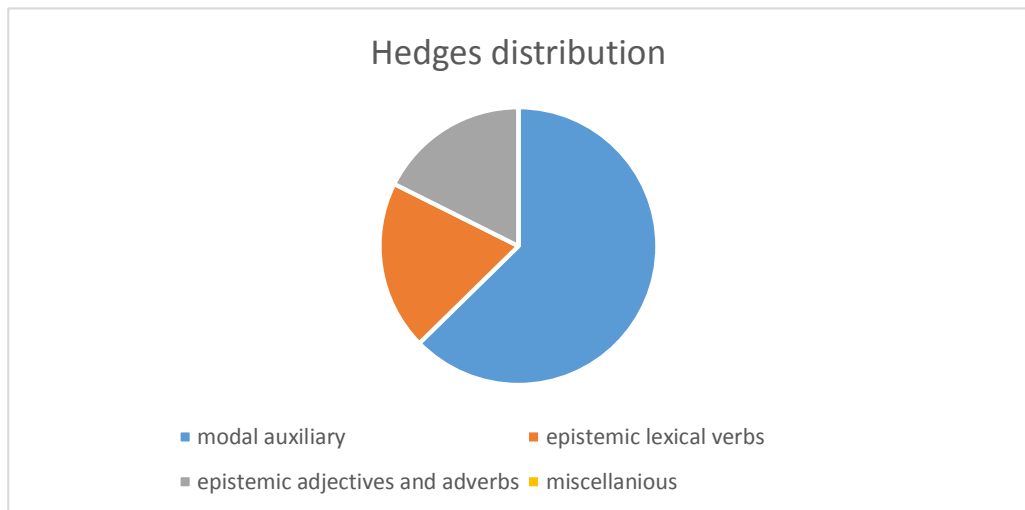
Graph 2. 4. Predominant modal auxiliary

It is obvious from the data that modal auxiliary is predominant in all the investigated corpus**.**

Discussion

As indicated by the fact that modal verbs are the most frequently used device to express academic hedges may be interpreted that student writers were not quite aware that there are, in fact, many other types of hedges devices available to pick out from. Due to the predominat use of this device we can even say that they are in fact overused. The distribution shows that *can* (frequency = 1.096) constitutes 36.75% of the total modal verbs (frequency = 2.982).

The overused modal verb *can* explain that it is the hedge device most familiar to the students and that it is typically a modal verb that the students are over exposed to, and thus, digested by Indonesian EFL learners.

The misused hedging devices by the students showed that they lack knowledge of English rhetoric. Moreover, the highest rate of *universal pronoun* (frequency = 914) or 60.65% of the total boosters (frequency = 1.507) found in the articles written by undergraduate students indicated that the students overstated and exaggerated the statements which represented a valid rhetorical means of conveying the power of the writers conviction and obvious evidential truths. In addition, the use of the universal pronouns in the article can project a hyperbolic and inflated impression. The students used more modal hedges as a way of reducing the risk of opposition, being precise in reporting results, and also as a means of being polite.

As a matter of fact, hedging enables the writers to minimize their presence in their writing, highlighting the tentativeness of propositions advanced by authors. However, it can be said that the writers prefer to obscure their authorial identity while advancing their opinion. At the same time, boosters were also found in large numbers even though they were not as many as hedges in the students' articles when they were sure that their claims share some universal understanding to win the approval of their readers.

Conclusion and Suggestion

There were five types of hedges used in the articles written by undergraduate students. They were modal verbs, epistemic adjectives, epistemic lexical verbs, epistemic adverbs, and epistemic

nouns. In addition, there were three types of boosters in the articles. They are universal pronouns, amplifiers, and emphatics. Of the total hedges and boosters, modals verbs comprised more than half of the total hedging and boosting devices. Epistemic adjectives, epistemic lexical verbs, epistemic adverbs, epistemic nouns and boosters comprised the remaining. It is interesting to note that combined together the employment of the remaining hedges and boosters was still lower than that of the modal verbs.

Modal verbs, the highest in the frequency, occurred in the articles were the overused hedging devices of *can* (frequency 1.096) or 36.75% of the total modal verbs (2.982 times). The overused modal verb of *can* explains that it is the most familiar hedge typically taught to and digested by Indonesian EFL learners. Furthermore, the researcher also found the misuse of a hedging device of *can.* The misused hedging devices by the students showed that they lack knowledge of English rhetoric. Moreover, the highest rate of *universal pronoun* (frequency = 914) or 60.65% of the total boosters (frequency = 1.507) found in the articles written by undergraduate students indicated that the students have overstated and exaggerated the statements which represent a valid rhetorical means of conveying the writers' conviction and obvious evidential truths.

This study also found that the use of the universal pronouns in the article can project a hyperbolic and inflated impression. The students used more modal hedges as a way of reducing the risk of opposition, being precise in reporting results, and also as a means of being polite. Furthermore, hedging enables the writers to minimize their presence in their writing, highlight the tentativeness

of propositions advanced by authors. Therefore, it can be said that the writers prefer to obscure their authorial identity while advancing their opinion. However, at the same time, boosters were also found in large numbers even though they were not as many as hedges in the students' articles when they were sure that their claims share some universal understanding to win the approval of their readers.

Suggestion

Based on the results, this research suggests that the EFL lecturers pay attention to the significance of hedges and boosters to enrich the students' knowledge of the parts of the discourse. This might become a reference for advisors to have much attention on students under their guidance. Familiarizing students with the rule and norms of academic writing that might help students, especially those who write their final assignments. Moreover, the present research can be a stepping stone for future researchers to investigate hedges and boosters in an academic context, written or spoken for the comparison. There can be further studies on certain hedges and boosters typically employed by a particular group of people. There can also be further research investigating the functions or motivations behind the use of hedges and boosters in academic writings by also interviewing the authors. Finally, the studies on hedges and boosters in academic spoken discourse, for instance in English debate, can be carried out for the sake of exploration of English linguistics in general.

As the nature of data influences the use of hedges, RAs in different disciplines follow their own patterns. This study found that writers in AL, a soft-applied science, tended to employ more hedges than

those in CE, a hard-applied science. Because data in soft science are quite abstract and appear to be subjectively analyzed, writers in AL are likely to show fuzziness and to leave space for negotiation whereby a sense of politeness is shown. When compared to data in soft science, those in hard science are more precise with numerical figures, and tend to be more objectively analyzed to avoid ambiguous interpretations; however, writers in CE also offered a room for alternative interpretations and representations to achieve precision in scientific claims and to express politeness as well. Arising from these differences and similarities, writing conventions should be considered in teaching as rhetoric allows RAs to be recognizable within each discourse community. Besides, different forms of hedges and the reasons underlying the use of hedges should be taken into great consideration as well.

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2.2 EVALUATING THE ECONOMICS JOURNAL ARTICLES USING ELECTRONIC ANALYSIS

This small scale research project attempts to evaluate academic research articles in order to find out the linguistic and lexico-grammatical aspects through electronic analysis. This is essentially a corpus study research, a type of research combining quantitative and qualitative approaches, in which some aspects of writing which encompass keywords, concordances, collocation were electronically scrutinized. The object of investigation is a text corpus of research articles in the discipline of Economics published in the reputable journals involving 10 articles making up of 28000 words corpora. By using electronic data in the form of text corpora of journal articles which were analyzed electronically using Antconc software, the results indicate that economic article corpora typify texts belonging to social science dominant with the characteristics of social science texts as can be vindicated by the keywords and concordances of modality which manages to highlights the frequent use of hedging in expressing and claiming social knowledge and research findings. Samples of hedging, in particular, where modal verbs such as *can, may, might* were predominant in the claim of knowledge indicating that the claim of the truth of the knowledge is non-exact type. Unlike the hard science researchers whose fields were grounded on the positivistic views, the economic texts written by the researchers in the field of Economics are parts of the research and therefore the claim tends to be interpretive. and that in doing so, researchers are part of the whole research activities. In addition, this research provides a valuable contribution to prospective writers who wish to write in the economic journals to get themselves familiar with the styles of the economic discipline despite the fact that the analysis of keywords and collocation did not specifically indicate typical characteristics of economic texts.

Keywords: *electronic analysis, scientific articles, corpus, keywords analysis, collocation, concordances*

Introduction

Electronic analysis of text corpora is a relatively new approach to studying texts as it did not get its popularity until John Sinclair began to introduce a corpus study in the 1980s in which he was actively investigating various classroom discourse and then his research team managed to build a widely known dictionary called *Collin Cobuild* in the University of Birmingham, UK. whose entries were made on the basis of the language in use refined through corpus studies. Text analysis, in its actual use, relies on empirical evidence which pertains to the actual use of the language so that it allows the researcher to identify how that particular language in such a particular context of works.

Recently English has been one of the languages used by people to get involved in academic competition especially where academic competition is concerned. This is particularly at issue because the demand for publication is an inevitable part of academic life and coupled with the fact that the opportunity for publication is getting more wide open. Unluckily, however, as reported by Thomson Scientific (2004), a contribution that Indonesian scientists and researchers have made via International publication remains relatively low (only 522), compared to the other counterparts from the neighboring countries such as Malaysia (1,428), Thailand (2,397) or Singapore (5,781). As admitted by Jalal (2009), the publication in the form of books or scientific articles for knowledge and research publication in the International journal bearing Indonesian names is only 0.8 articles per million populations, meaning that the number is still very low considering the population number in the whole.

Given the fact, efforts have to be done, among other things, by evaluating the work of the Indonesian academics in terms of the aspects of the text quality as well as the styles of writing which can be done by doing electronic text analysis. The objectives of such an attempt is to find out if there indeed a close to ideal quality of text which may be of a model for other scientists to learn from, or at the very least to be used as a means for them to reflect what has been the downsides of their works so that they can gradually improve their own and start producing qualified work which is more competitive. This research, therefore, tries to answer the following questions, i.e. is analysis through electronic analysis is indeed possible and if a certain analytical procedure can expose the characteristics of good texts. In other words, it overall will be capable of evaluating Economic journal articles through the electronic analysis of the text corpora and analyzing them based on certain categories of text analysis so that the common characteristics of text form a certain discipline can manifest and useable for reflection and learning.

The contribution that this kind of research may be giving is that more and more academics and scientists wishing to publish their works in the International journals may take this as a reference. This may also expand the types of research by maximizing the potential that the electronic sophistication for analyzing the texts and that this also enriches the newly found research method dabbed as a corpus and discourse study stream. The highlight of this research model is that it may potentially give a new light into a new perspective on texts analysis useable for assessing the general portrayal of the text as well as scrutinizing the general features of the texts on the basis of disciplines which later can be readily exposed for learning and comparing various texts from different disciplinary backgrounds.

Theoretical Review

Corpus analysis

Corpus in English corpus means a collection of texts. According to Baker (2010: 93), the corpus is a collection of texts both written and oral stored on a computer. Baker defines the corpus found only in electronic media. A corpus is a collection of writings written by someone in the form of hard and soft copies. Corpus in the form of hard copy can be exemplified such as books, magazines, dictionaries, and newspapers. Examples of soft copy can be applications, websites, online dictionaries, and so forth.

From this understanding, it can be said that the corpus is a collection of texts both oral and written in print and electronic media and can be used as a source of data analysis. In this case, all types of linguistic units (words, phrases, clauses, sentences, and discourse) are sure to be part of the corpus as long as they are collected into one unified form, but not if they do not become a unit (collection) then they cannot be called a corpus. Therefore, the corpus data are also identical to a large amount of data having a substantial amount of quantity. Therefore, the corpus is also referred to as a language bank. Furthermore, the corpus can only be readily analyzable so long as they have been refined to contain only the homogeneous type of data and data source that contains readily analyzable linguistic units

From another point of view, a corpus can also be built from what one can collect from both oral and written sources. Oral sources can be obtained from recordings, interviews, and discussions. Written sources can b generated from books, novels, newspapers, magazines, web, blogs, journals, and so forth. After the text is collected, it then

becomes a data set called the corpus. This will become a copus if the language unit can become a database.

Corpora-based research

The use of large corpora as the basis of the research is new and interesting considering that on its initial stage of development, it used to get strong resistance form the structural linguists on the pretext that there was no way to investigate language on the basis of texts. Noam Chomsky, for instance, argued that research focus on the real use of language does not represent true knowledge of language science because language study should primarily about competence not performance (1965). Over time, the technological advancement as the new theory of learning slowly changed coupled by the offer of technology, computer technology has made the impossible possible not only because of its reliability and capability but also because of its contribution into the linguistics study began to materialize and its real advantages for language learning through CALL (*Computer-Assisted Language Learning*) was getting more and more acceptance. Alongside, the research endeavor based on corpora also began to gain acknowledgment in particular since Sinclair and Coulthart managed to extensively study the corpora in the project design of dictionary built out of the corpus data also as they made use of the corpus study in the areas of classroom discourse which contributed much to understanding classroom interaction. Two worth noting monumental works were a contextual study of language (Sinclair, 1987) on the syndication of Birmingham University, the UK resulting in the making of *Collin Cobuild* dictionary, then followed by an attempt to study *language acquisition* on language acquirement.

The researcher of this current study has also ever taken its advantages to studying a corpus of research articles data to investigate *authority* in academic writing where he put emphasis on how pronouns were used in two types of soft science and hard science texts corpora (Suratno, 2012, *unpublished dissertation*). In addition to some other research on corpus in the area of syntax and social representation of discourse, et cetera. Among the standing out capacities that the electronic corpus analyzer can do in the search of language corpus is *concordance* upon which the software computer technology is smart and quick in doing *quick search* another area of job is Keyword study to go into a detailed study of words or phrases, making wordlist and counting frequency of a certain linguistic category (Meyer, 2002).

In the field of language learning, electronic analysis has been devised to enrich the material development for vocabulary and grammar as it is capable of producing a quick search of for patterns of vocabulary and grammar use in the corpus collection the result of which reflects the actual use of language relevant to the context of both spoken and written social interaction. The analyzer software can produce various lists of concordances and collocations, wordlist or keywords of the analyzed corpus from which idiomatic expressions and grammatical expressions can be generated readily useable, further analyzed or compared to other corpora. Almost all types of text genre, either written or spoken, either fiction or non-fiction, either natural or non-natural use of language can be analyzed using the software. Thus, the obvious advantage of the corpus analyzer software is that it can read the large size of data swiftly, do search processing of words or phrases out of almost unlimited numbers of words. It becomes clear from the above account that corpus analysis using corpus analyzer software is

a beneficial research process and that the software is a reliable tool useable for various research purposes.

Electronic Analysis and Its Potentials

Krieger (2003) made an attempt to investigate language in the context of day-to-day use which tends to ignore the role of register in its use, while the fact indicates that it is registered in which genre of language can be identified and that it is in it as well that an account of how language works and how it is used can be understood. As generally know, language can be classified into various registers such as fiction and non-fiction, literary and non-literary, academic and non-academic. Even within one genre, say for instance, academic genre, language can make up of various sub-genre like research articles, laboratory reports, lecture, academic discussion, general lecture, conference presentation, classroom hand-outs, lecture modules, etc. An electronic analysis is capable of exposing and showing that language works differently depending on in which genre it is used, the consequently different genre with its every unique characteristic cannot be generalized and therefore each has to be understood and treated differently (ibid.).

Research on the research articles written by different writers is not primarily intended to build a theory of academic writing but rather to provide a picture of how academic text like research article is written from which the empirical data can display the general patterns, writers' tendencies in word choice, common phrases, or even sentence patterns. The electronic analysis of language may be capable of exposing how the language of different genres behaves in conveying ideas, messages, facts, habits and even the writers' cultural values characterizing his/her discourse community, making a certain

genre of texts is comparable to other genres. After all, the electronic analysis may be geared to produce analyses of texts from the area of genres, linguistic patterns, lexico-grammatical aspects, phonological aspects, morphology to discourse.

Research Methods

This research is a corpus-based electronic analysis using *Anconc Software Corpus Analyzer*, the characteristics of which is relying on the machine producing a digital output of data readily analyzable both quantitatively and qualitatively. Due to its nature, it can be designed into either qualitative or quantitative research or even the two are altogether mixed into a blended research approach depending on the research objectives. In this particular project, a digital analysis will be geared to producing the data of text keywords, concordances, and collocation which mainly quantitive in nature. However, as the output of data also reveal the element of language context, the result of which can also be analyzed qualitatively to show how certain relevant data are used contextually within discourse, making it a qualitative as well. Thus, it can be said that this model of research is mixed method research. It is quantitative in the sense that the electronic data will present the mapping of the frequency and even statistical distribution, but it is also qualitative in the sense that the digital data can portray the characteristics of language within the socio context of use and thus qualitative. What is new in this type of research is that the roles and the sophistication of computers are exploitable for scrutinizing and portraying the texts on the basis of certain aspects relevant to the intended focus of research. In the broader sense, it can be a versatile analyzer depending on the research purpose.

Research stages:

Text identification stage

Corpus study requires a large number of electronic data which is generally called text corpora making it a large body of texts. In this stage, the researcher will set up an inclusion and exclusion criteria to screen relevant from the irrelevant ones. This can be done by setting what corpus is going to be made, for instance, by determining the length of each corpus size, the genre of the text to determine the similarity of the characteristics of the text, as well as the purity of the text in a way that allows the machine to analyze only what is supposed to be analyzed. Say for instance, appendix, list of references, or index generally constituting part of the body of text are not the primary part of the body of the text. In this research, due to the time constraint, will only deal with a small size corpus study involving less than 30.000 words of Economics journal articles collected out of 10 data of article samples.

On the completion of the data collection, data are to be refined by omitting the irrelevant parts of the text and as the finely refined data have been established they are joined together to make up of corpus data. Readily analyzable. This way, it is expected that the output of the electronic analysis represents the characteristic of the intended text, in this case, Economic journal articles.

Data collection and transformation

Any paper-based data have to be transformed into digital data in order to be readily analyzable. Data to be analyzed were taken from the already published journal articles so that it does not specifically require the researcher to transform the data from the non electronic to electronic data.

Data analysis stage

Once the corpus data making process is completed, it now high time to come to the analysis stage.

Electronic data analysis will only focus on 3 major aspects, i.e.:

1. Keywords analysis. It is a kind of analysis that will present the frequency data of the keywords the most to the least frequently used in the corpora. From this, the researcher can see what words are predominant which characterize the text to be categorized as the text of a certain text genre.

2. Concordance analysis. This type of analysis allows the researcher to scrutinize certain linguistic functions and the frequency of such use. For instance, how the pronoun 'I' is used in the corpus and how frequent it is used. So, in addition, to see the data from the quantity, the analysis can be deepened into in what context that particular word is used so that the socio context of the language can be established with regards to question why.

3. Collocation analysis. This analysis focuses on the tendency particular words in the text co-occur with or what word a certain word closely associates within the actual use of text. For instance, the word business' might possibly collocate with 'plan' or 'running', so that the colocation in the text may manifest in the phrase such as a business plan or running business. The advantage of this analysis is that it can help identify the generic and common expressions pertain to a particular field of study, in this case, Economics

Data Analysis and Interpretation

Stages of the research has been completed and the following are the data presentation and interpretation

Text analysis is broken down into the following:

Keyword Analysis

#Word Types: 3273

#Word Tokens: 28623

#Search Hits: 0

Number of Keyword Frequency

_____

1	2087	the
2	1199	of
3	772	and
4	720	to
5	600	in
6	505	a
7	494	that
8	441	is
9	356	for
10	325	x
11	253	we
12	244	are
13	242	this
14	231	with
15	208	as
16	183	on
17	172	be
18	159	by
19	148	model

20	134	cash
21	131	value
22	127	rm
23	125	s
24	120	not
25	119	an
26	117	investment
27	114	which
28	112	it
29	111	our
30	109	or
31	103	firms
32	100	capital
33	97	dividends
34	97	firm
35	97	public
36	94	at
37	94	internet
38	92	dividend
39	92	these
40	91	private
41	90	e
42	90	have
43	88	from
44	84	than
45	83	business

46	81	their
47	80	also
48	80	can
49	78	will
50	76	labor

The digital analysis found out that of 28.000 words analyzed, there were 3273 keywords found in the overall corpus data. The above table shows only the top 50 keywords frequently used by the writers which among the predominantly used economic terms include such words as **model, cash, values, investment, firm, capital, dividends, business,** and **labors**. Interestingly, the word *the* and *of* are on the first and second top list. It is understandable given the two function words in English tend to be ubiquitously present to be part of the way sentences are constructed and different ideas are expressed. That's why they are called function words. In other words, the two words will also generally lie on among the top rank in any other text, Despite the frequency, the two cannot be used to show the specificity of the words within the context of the discipline of studies.

Concordance Analysis

In this current research modal verbs as the signifiers of hedging in academic writing were chosen for concordance analysis due to the reason that they can show how the writers express their ideas related to knowledge, its truth and knowledge claims relevant to the subject matter. Therefore, a conclusion can be drawn if they typify the discipline under study.

The next table shows that the writers most frequently use subsequently, *can, will*, and *may*. Specifically with the use of *modal*

verbs **can**, the writers are being positive and confident about the phenomenon they are investigating, besides also expressing abilities or capabilities in doing something. While, the word **will**, indicates that there is an obvious optimism by the writers that ideas and phenomena related to the economic situation and the fact related to the research findings are positive.

Number	Modal Verbs	Frequency
1	Can	80
2	Will	78
3	May	52
4	Should	34
5	Might	19
6	Could	14
7	Must	10
8	have to	2
9	Probably	1

Table 2. 4. The frequency of modal use

So, altogether through the use of the two modal verbs, the waters show a great optimism that something can be done or can be changed or that something will be done or will change. For the closer look of such social context, please refer to the sample of concordances below which clarify the above account

1	netary shocks, and that this correlation	**can** actually be reversed if there are sufficientl
2	a faster rate of accumulation and growth	**can** also be justified as an equilibrium.
3	CRSP as delisted because of liquidation\x97	**can** also be motivated by reprivatization
4	, the incentives to be public or private	**can** also change. Yet the above-cited papers

5	hrough the accumulation of capital. Finally we **can** also compute the nominal wage and price:
6	costs of separating ownership from control, but **can** also refer to administrative costs (e.g., ?
7	lower curve where the trace is positive	**can** also represent a region of indeterminacy
8	profit maximiza\xAD tion in each industry	**can** be combined to find the relationship of
9	erestimate the reprivatization rate, since ?rms **can** be delisted or absorbed into another ?rm
10	oposals, and design documents) because a document **can** be delivered faster and is ready to
11	and of the optimal timing of IPOs	**can** be derived without specifying the
12	externalities, and the ease with which labor	**can** be drawn into employment - that is - the
13	?rms\x92 speci?c risks. This intuition	**can** be expressed formally by considering
14	customer goodwill). Our evidence shows that these **can** be further broken down into short- and
15	sition, or merger). This delisting category	**can** be interpreted as pure reprivatization.
16	al business cycle' framework. A few observations **can** be made. First, we saw that introducing
17	constraints which, following Poterba and Summers, **can** be modeled in terms of the impact
18	above.) Fig. 2 indicates that indeterminacy	**can** be obtained with the externality
19	taken public (if it is private) or	**can** be privatized again (if it is public).
20	?ow falls below CF . Because the company	**can** be reprivatized, ?rm value is a convex

From the concordances samples, it becomes obvious how the writers present the empirical data about the economy were expressed with optimism and certainty that something can be: used, expressed, motivated, as well as can; change, count, etc.

Words that collocate with *may* in corpus data

1	consume an enormous amount of time and	**may** actually interfere with a company's ability
2	, L) and U2(C, L). This nonseparability	**may** allow the labor supply curve to slope
3	ly different either. Introducing an HP filter	**may** also further improve the match. In Figs.
4	results obtained in one-sector models we	**may** also obtain an aggregate labor demand
5	t generate markups, these increasing returns	**may** amplify the movement of labor into
6	, perhaps because using dividends as a signal	**may** appear to be inconsistent with dividends
7	. As intra- nets start to mature, there	**may** be a resurgence of the power
8	) suggests that the level play- ing \xAEeld	**may** be about to become less level. How

9	labor supply, then an increase in L	**may** be associated with an increase in
10	for which the trace is positive, they	**may** be attracting and surrounding a
11	new shares; those with lower credit ratings	**may** be compelled to issue new shares, and
12	we account for the additional labor that	**may** be drawn out of leisure and into
13	model, in a two-sector model externalities	**may** be either aggregate or sector-specific. The
14	use of funds, the cost of capital	**may** be independent of the dividend tax rate.
15	characteristics or temporary conditions,	**may** be less likely to use dividend fluctuations
16	may perceive that their cost of funds	**may** be reduced by paying out a higher
17	the firms relying less on new issues	**may** be relying more on debt, as discussed
18	likely to issue shares, these large firms	**may** be relying on debt, rather than external
19	sectors, the expected higher rate of return	**may** be self-fulfilling. Such a scenario will
20	with the technology shocks. This structure	**may** capture the idea that sunspots are

The concordance data of may indicate that the writers expressed the truth of the facts and realities about economic condition being reported. The modal word *may* is used to express caution and courtesy in presenting the realities of knowledge and the knowledge claims. In academic writing, it is generally known as hedging expression, an expression of taking a distance from the exact truth value of the knowledge and knowledge claims. By doing so, writers, in particular where soft science or social science is concerned. In social science knowledge tend to be non-exact, interpretive, debatable, fleeting, sometimes subjective and constructivistic. Even when a claim of research pertains to significance social science put a lower degree of significance level (of generally 0.05 as opposed to 0.02 in hard science such as math and physics. Thus, it is essential for researchers in social science to consider being soft and cautious and polite in stating claim in order for them to get confronted by the opposing sides of ideas made by more authoritative scientists. Unlike the pure science where facts and findings more frequently be based

on the laboratory and experimental bases, the social science is in contrast more relativistic. As can be seen from the sample of concordance, '*perhaps because using dividends as a signal **may** appear to be inconsistent with dividends being*...", the writer did not only use **may** in the sentence, but also the word **perhaps** vindicating that knowledge claim was built through extra care and that the fact being presented is both infinite and tentative.

Collocation of modal verb *might* in the corpus

1	account for trends in dividend levels that	**might** be attributable to a variety of common
2	unattractive for tax reasons alone, but they	**might** be even more unattractive because of
3	8) becomes: An example of this specification	**might** be the restriction that new share issues
4	discussion we identify three channels that	**might** break this link. (1) The first possibil
5	extreme and unrealistic. For example, one	**might** construct a signaling model in which
6	ditors, analysts, investors), activities which	**might** enhance the value of the ?rm. They
7	subsequent tables for the Tobit model. One	**might** explain the findings thus far as simply
8	down, and some of the good firms	**might** find it advantageous to lower their
9	that industry sector and product nature	**might** have something to do with Internet
10	outlined in Farmer and Guo (1995) one	**might** hope to use models in this class
11	?rms to the public. For example, companies	**might** issue stock to ?nance investment
12	than an outage of the telephone network	**might** not be as quickly detected as the
13	adoption, there is hope that small businesses	**might** not miss out in this round of
14	of paying dividends. Without such shocks, we	**might** observe a separating equilibrium in
15	35.6% for 1980\x961990. The Welch statistics	**might** overestimate the reprivatization rate,
16	increased disclosure of inside information that	**might** reduce the competitive advantages of
17	needs and cash flow resources, our estimates	**might** reflect not only these responses, but
18	variation, a simple if inelegant correction that	**might** seem appropriate is to include fixed firm
19	: the relevant cost under the new view	**might** well have fallen over time as well.

As compared with the use of **may**, the data of concordance involving modal verb '**might**' highlight the similar situation and meaning in that writers feel a need to be wary of the facts and realities. The word might even collocates with *be* and *seem* which underlines the importance for the writers to tone the claim down implying that social knowledge has to be rigidly verified to make it valid or to get it accepted, besides, of course, for the politeness reasons.

Collocation Analysis

Collocation is closely connected to word association and as it is the text of economic discipline, the word chosen for collocation was intentionally selected for analysis. The following is the date showing how the words **economic/economics** collocate in the corpus data in the context which may precede or follow the words.

#Total No. of Collocate Types: 45

#Total No. of Collocate Tokens: 60

1	1	0	1	12.21992	nisms
2	1	0	1	12.21992	mecha
3	1	0	1	12.21992	impetus
4	1	1	0	12.21992	emerges
5	1	1	0	12.21992	continuum
6	1	0	1	11.21992	unlike
7	1	1	0	10.63496	features
8	1	1	0	10.63496	dynamic
9	1	0	1	10.21992	part
10	1	1	0	10.21992	obvious
11	1	1	0	10.21992	main
12	1	0	1	10.21992	interpretation

13	1	0	1	10.21992	circumstances
14	1	1	0	9.89800	equilibria
15	1	1	0	9.63496	provides
16	2	1	1	9.63496	positively
17	2	2	0	9.51949	good
18	2	0	2	9.21992	affect
19	1	1	0	9.05000	correlated
20	1	1	0	9.05000	actual
21	1	1	0	8.89800	make
22	1	1	0	8.51949	particular
23	1	1	0	8.31303	waves
24	1	1	0	8.31303	finally
25	1	0	1	8.21992	work
26	1	0	1	7.82761	conditions
27	1	0	1	7.69636	models
28	1	0	1	7.41257	data
29	1	1	0	7.26573	section
30	1	1	0	7.26573	ipos
31	1	0	1	7.17553	technology
32	1	0	1	7.17553	condition
33	1	0	1	6.79366	xad
34	1	0	1	6.63496	ows
35	1	1	0	6.63496	indeterminacy
36	2	0	2	6.15384	cash
37	1	1	0	5.93452	will
38	1	0	1	5.71213	private
39	1	0	1	5.66534	at

40	1	1	0	5.38703	which
41	1	1	0	5.32511	an
42	3	3	0	4.57607	in
43	7	2	5	4.00006	the
44	4	2	2	3.99231	of
45	1	0	1	3.27156	that

Collocation analysis did not specifically show typical samples of words collocating or associating with the two above mentioned words., except for the listed words of **effect, condition, conditions, circumstances,** and **indeterminacy** which can make up of phrases typically of economic senses like economic effect, economic condition, economic circumstances, and economic indeterminacy. Whereas, the rest of the list, which turns out to be higher in frequency did not specifically refer to economic terminologies or expressions

From the data presented out of the three types of analysis and interpretation, the following findings can be drawn, First, there has been the non-significant frequency of terms or keywords which specifically characterized the corpus data of economic discipline. The majority of keywords employed by the writers turns out to be non-economics, inspire of the fact that such a phenomenon is not surprising. Second, viewed from the concordances data of modal verbs in the corpus data, the use of them signified the characteristics of the texts under scrutiny as being a typical text of social science with the predominant use of modal verbs as the device for expressing politeness or hedging. Third, analysis of words collocating with the word economic and economics show relative low frequency which may be interpretable into the fact that in that particular texts under

study, it may happen that writers did not much theorize the issue of economics but probably put more emphasis on presenting empirical data about economic discipline. It can finally be said that the characteristics of language that managed to be exposed through the electronic analysis did not produce an outstanding new phenomenon, except that the text under study clearly typifies the social science texts.

Conclusion and suggestion

Conclusion

This research was an attempt to evaluate the corpus data of economic research articles through an electronic analysis by emphasizing three aspects, i.e. keywords, concordances, and colocation analyses; subsequently to find out the mapping of the important words frequently used throughout the corpora, concordances to explore the frequency of certain word occurrence and how they used in the texts, and to know how the keywords of economic is associated with in the context of economic texts. As data were presented and analyzed the findings suggest that, despite the insignificant use of economic keywords and minimum number of words collocated with the words economic, the analysis of concordances managed to show that overall the texts under study typically signify the characteristics of the social science texts strong with the nature of being personal, interpretive, cautious in knowledge claims and the claim of the truth of the knowledge as can be seen from the use of modal verbs.

Suggestion

Researchers realized that this research is done by involving a limited number of corpus data, in which only 28.000 words taken from the

limited number of articles were used for analysis. Despite its ability to disclose the findings, the conclusion drawn from small scale research potentially carries with it a serious drawback. Therefore, in order for future research to produce more robust findings and conclusion, a similar corpus study using electronic analysis should consider expanding the research objects covering a lot bigger size of the corpus. Considering that despite using a mixed-method, the qualitative analysis is purely interpretive of the quantitative electronic data, future researchers should consider using a separate research instrument such as an interview or panel discussion involving academic writing in the research articles journals to dig dipper into the processes of writing and first-hand opinion about the issue under study. Ideal corpus study may also consider making a comparative study of different corpus to see how different genres of texts reveal different lexico-grammatical characteristics.

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CHAPTER III
CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

Critical discourse analysis (CDA) is an approach that may provide an explanation of a text (social reality) that is being studied by a person or dominant group whose tendency has a certain goal to get what is desired. In the day-to-day life of people where language is used to convey meanings inextricable from context. Language is used by people to express various human interests because all language production and is never neutral and free from human interests, meaning none is value-free. Therefore, the analysis of language is meant to disclose what motives have influenced the author to produce a text. In addition, it must also be realized that behind the discourse is the desired meaning and image and the interests being fought for.

Critical discourse analysis or critical discourse analysis represents a variety of theories, methodologies, and definitions which include concepts of discourse theory and critical theory that suggest a method for uncovering the relationship between various perspectives. Analysis of critical discourse or critical discourse analysis (CDA) is the study of the text, speech, sermons, or visual images to find or express various meanings shared and contribute or represent social structures and ideologies. The basis for critical discourse analysis is the philosophical concept of Michel Foucault.

Texts relevantly scrutinized using CDA approach are those produced to express power, domination, and inequality that is practiced, reproduced, or distributed within any form of written texts and

conversations in social and political contexts. This analysis takes a position against the current of domination in a large framework to fight social injustice. This approach, therefore, typically belongs to a social constructivist approach which believes that world representation is discursive linguistic, historical meaning and knowledge are created through social interaction. In addition, CDA can also be devised to critically analyze various social issues such as gender inequality and racism, discrimination, ideology, and power imbalances. A concrete example is how men and women are represented in the media and how various ethnic groups appear in public policy-related documents. Critical discourse analysis experts were inspired by several predecessors such as Frankfurt and Jurgen Habermas, Antonio Gramsci, Michel Foucault, Mikhail Bakhtin, Michael Halliday, Robert Hodge and Gunther Kress.

CDA can be said to be a critique of linguistics and sociology. According to Schiffrin (1994), CDA provides theories and methods that can be used to conduct empirical studies of the relationships between discourse and social and cultural development in different social domains. To analyze discourse, one of which can be seen in the linguistic area, namely by paying attention to the sentences contained in the text that can use the theory of critical discourse analysis (Jorgensen and Phillips, 2002)

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3.1 POWER RELATION AND IDEOLOGY AS REFLECTED IN THE PRESIDENT SOEKARNO 1955 AAC SPEECH'S USE OF PRONOUNS

Ideology and power relation are among the major interests of critical discourse analysts. The ideology is a set of beliefs through which power and power relation are maintained in human discourse. It goes without saying that ideology and language are intertwined, and along with power, ideology is analyzable through Halidayan's SFL theoretical framework outlining linguistic forms and functions. This research, as a part of a bigger project comparing Soekarno 1955' and Jokowi 2015's speeches, aims to investigate the power relation and ideology as manifest through the use of pronouns in the historical artifact of President Soekarno 1955 AAC speech. The analysis is grounded on Halliday (1979) and Fairclough's (1989) theory of CDA. Through qualitative analytical procedures, involving Word Smith concordance analyzer software, this research discovers that both power relations and ideology were clearly reflected in the use of pronouns we, us and our as a means of invoking solidarity among member countries represented by the delegates participating in the AAC. The use of the pronouns was rhetorically intended to reinforce the need to work hand-in-hand against the oppression of other countries.

Keywords: *Ideology, power relation, solidarity, pronouns, CDA*

Introduction

This paper, based on Critical Discourse Analysis theory and Systemic Functional Linguistics, analyzes President Soekarno's 1955 AAC speech mainly from the viewpoint of an interpersonal metafunction. This paper examines the persuasive strategies of the President in convincing the members of the participating countries about the covert ideology of the oppressed nations and how power relations among member countries are reflected through discourse. In this paper, the writer will present, through CDA lense, an analytical framework, i.e. personal pronouns used in the speech of the President as the devices to persuade the audience to believe that among the oppressed nations they have, shoulder to shoulder, shared common concern and solidarity.

The objective of the study is to critically analyze the discourses of President Soekarno with regard to the issue confronting Asian and African countries for being the oppressed nations and the need to call for establishing the common ground in order for them to get listened to by the rest of the world. This study, hence, attempts to:

1. find out the way ideology is built up through the use of pronouns throughout the speech.

2. through the use of pronouns, the President's representation of ideology and power relation are discovered.

The rationale for the speech within the critical discourse perspective.

In this study, the writer intentionally selected this historical speech due to some reasons. Firstly, despite the age, an event that has 60 years elapsed remains relevant to the current era especially in line with the 60th AAC anniversary that takes place in 2015. Secondly. the

speech is indeed monumental and yet dormant undiscovered, and is therefore, interesting to be revived and critically investigated.

Critical linguistics, also called Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA), is a type of research that primarily studies the way power, dominance, and inequality are enacted, reproduced through the text and talk in the social as well as political contexts. With that in mind, a critical discourse analyst may take a position in order to understand, expose, and primarily criticize the above enactment (Van Dijk, 1985). This is because the purpose of CDA is to analyze "opaque as well as transparent structural relationships of dominance, discrimination, power and control as manifested in language" (Wodak 1995, p.204). The utmost objective of any CDA study is to unravel the underlying implicit agenda which is implied in the discourse that is ready to be discovered.

Theoretical Review

M.A.K. Halliday, through his Systemic Functional Grammar (SFL), has been considered the progenitor of CDA who has inspired much research particularly in the stream of critical analytical discourse. SFL derived Systemic Grammar and Functional Grammar. Despite the plurality of approaches in the CDA, due to the differences of emphasis and orientation, he, along with Fowler R, Hodge R, Kress G, Trew T. (1979) and Foucault (1981) has much influence in the later development of CDA research methodologies. Foucault's assertion, that, "In every society, the production of discourse is at once controlled, selected, organized and redistributed by a number of procedures" (1981, p. 52) adds up to the more recent methodological choices that later on colors the growth of CDA.

According to Hu Zhuanglin (1988, p. 307), there are two integral frameworks inextricable from linguistic theory, i.e. systemic and functional grammar. On the one hand, the language within systemic grammar may explicate the internal relations in language as a system network, or meaning potential, where subsystems of the language allow the language users to be able to make choices. On the other hand, language, within the functional grammar point of view, serves as a means of social interaction. The infinite practical functions deriving from the two is generally encapsulated into a set of functions widely known as meta-functions which are inherent in every language. The concept of linguistic meta-function encompasses three functions: ideational, interpersonal and textual.

A. Ideational Function

The first metafunction is the ideational function. It makes up the content function of language. Through this function, the language encodes the cultural experience and the speaker encodes his own individual experience of the things relevant to each individual person. The ideational function is divided into experiential and logical functions. In a sense, linguistically, we bring the world into being such as in the following example.

Promise me, and I'll never ask you more.

The first half of the sentence shows us an action (promise), a kind of oath representing a human action, a thing that is acted upon. While, the second half, a doer (in this case I) does another action, ask for, something, more, which can mean anything. The whole sentence conveys the meaning of a worldly phenomenon that represents the human experience in the world. It is through this function that the speaker or writer delivers his experience of the world: his reactions,

cognitions, and perceptions, and also his linguistic acts of speaking and understanding (Halliday, 1971, p. 332) that is unknown to the hearer.

B. Interpersonal Function

In this function, the speaker or writer is using language as a means of intrusion into the speech event: the expression of his comments, attitudes and evaluations, and also of the relationship that he sets up between himself and the listener—in particular, the communication role that he adopts of informing, questioning, greeting, persuading, and the like (Halliday, 197, p. 333). It is some kind of participatory function of language through which the speaker intrudes himself into the context of the situation. Through this function, he may express personal attitudes, judgments or even attempt to influence others. It expresses the role relationships associated with the communication which may disclose identity by virtue of relationships with other people making itself an essential part of the personalizing process. By saying this:

> Promise me, and I'll never ask you more.

a speaker roughly means "I request you to do something, and having done so, I am determined not to do something else." The above sentence does not merely serve as a reality representation, but also a means by which the speaker and hearer are interacting with each other. As becomes clear from the sample, the sentence has two halves, the first half is a request and the second half is a promise, which indicates its interpersonal role in the social interaction processes.

There are two linguistic devices included in this interpersonal function, modality and mood. Mood refers to what role the speaker

plays in the speech situation as well as what role he assigns to the addressee. By making a request, the speaker selects the imperative mood and assigns hearers or readers to either comply with or turn him down. For example, by saying 'Will you help me!', may mean you either come to help or go and ignore me.

Modality, on the one hand, is a linguistic device that functions to express personal judgment over the content of the message of communication. It spans from two extremes; low to high or positive to negative. It is one of the most important systems in social communication. In addition, modality can also show a social role relationship which scales up or down the sense of formality and the intensity of power relationship upon knowledge, as well as inclusiveness or exclusiveness of reality. In most languages, the interpersonal function of modality may be expressed through such devices as modal verbs, modal adverbs, adjectives, personal pronouns, notional verbs, tense, direct and indirect speeches.

C. Textual Function

The third metafunction of language is called textual function which Halliday (1971, p. 334) describes as, "Language makes links between itself and the situation, and discourse becomes possible because the speaker or writer can produce a text and the listener or reader can recognize one" which is further clarified further down here. We may assume that in all languages the clause has the character of a message, i.e. it has some form of an organization giving it the status of a communicative event. But there are different ways in which this may be achieved. In English, as in many other languages, the clause is organized as a message by having a special status assigned to one part of it. One element in the clause is enunciated as the theme; this then

combines with the remainder so that the two parts together constitute a message." (Halliday 1971, p 37)

The textual function, therefore, is a language mechanism that allows a stretch of spoken or written text to become a coherent discourse making it systematic instead of random one. Despite sharing the same ideational and interpersonal functions, two sentences may be different in terms of textual coherence (Hu Zhuanglin, 1988, p. 315). It is the textual function that makes the text a text, as without it we are unable to deliver specific communicative purposes or convey communication messages. Text, therefore, is not simply a bunch of a random word list but rather a well-woven linguistic structure. Without textual metafunction, language is simply unusable at all (Hu Zhuanglin, 1988).

CDA views discourse-language use in speech and writing as a form of social practice (Fairclough & Wodak (1997, p. 55). This is an approach that tends to investigate the relationships between discursive practices and social structures. The relationship is a two-way dialectical in nature in which the discursive event is shaped by situations and which at the same time shapes them. In other words, society is framed by the linguistic forms which shape and be shaped by society.

Certain linguistic forms may function as a tool to convey ideology and power. Ideology is a set of cultural beliefs, values, and attitudes owned by the society that underlie and justify either the status quo or movements to change it. It does not belong to an individual but rather a shared belief in society. This is in line with Van Dijk (2000, p. 7) who asserts that ideologies are the fundamental beliefs of a group and its members. Power relation, on the other hand, is a relationship

between one group with another group that underlies ideologies. Power is a complex and an abstract concept, and an infinitely important influence on our lives.

Pronoun, an interpersonal metafunction of language, is a substitute for a noun which is often used for the sake of brevity, partly to avoid repetition of a noun, or partly to avoid the necessity of definite statement. Following Halliday (1971), a pronoun is one of the devices in discourse to convey interpersonal meaning and thus it can be inferred that ideology and power relation may be manifested through the use of the pronouns in speech discourse.

Methodology

This is a qualitative inquiry in its nature because it is designed to reveal a phenomenon and the results of which are descriptive rather than predictive. In its venture to the findings, however, a quasi quantitative procedure was involved to map out the data of the speech prior to qualitative analysis. This research, precisely, covers the way in which the ideology and power relation are manifested in the pronouns used in the speech. The instrument of this research is the researcher himself (see Lincoln & Guba, 1981). In qualitative research, the researcher may be of a research instrument himself/herself. As the instrument, the researcher collects the data and interprets them. The research involved the collection of a corpus of 12,270 words of speech.

CDA approach, as suggested by Fairclough (1995a), is generally used to investigate the relationships between discursive practices and the social structures and it is also useable to explore the ways such practices reflect the ideology and power relations in the community. This is on the ground that language plays a crucial role in both

revealing social processes and interactions in the society which is clearly shown through this illustration (see the below chart).
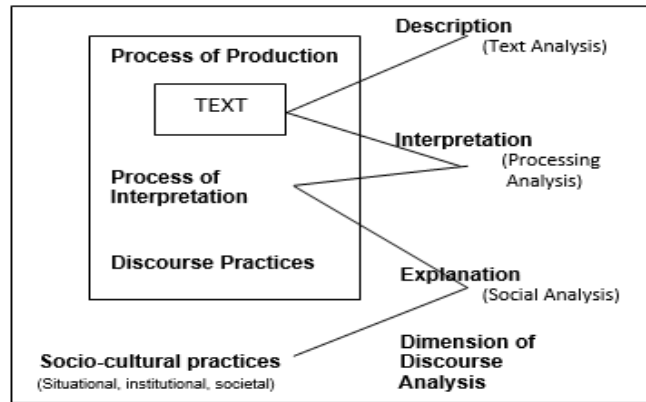
Dimensions of Discourse Analysis (Fairclough, 1989)

The corpus data gathered were analyzed in terms of its discourse functions of structure and lexico grammatical features, in this case, the pronouns. In the data analysis stage, the researcher considers adopting the aspects proposed by Fairclough above. It is an analysis of the latent content of a body of communicated material through classification, tabulation, and evaluation of its key symbols and themes in order to ascertain its meaning and probable effect (Krippendrorff, 2004).

Fairclough gains relevance in the three stages of analysis:

1 text analysis (description),

2 processing analysis (interpretation),

3 social analyses (explanation).

What is useful about this approach is that it enables the researcher to focus on the devices that make up the text, the linguistic selections, their juxtapositioning, their sequencing, their co-occurrence and so

on. This way it is expected that this endeavor is able to disclose the ideologies and power relations as reflected in the pronouns used in the speech.

Findings and Discussion

1. The mapping of the speech

1.1 Speech outline.

The President's address can be internally divided into the following parts:

1. Welcoming the guests

2. Acknowledging the importance of the conference

3. Pointing out to the peace crisis in the world

4. Emphasizing the need for cooperation

5. Maintaining independence by referring to the Indonesian struggle

6. Condemning colonialism

7. Call for voicing out the common concern to the world

8. Diversity is a challenge but not a hindrance for cooperation

9. The need to assure the success of the conference

10. Official opening of the conference

1.2 Statistic of the speech

TABLE 1

STATISTIC OF THE SPEECH

Frequency analysis

Token (running words)	12,270
Token (word list)	9,898
Tokens/Types	2.981
Types of distinct words	4,441
Sentences mean in words	478
Paragraphs mean	9,898
1 letter word	5,403
2 letter word	2,965
3 letter word	1,689
4 letter word	979
5 letter word	532
6 letter word	308
7 letter word	168

As can bee seen from the statistics, the speech involved 12.270 words, with 4,441 distict words suugesting the varied words used in the speech and the varied length of words ranging from 1 to 7 letter words.

1. 3 Statistic of personal pronouns

TABLE 2

STATISTIC OF THE SPEECH
Personal pronouns

We	77
Our	67
It	61
I	46
us	33
Asia	24
Their	24
Its	21
Africa	20
Asian	18
You	15
My	10
He	8

The statistics indicates that the top two pronouns used in the speech are subsequently *we* 77 times and *our* 67 times. Interestingly pronoun *I* is used more often than *us*, which may be reflecting the emphathy or the confidence of the speaker about the ideas being talked about. Among the leat frequently used pronous are *you, my, and he*.

2. Ideological and power relation analysis

In the opening section of the speech of President Soekarno, we notice that he attempted to make the event monumental by invoking the sacrifices that have been made by the predecessors and is going to be made by the current and succeeding generations. This is clear from the data that he begins to disclose his ideological beliefs and power

relation. The ideology of solidarity will thrive so long as togetherness among members is maintained.

(1) "I recognize that **we** are gathered here today as a result of sacrifices. Sacrifices made by **our** forefathers and by the people of our **own** and younger generations".

Such an opening is an evidence that the ideology is a bonding agent that ties together all the participating members, all the Asian and African nations, to be strong and resilient as further expressed by this excerpt as the pronouns were tightly connected to the words forefathers and own and younger generations. The next excerpt underlies the importance of sacrifice made by the current leaders which is as central as that previously made by their predecessors to guarantee the lasting struggle for independence and sovereignty

(2) "For me, this hall is filled not only by the leaders of the nations of Asia and Africa; it also contains within its walls the undying, the indomitable, the invincible spirit of those who went before us. Their struggle and sacrifice paved the way for this meeting of the highest representatives of independent and sovereign nations from two of the biggest continents of the globe".

The above excerpt leads to the major issue raised by the President with respect to why this conference is of significance because of the urgent agenda that the ideology itself may gain its strength through

what is so-called solidarity in response to the threat confronting all nations in two continents as is evident from the excerpt below:

(3) You have not gathered together in a world of peace and unity and cooperation. Great chasms yawn between nations and groups of nations. **Our** unhappy world is torn and tortured, and the peoples of all countries walk in fear lest, through no fault of theirs, the dogs of war are unchained once again.

The above excerpt shows the demand for solidarity, which is the penultimate responsibility that ought to be achieved via the togetherness as a result of the following:

(4) Then **our** nations demanded, that **we** fought for independence, and achieved independence, and with that independence came responsibility. We have heavy responsibilities to ourselves, and to the world, and to the yet unborn generations".

It is evident from excerpt (4) that the ideology of the President is the ideology for solidarity to fight for freedom and it has its ramification on power relation among nations. Again, ideologies of solidarity and power relation are evident through this excerpt highlighted by the frequent use of pronouns in excerpt (5). The transitive verbs in the excerpt following the agent **we** and possessive pronoun **our** as part of the agent also help strengthen the persuasive power to include the member nations in the campaign of his ideology and highlight the need for power relations.

(5) **We** are of many different nations, **we** are of many different social backgrounds and cultural patterns. **Our** ways of life are different. **Our** national characters, or colors or motifs - call it what you will - are different. **Our** racial stock is different, and even the color of **our** skin is different. But what does that matter? Mankind is united or divided by considerations other than these. Conflict comes not from a variety of skins, nor from a variety of religion, but from a variety of desires. All of **us**, I am certain, are united by more important things than those which superficially divide us. **We** are united, for instance, by a common detestation of colonialism in whatever form it appears.

Being different is not the issue, but what matters is rather more the common destination of strengthening the solidarity for establishing the common ground for opposing to the oppression and defeating the fear. The rest of the speech highlighted the need that all Asian-African nations together to get freed from oppression, while still realizing the differences, they altogether have to work hand in hand to voice out the solidarity to create a peaceful world where all human beings respect one another in a more dignified way. Being aware that differences are innately given, the speech of the President covertly relates the solidarity with the principle of "live and let live" and "unity in diversity" as reflected within the Pancasila (Indonesian Five Principles) to remind the member countries that the solidarity shall not be weakened by any given nature of diversity.

Analysis of frequently used pronouns and meanings

In order to arrive at a more convincing result of this analysis, keyword analysis of the three frequently used pronouns (**we, our,** and **us**) in the speech, it is essential to present their quantitative frequency of use. As reported in the table above, the pronoun *we* is predominant in the data which is used 77 times, then followed by *our* and *us* respectively 67 and 33 times suggesting that the speech obviously reflects the ideology of inclusion in nature which can be attributed to ideology of the oppressed and the need for power relations among the member nations to work hand-in-hand to conquer fear, oppression and participate in creating a more peaceful and fair world. The analyses of the discourse have made it clear how ideology and power relations were displayed through the speech. The claim is vindicated by the data of the key word analysis and the concordances of pronoun use as can be seen in appendix 1 and 2.

Conclusion

The hegemonic ideology of solidarity among Asian and African nations has been evidently vindicated through the use of interpersonal metafunction of the language of the President Soekarno's speech through three inclusive pronouns *we, our,* and *us* signifying his call for solidarity among Asian-African nations. The findings were strongly backed up by the predominant use of *we*, which plays its role as an inclusive agent and which, in the investigated speech, represents and displays an ideology of solidarity of which togetherness and membership of different nations are to be nurtured. The pronoun we, at the same time, functions to persuade the member nations to go about doing something for the sake of their

national independence and sovereignty despite the differences and diversity.

Suggestion

By involving a limited number of corpus data which only consist of 12,270 words of speech, this corpus may not be big enough, however as an individual speech is never too long to last, this analysis still has its own ground. Despite its ability to disclose the findings, however, the conclusion drawn from small scale research potentially carries with it a serious drawback. Therefore, in order for future research to produce more robust findings and conclusion, a similar corpus study using electronic analysis should consider expanding the research objects by involving a lot bigger size of the corpus of similar speeches by the same speaker or consider comparing it with similar speeches by different persons. The qualitative analysis is purely interpretive of the quantitative electronic data, future researchers should consider investigating the macro aspect of the speech by looking at the political situation preceding the conference and prior to the making of the speech.

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Appendix:

1. Concordances of WE

N	Concordance
1	by other and distant peoples. However, we cannot, we dare not, confine our
2	distant peoples. However, we cannot, we dare not, confine our interests to the
3	which lives on the other continents that we, the majority, are for peace, not for
4	, not for war, and that whatever strength we have will always be thrown on to the
5	, and grenades, and bamboo spears. We were blockaded, physically and
6	, and others. Almost every political faith we encounter here - Democracy,
7	were the birthplaces of religions. Must we be divided by the multiformity of our
8	neighbours were all supporting us. We were given fresh courage to press
9	to its final successful conclusion. We again realised to the full the truth of
10	Violence of Nations in favour of peace. We can demonstrate to the minority of
11	serried ranks of jet bombers. What can we do? We can do much! We can inject
12	ranks of jet bombers. What can we do? We can do much! We can inject the
13	allowed to run their course. What can we do? The peoples of Asia and Africa
14	strength is dispersed and slight. We cannot indulge in power politics.
15	. What can we do? We can do much! We can inject the voice of reason into
16	Africa on the side of peace. Yes, we! We, the peoples of Asia and Africa, 1,
17	half the human population of the world, we can mobilise what I have called the
18	the voice of reason into world affairs. We can mobilise all the spiritual, all the
19	and Africa on the side of peace. Yes, we! We, the peoples of Asia and Africa,
20	us be full of hope and full of confidence. We have so much in common.
21	and help. And I think I may say that we all hold dear the ideals of national
22	- is the motto of the Indonesian State. We are one nation. So, let this
23	own way, in harmony, and in peace. If we succeed in doing so, the effect of it
24	independence and freedom. Yes, we have so much in common. And yet
25	that it will give evidence of the fact that we Asian and African leaders
26	Brothers, that for the sake of all that, we Asians and Africans must be united.
27	, we have so much in common. And yet we know so little of each other. If this
28	saying of one diplomat from far abroad: "We will turn this Asian-African
29	practise the "Live and let live" principle, we are tolerant to each other. Bhinneka
30	faiths. We have in Indonesia Moslims, we have Christians, we have
31	Indonesia Moslims, we have Christians, we have Civa-Buddhists, we have
32	it desires to propagate. But unless we realise that all great religions are
33	with many religions and many faiths. We have in Indonesia Moslims, we have
34	Christians, we have Civa-Buddhists, we have peoples with other creeds.
35	thank God, we have our will to unity. We have our Pancha Sila. We practise

2.Concordances   of   OUR

N	Concordance
1	of all the world are our affairs, and our future depends upon the solutions
2	country was for the second time since our Proclamation of Independence
3	, confine our interests to the affairs of our own continents. The States of the
4	no longer. The affairs of all the world are our affairs, and our future depends upon
5	of our territory occupied, a great part of our leaders imprisoned or exiled, our
6	part of our leaders imprisoned or exiled, our existence as a State threatened.
7	engaged in a life and death struggle. Our nation was besieged and
8	besieged and beleaguered, much of our territory occupied, a great part of our
9	on their distorted bodies the marks of our failure to control the forces which
10	that of preserving peace. Without peace our independence means little. The
11	. War would not only mean a threat to our independence, it may mean the end
12	lightly, the unborn generations of our children would bear on their
13	for us is not a matter of the big stick. Our statesmen, by and large, are not
14	, we cannot, we dare not, confine our interests to the affairs of our own
15	little. The rehabilitation and upbuilding of our countries will have little meaning.
16	of our countries will have little meaning. Our revolutions will not be allowed to run
17	chamber, but on the battlefield. Our envoys then were rifles, and cannon,
18	other regions of this globe. But, again, our countries were the birthplaces of
19	we be divided by the multiformity of our religious life? It is true, each religion
20	. Then only can it be fully extended to our relations with our neighbouring
21	it be fully extended to our relations with our neighbouring countries, and to
22	Asia and a New Africa have been born! Our task is first to seek an
23	be bitter about the past, but let us keep our eyes firmly on the future. Let us
24	, Balinese, etc. But thank God, we have our will to unity. We have our Pancha
25	God, we have our will to unity. We have our Pancha Sila. We practise the "Live
26	against Indonesia and to give support to our struggle. The intellectual blockade
27	. The intellectual blockade was broken! Our Delegates flew to New Delhi and
28	was at that sad but glorious moment in our national history that our good
29	moment in our national history that our good neighbour India convened a
30	. We were given fresh courage to press our struggle onwards to its final
31	all applied by us most completely within our own Asian and African frontiers.
32	support which was being given to our struggle for national existence.
33	, the Press and the common men of our Asian and African neighbours were
34	in our part of the world would imperil our precious independence, so recently
35	itself. If we look for the forerunner of this our great gathering, we must look to

Concordances of US

N	Concordance
1	in common. Relatively speaking, all of us gathered here today are neighbours.
2	benefit from its warm radiance. But let us be full of hope and full of confidence.
3	, the experience of colonialism. Many of us have a common religion. Many of us
4	here today are neighbours. Almost all of us have ties of common experience, the
5	motto the unifying force which brings us all together - to seek in friendly,
6	is obsolete - is first of all applied by us most completely within our own
7	presence of you all here today. It is for us to give it strength, to give it the
8	, ways and means by which each of us can live his own life, and let others
9	God is so sweet as life and liberty. Let us remember that the stature of all
10	keep our eyes firmly on the future. Let us remember that no blessing of God is
11	of humanity's majority. And let us remember, Sisters and Brothers,
12	or parts of nations are still unfree. Let us remember that the highest purpose
13	us have common cultural roots. Many of us, the so-called "underdeveloped"
14	of us have a common religion. Many of us have common cultural roots. Many of
15	us not be bitter about the past, but let us keep our eyes firmly on the future.
16	hard flints of today's circumstances. Let us not be bitter about the past, but let
17	all over the world. Therefore, it behoves us to take particular care to ensure that
18	be disinterested about colonialism? For us, colonialism is not something far and
19	than those which superficially divide us. We are united, for instance, by a
20	are often told "Colonialism is dead". Let us not be deceived or even soothed by
21	are not yet free. That is why all of us cannot yet feel that journey's end
22	invincible spirit of those who went before us. Their struggle and sacrifice paved
23	our best to make your stay amongst us memorable for both our guests and
24	, but from variety of desires. All of us, I am certain, are united by more
25	change which places new burdens upon us, and we are all resolved to exert all
26	indulge in power politics. Diplomacy for us is not a matter of the big stick. Our
27	the oceans and the seas will protect us. The food that we eat, the water that
28	success! Yes, there is diversity among us. Who denies it? Small and great
29	African neighbours were all supporting us. We were given fresh courage to
30	of the battle for peace. How can any of us be disinterested about peace? Not
31	the other anti-colonial words which gave us comfort and reassurance during the
32	that little grain of comfort is denied us for it has been made clear that the
33	argued that peace was necessary for us because an outbreak of fighting in

3.2 A CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS OF THE BALI NINE NEWS ON *SUARA MERDEKA* WEBSITE [2]

This study aims to critically analyze (1) text structure, (2) social cognition, and (3) social context of the Bali Nine news on *Suara Merdeka* website (www.suaramerdeka.com). The method used in this research is a descriptive qualitative method used to critically look into five news about the case of the Bali Nine execution verdict. The analysis of the data indicates that the news texts are able to explain the text structure, such as the description of the background and the details of the overall texts. Second, in the social cognition dimension mostly the journalists report news about the various ways and the struggle that are done by the death row inmates and the Australian government to cancel the execution despite persistent refusal. In writing the news, the journalists neither exaggerate the news nor speak badly about The Australian Government, but they implicitly highlight that Indonesian Government is the one who has a sole authority to decide whether to carry out the execution or not and Australian Government merely adhere to the Indonesian"s law. Third, the discourse about Bali Nine built in the social context raises controversy. Not all people support government action in executing the two death penalty convicts in drug cases.

 Keywords: *critical discourse analysis, news, Bali Nine, Suara Merdeka, Van Dijk*

[2] **Ferlina, Antonius Suratno**

Introduction

Mass media serves to connect people and information. Mass media either printed or electronic have an important role in providing information to the public and reporting anything happening in the world. According to Muhtadi (1999, p. 3), the function of mass media is to disseminate information through published writings. However, it is undeniable that mass media also have an important role in influencing public perception. Cliffnotes in the article "The Functions of the Mass Media" states that the mass media do not only report the results of public opinion reported by external organizations but also increasingly incorporate their own polls into their news coverage. More importantly, newspapers and television help shape public opinion as well. Mass media are newsmakers and capable of influencing people. Through the news, they are able to build an image of certain groups, parties, or a certain person. Choices of words by reporters also play an important role in influencing public opinion which can also build an image of a party or a person.

As reported in Suara Merdeka daily news, Bali Nine is a name given to a group of nine Australian who were convicted for planning to smuggle 8.3 kg heroin from Indonesia to Australia. The members of Bali Nine are Andrew Chan, Myuran Sukumaran, Si Yi Chen, Tan Duc Thanh Nguyen, Matthew Norman, Scoot Rush, Michael Czugaj, Renae Lawrence, and Martin Stephens. Andrew Chan and Myuran Sukumaran were sentenced to death and others were sent to prison. As stated by CNNindonesia (Kandi, 2015), the chronologies of the Bali Nine case are as follows: In April 2005, Indonesia received information from the Australian Federal Police that there was a drug smuggling attempt. Police arrested the five convicts (Andrew Chan,

Scott Rush, Michael Czugaj, Renae Lawrence, and Martin Stephens) at Ngurah Rai Airport and arrested the other four at Melasti beach bungalows near Kuta beach on April 17, 2005 on the charges of drug dealing.

The writer was interested in analyzing this topic because first, according to a survey conducted by Nielsen Consumer Insight W2 2010, *Suara Merdeka* was one of the biggest media in Central Java. Therefore, the news published by *Suara Merdeka* has a strong effect on society. Second, there were controversies and conflicts regarding the death penalty that was given to Bali Nine members. The objective of this study is to critically analyze how *Suara Merdeka* establishes text structure, social cognition, and social context of the news about Bali Nine. The results of this study are expected to give knowledge, especially that relates to critical discourse analysis of the news in media and how the media construct the image of someone or groups.

Literature Review

Discourse Analysis

The term discourse analysis, according to Brown and Yule (1983) is used to "describe activities at the intersection of disciplines as diverse as sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, philosophical linguistics, and computational linguistics." According to Johnstone (2008, p. 2), discourse analysis is "the study of language", however, the way to understand what the difference between discourse analysis and any other approaches is by asking ourselves about what "discourse" and "analysis" is. As stated by Johnstone, the term is called "discourse analysis" rather than "language analysis" because "it is not centrally focused on language as an abstract system. It

tends to be interested in what happens when people draw on the knowledge they have about language, knowledge based on their memories of things they have said, heard, seen, or written before doing things in the world for example exchange information". Moreover, Johnstone also says it is called discourse analysis rather than "discourseology" or "discourse criticism" because of "the fact that discourse analysis typically focuses on the analytical process in a relatively explicit way." (Johnstone, 2008, p. 3)

According to Paltridge, Zellig Harris was the one who introduced the term discourse analysis as a way of analyzing connected speech and writing for the first time in 1952. There are two main interests that Harris had. First, the examination of language beyond the level of the sentence and second, the relationship between linguistic and non-linguistic behavior. Harris (2012, p. 2) examined a way of describing how language is distributed within a text and a way in which language is combined in particular kinds and styles of texts. An important observation that he made was as follows:

Van Dijk's Critical Discourse Analysis

Picture 1

Van Dijk's Analysis Diagram
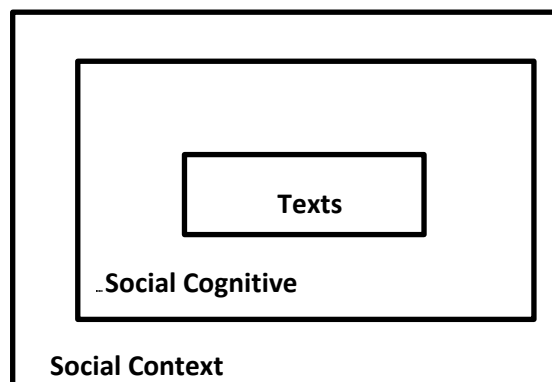
Critical Discourse Analysis is defined differently in accordance with the focus of attention in the research using CDA approach. Paltridge (2012, p. 186), defines it as an attempt to explore the connection between the use of language and the social and the political contexts in which it occurs. It explores issues such as gender, ethnicity, cultural difference, ideology and identity and how these are both constructed and reflected in texts. It also investigated ways in which language constructs and is constructed by social relationships. In contrast, Van Dijk (1998) defined it as a field that is concerned with studying and analyzing written and spoken texts to reveal the discursive source of power, dominance, inequality and bias. It examines how these discursive sources are maintained and reproduced within specific social, political, and historical contexts.

For Van Dijk, the main purpose of adopting the CDA approach is to analyze the structure of discourse related to the reproduction of social dominance, whether it is the form of conversations or news or genre and other contexts. Critical discourse analysis examines the use of discourse in relation to social and cultural issues such as politics, race, gender and identity and asks why the discourse is used in a particular way and what the implications are of this kind of use. Van Dijk believes that discourse research is not only about the text, but must also be seen in the production of the practice. In Critical Discourse Analysis, discourse is not considered as the practice of language study, rather as something connected to the context in which certain goals and practices including the power practice are exercised. CDA investigates how social groups fight and propose their own reality. Van Dijk's theory consists of three dimensions of analysis. They are text structures, social cognition, and social context.

1. Text Structure

Text structure analyses how the discourse strategies are used to describe a person or an event on how textual strategies are used to sequence events. marginalize a group, an idea or a specific event. Van Dijk (2001) divides this into three levels :

i. Micro Structure

Micro Structure is a local meaning of a text that can be observed from the choice of words, sentences, and styles that are used in a text. Rhetorics can be seen from the use of graphics, metaphors, and expressions.

ii. Macro Structure

It is a global meaning of a text that can be observed from the topic or theme raised by a text. The macro structure consists of a news topic. News' topic can be concluded after reading, listening, or watching that news.

iii. Superstructure

It is a framework of a text, how the structure and elements of discouse are arranged in a text as a whole part like introduction, content, closing and conclusion. Schematic is the reporter's strategies to support certain theorist that are delivered by arranging the parts in a certain structure.

2. Social Cognition

Social Cognition sees how a text is produced. Social cognition associates with the reporters" mental awareness that form the text. As stated by Van Dijk quoted by Eriyanto (2001, p. 259), the text itself has no meaning, but it is given by the mental awareness process of

the language users. **Reporters are not seen** as neutral individuals, but individuals who have varying values, experiences, and influences of ideology derived from life. An event is understood by a scheme or a model. The scheme is conceptualized as a mental structure that includes human‟s perspectives, social roles and events. There are several schemes to comprehend this cognition as stated by Van Dijk (2001) quoted by Eriyanto:

a. People Schema: How a person describes and sees other people.

b. Self Schema: How a person understands and describes him/herself.

c. Role Schema: How someone depicts and understands somebody‟s role/position in society.

d. Occasion Schema: Every occasion is always understood and described by a certain scheme.

3. Social Context

Social context analysis is used to show how meanings and social power are produced through discourse practice and legitimacy. According to Van Dijk (2001), as stated in the Eriyanto‟s book, in the analysis of this society, there are two important points: power and access.

a. Power practice

This power generally is based on property or valuable resources such as money, status, and knowledge. Power is not only obtained through physical control, but also through the act of persuasion by influencing mental conditions such as beliefs, attitudes, and knowledge. Discourse analysis gives attention to domination.

b. Access

Discourse analysis gives attention to access between each group in society. Elite groups have more access than the non-powerful groups. Therefore, they have greater access to media.

With these three dimensions analysis theory by Van Dijk, the researcher can analyze the process of media to produce texts and make the news, the text structures of the news, and the way the discourse of the news is built.

There are some previous studies that also conduct research on the discourse that is built by media.

"A CDA Approach to Analysing BBC TV"S Newsnight Reports on the Israel/Palestine Conflict" by Peter Allen (2013) ii. "Analisis Wacana Terhadap Teks Berita Tuntutan Pembubaran FPI SKH Kompas Edisi Februari 2012" by Khuriyati (2013)

From the research above, there are similarities in the use of critical discourse analysis by the researcher and they both also focus on the discourse built by media. However, there are also some differences between the research of the writer and the research above in terms of the subjects and the objects chosen, in addition to the use of three dimensions proposed by Van Dijk. The writer thinks that Van Dijk" theory is the most suitable for this study because it focuses on social and cultural issues.

Methodology

Method of data collection

The purpose of this study is to critically analyze how the *Suara Merdeka* establishes text structure, social cognition, and social

analysis of the news about Bali Nine. The writer uses documents that are the news about Bali Nine as the instruments of data collection.

The method used in this study is a descriptive qualitative method. According to Djadjasudarma (2006), the descriptive-qualitative study aims to provide a systematic description of the data, characteristics, and relationships of phenomena to be studied.

1. Instrument

The instruments of this research that the writer used were public documents which were the news about Bali Nine on the *Suara Merdeka* website. The writer observed the news about Bali Nine on *Suara Merdeka* official website. Then, the writer gathered the data by copying the news script in order to analyze the data.

2. Data

The subjects of this study are the news about Bali Nine on *Suara Merdeka* website (www.suaramerdeka.com) reporting the Bali Nine case entitled:

1. *Sindikat Bali Nine Bisa Segera dieksekusi* (Bali Nine Syndicate could be Executed soon) - February 25, 2015.

2. *Jelang Eksekusi Duo Bali Nine, KJRI Sydney dilempari Cat*

    (Ahead of Bali Nine Duo Execution, The Consulate General of The Republic Indonesia in Sydney was Pelted with Paint.) - March 3, 2015.

3. *Duo Gembong Bali Nine Tetap dieksekusi, Menlu Australia*

    Kecewa (Bali Nine Kingpin Duo were still Executed, Australian Foreign Minister was Disappointed) - March 4, 2015.

4. *Tak Ada Dasar Hukum, Barter "Bali Nine" ditolak* (Not based on the law, "Bali Nine" Barter was Declined) - March 6, 2015.

5. *dilobi Senator Australia, PBNU Kekeuh Dukung Hukuman Mati*

   Bali Nine (Lobbied by Australian Senator, PBNU Insisted to Support Bali Nine Death Penalty) - March 10, 2015. To collect these data, the writer used a purposive sampling method.

3. Procedure

The procedures to do this research are as follows:

1. The writer opened *Suara Merdeka* official website

    (www.suaramerdeka.com) by using a computer.

2. After that, the writer searched the news about Bali Nine.

3. By using a purposive sampling method, the writer chose the five news about Bali Nine previously mentioned above.

4. The data were analyzed in a descriptive method. The data were analyzed by using the three-dimension analysis by van Dijk, text structure, social cognition, and social context.

5. The data then were presented, described, and interpreted until the writer could conclude the results.

4. Data Analysis

The text dimension consists of macrostructure which is the global meaning of a text that can be observed from the topic or the theme. The element is thematic. The superstructure is the framework of a text such as introduction, content, and conclusion. The element is the

schematic. The microstructure is a global meaning of a text that can be observed from the choice of words, sentences, and styles used by a text. The elements are semantics, syntax, stylistics, and rhetorical. The second is social cognition. It is how reporters" mental awareness that forms the text. The third is the social context. It is to understand what is going on in society and the impact on society after the news.

Data Analysis and Interpretation

Van Dijk"s method analysis consists of three dimensions analysis, text structure, social cognition, and social context. The results could be described as follows:

Text Structure Analysis

1. News 1: Sindikat Bali Nine Bisa Segera Dieksekusi

i. Macro Structure

The topic or the main theme of the news *Sindikat Bali Nine Bisa Segera dieksekusi* (Bali Nine Syndicate Can be Executed Soon) on February 25, 2015 (see the appendix 1) is the lawsuit of the duo Australian drug kingpins who were known as Bali Nine syndicates, against President Joko Widodo was rejected by the Jakarta State Administrative Court.

ii. Super Structure

At the superstructure level, the research is shown through the news schema that is presented in the news text. In this news, it starts with information that the Jakarta State Administrative Court rejected the lawsuit submitted by Andrew Chan and Myuran Sukumaran as stated in Paragraph 1, 6, 7, 8 and the closing paragraps.

By displaying the scheme as above, the reporter wanted to draw the readers attention to the rejection of the lawsuit.

iii. Micro Structure

1. Semantics

The background of this news starts with information about the rejection of a lawsuit submitted by Andrew Chan and Myuran Sukumaran against President Joko Widodo.

The detail of the news lies in Paragraph 4 and Paragraph 6. Paragraph 4 is an explanation of the Jakarta Administrative Court chairman who stated that the lawsuit submitted by Andrew and Myuran was rejected. By providing these details, the journalist wanted the readers to believe that the rejection of Andre‟s and Myuran‟s lawsuit was true.

The purpose of this news that the reporter wants to inform the readers about the rejection of a lawsuit and also to inform the readers regarding the effort of the two convicted to cancel their execution

2. Syntax

This news uses **active and also passive sentences**. One of the active sentences lies in Paragraph 3 *Sebelumnya, para penyelundup tersebut menggugat Jokowi yang telah menolak grasi yang mereka ajukan*. (Previously, the smugglers sued Jokowi who had rejected clemency that they proposed.)

The example of the passive sentence is in the second paragraph

Dengan demikian, para penyelundup yang dikenal dengan sebutan Sindikat Bali Nine itu bisa segera dieksekusi. (Thus, the

smugglers who were known as the Bali Nine Syndicate could soon be executed.)

3. Stylistics

In this news, the reporter often used the word *para penyelundup* to refer to Andrew Chan and Myuran Sukumaran. The use of the word *para penyelundup* (the smugglers) wanted to imply the convicts.

4. Rhetorics (Graphic & Metaphor)

An example of a metaphor is found in Paragraph 7 which is *perlawanan hukum* (a legal fight). *Dia akan melakukan* <u>*perlawanan hukum*</u> *dengan mengajukan banding.* (He would take a legal fight by submitting an appeal.) The title of this news is *Sindikat Bali Nine Bisa Segera dieksekusi* (Bali Nine Syndicate could be Executed Soon). The reporter also provided a sub-title which is *Gugatan Ke Jokowi Kandas* (Lawsuit Against Jokowi Failed). The reporter wanted to say that the execution of the convicts can be implemented soon. The reporter concealed this hidden meaning by writing the news about the rejection of the lawsuit filed by Andrew and Myuran.

2. News 2: Jelang Eksekusi Duo Bali Nine, KJRI Sydney Dilempar Cat

i. Macro Structure

The topic of the news *Jelang Eksekusi Duo Bali Nine, KJRI Sydney Dilempar Cat* (Ahead of Duo Bali Nine Execution, The Consulate General of the Republic Indonesia in Sydney was pelted with paint.) dated March 3, 2015 (see the appendix 2) is an incident at The Consulate General of the Republic of

Indonesia in Sydney pelted with balloons filled red paint. This incident is allegedly associated with the execution of Andrew Chan and Myuran Sukumaran.

ii. Superstructure

The schema of this news starts with a report from a press release of the Ministry of Foreign Republic Indonesia, which said that there were balloons filled with liquid thrown by someone in the front yard of the Consulate General of Republic Indonesia, one of them burst and spilled red liquid this morning, at 6 o'clock Sydney time.

By watching the schema as above, first, the reporter wanted to make the readers understand the chronology of the incident and that this incident allegedly associated with the death execution of the victims.

iii. Micro Structure

1. Semantics

The background of the news starts with the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the Republic Indonesia who reported the finding of balloons filled with liquid by someone in the front yard of The Consulate General of Republic Indonesia in Sydney.

The detail of the news is in Paragraph 4. An official for Social and

Cultural Affairs from the Consulate General of Republic Indonesia in Sydney, Nicolas Mannopo explained the chronological of the incident. *"Begitu melihat ada cairan yang tercecer di depan pintu gerbang, staf kami tersebut langsung menghubungi polisi. Polisi kemudian memeriksa cairan itu dan*

tidak ada zat bahaya di dalamnya. Cairan berwarna merah itu hanya cat." ("Upon seeing liquid spilled at the front gate, our staff immediately contacted the police. The police then checked the liquid substance and there was no dangerous chemical in it. The red liquid was just paint")

By providing the detail, that was the reporter's strategy to convince the reader that the incident was true through evidence and a detailed chronology that had been delivered by the witness.

2. Syntax

This news contains **passive sentences** as well as **active sentences**. The passive sentence for example lies in Paragraph 2 *Siaran pers Kementerian Luar Negeri RI pagi ini* <u>*menyebutkan*</u> *pukul 06.00 waktu Sydney* <u>*ditemukan*</u> *sejumlah balon berisi cairan yang* <u>*dilemparkan*</u> *oleh seseorang ke halaman depan KJRI, salah satunya pecah dan* <u>*mencecerkan*</u> *cairan merah. (*A press release of the Ministry of Foreign Republic Indonesia this morning <u>mentioned</u> at 6 o"clock of Sydney time, <u>was found</u> balloons filled with liquid <u>thrown</u> by someone in the front yard of the Consulate General of Republic Indonesia, one of them bursted and <u>spilled</u> red liquid.)

By looking at the structure of the sentence above, it can be seen that the subject of the sentence is the balloon filled with red liquid thrown by someone. It means that it is the main focus of this news.

3. Stylistics

In this news, the reporter also used the word *kelompok penyelundup* to refer to Andrew chan, Myuran Sukumaran, and other members of Bali Nine Syndicate. It meant, the reporter wanted to give a negative effect to them.

4. Rhetorics (Graphic and Metaphor)

The graphic element that can be found in this news is the use of a picture that shows two Australians who were sentenced to death in this drug case, Andrew Chan and Myuran Sukumaran.

The first paragraph illustrates that someone had not yet been identified so it could be concluded that the background and motivation of the perpetrator had not been known yet. The purpose of the reporter was nothing but to inform the readers that the culprit could be someone who did not accept the death penalty of the Bali Nine convicts.

3. News 3: *Duo Gembong Bali Nine Tetap Dieksekusi, Menlu Australia Kecewa*

i. Macro Structure

The Topic of the news *Duo Gembong Bali Nine Tetap Dieksekusi,*

Menlu Australia Kecewa (Duo Bali Nine Kingpin still executed, Australian Foreign Minister is Disappointed) dated March 4, 2015 (see the appendix 3) is The Australian Foreign Minister, Julie Bishop, who voiced out her disappointment of The Indonesian Government because they did not inform The Australian Government about The duo Bali Nine kingpins transfer to Nusakambangan for their execution preparation.

ii. Super Structure

The schema of the news can be described as follows:

First, the news starts with The Australian Foreign Ministry, Julie Bishop, who stated that she was disappointed with the Indonesian Government who ignored the petition of execution cancelation for the duo Bali Nine kingpins. The next paragraphs contain the explanation of Julie Bishop about her disappointment with the Indonesian Government that did not inform the Australian Government regarding the transfer of Andrew Chan and Myuran Sukumaran to Nusakambangan.

iii. Micro Structure

1. Semantics

The background of this news is the sentence Paragraph 1 *Lantaran permohonannya agar duo gembong Bali Nine tidak dieksekusi diabaikan,*

Menteri Luar Negeri Australia, Julie Bishop, mengaku kecewa terhadap

Pemerintah Indonesia. (Because the petition of execution cancelation for duo Bali Nine kingpins was ignored, Australian Foreign Minister, Julie Bishop, was disappointed with the Indonesia Government.). This sentence, then is followed by a detail explanation of that disappointment.

The detail of this news lies in Paragraphs 2 and 5. In Paragraph 2

Bishop stated that, *"Saya kecewa dengan laporan Andrew dan Myuran akan dipindahkan oleh otoritas Indonesia dalam persiapan eksekusi mereka,"* ("I am disappointed with the

report about Andrew and Myuran who will be moved by the Indonesian authorities in preparation for their execution,"). In Paragraphs 4 and 5 Bishop continued her explanation of the disappointment through an interview with Fairfax Media *"… Pemerintah Australia tidak diinformasikan mengenai pemindahan mereka ke Nusakambangan. Padahal,*

Negeri Kanguru telah meminta hal itu sebelumnya kepada otoritas di Indonesia. "Otoritas Indonesia memang tetap menjalin komunikasi dengan konsuler kami di Bali. Tetapi, mereka belum memberikan informasi resmi mengenai rencana pemindahan Andrew dan Myuran dan hari eksekusi mereka," ("…The Australian Government was not informed about their transfer to Nusakambangan. In fact, that land of kangaroos had requested in advance to the authorities in Indonesia.

"The Indonesian authorities did keep in touch with our consulate in Bali. But, they had not provided official information about the transfer plan of Andrew and Myuran and their execution day,")

The purpose of this news is to inform Julie Bishop"s wishes in Paragraphs 6 and 7. In Paragraph 6 Bishop said that she still wanted The Indonesian Government to inform the execution day of Andrew Chan and Myuran Sukumaran.

Dia pun tetap meminta kepada Pemerintah Indonesia, <u>agar</u> menginformasikan hal itu. (She still asked the Indonesian Government <u>to</u> inform it).

2. Semantic

This news mostly about Julie Bishop who felt disappointed with The Indonesian Government because they ignored her wish to cancel the execution of Andrew and Myuran. However, it was the reporter strategy to implicitly said that in this case, it was the Indonesian Government who had a full authority to decide whether to execute the two convicts or not.

2. Syntax

This news uses both **active** and **passive sentences**. For example, in Paragraph 4 *Dalam wawancara dengan Fairfax Media, Bishop turut menyebut, Pemerintah Australia tidak <u>diinformasikan</u> mengenai pemindahan mereka ke Nuskambangan. Padahal, Negeri Kanguru telah <u>meminta</u> hal itu sebelumnya kepada otoritas di Indonesia* (In an interview with Fairfax Media,

Bishop also said the Australian Government <u>was not informed</u> about their transfer to Nuskambangan. In fact, the land of kangaroos had <u>requested</u> it in advance to the authorities in Indonesia)

By looking at the sentence above, it could be seen that the subject is The Australian Government and the object is information about Andre"s and Myuran"s transfer to Nusakambangan. That meant the reporter wanted to emphasize that the main focus of this news was about The Australian government disappointment.

3. Stylistics

In Paragraph 7, the reporter wrote *Seolah ingin membuat keajaiban, dia mengatakan tetap terus menghubungi para*

Menteri di Indonesia, agar eksekusi bisa dibatalkan. (She said she would continue to contact the Ministry in Indonesia, as if she wanted to make a miracle so the execution could be cancelled.). She, in this case, referred to Julie Bishop. With the words *Seolah ingin membuat keajaiban* (as if she wanted to make a miracle) the reporter implicitly said that it seemed impossible to cancel the execution and it would be a miracle if the execution could be cancelled.

4. Rhetorics (Graphic and Methapor)

The rhetoric elements in this news shown by the use of some metaphors, such as:

Negeri kanguru (The land of kangaroos) – Paragraph 4

Jelang detik-detik terakhir (Coming to the final seconds) – Paragraph 7

Membuat keajaiban (to make a miracle) – Paragraph 7

From the analysis of the news above, it can be seen in the detail and purpose elements, the reporter mainly wrote about the comments of Bishop who felt disappointed with the Indonesian Government.

4. News 4: Tak Ada Dasar Hukum, Barter "Bali Nine" Ditolak

i. Macro Structure

The topic of the news *Tak Ada Dasar Hukum, Barter "Bali Nine"*

Ditolak (Not based on the law, "Bali Nine" Barter was declined) on March 6, 2015 (see appendix 4) is that the Indonesian Government rejected the Barter offered by The Australian

Government between two Bali Nine death convicts with three Indonesian citizens prisoned in Australia.

ii. Super Structure

The schema of this news starts with a sentence that explains the news" title which is The Indonesian Government rejected an offer by the Australian Government about the barter of two death convicts, members of the syndicate "Bali Nine" with three Indonesian prisoners in Australia because it was not based on Indonesia"s laws. This is followed by a statement from President Joko Widodo said that he would still maintain a good relationship with Australia.

iii. Micro Structure.

1. Semantics

The background of this news is a statement that the Indonesian Government declined the barter of two death convicts, members of the syndicate "Bali Nine" with three Indonesian Citizens who become prisoners in Australia. The reason was that there was no legal basis that regulated it.

The details of this news lay in some paragraphs such as in Paragraph 6. This paragraph contains a detail explanation of the exchange offer.

"*Bishop menawarkan pembebasan tiga WNI yang ditahan di penjara Australia karena terlibat kasus narkoba. Ketiganya adalah Kristito Mandagi, Saud Siregar, dan Ismunandar.* (Bishop offered the release of the three Indonesian citizens who were detained in Australian prison for involvement in drug

cases. Those three are Kritito Mandagi, Saud Siregar, and Ismunandar.)"

2. Syntax

This news uses both **active and passive sentences**. One of the active sentences is in Paragraph 1 *Pemerintah Indonesia memastikan menolak barter dua terpidana mati anggota sindikat "Bali Nine" dengan tiga WNI yang menjadi narapidana di Negeri Kanguru.* (The Indonesian government ensured to decline the barter of two death convicts, members of the syndicate "Bali Nine" with three Indonesian Citizens who become prisoners in the land of Kangaroos.). While the passive sentence, for example, is in the title of this *news Tak Ada Dasar Hukum, Barter Bali Nine Ditolak* (Not based on the law, Bali Nine Barter was rejected).

3. Rhetorics (Graphic and Metaphor)

There are some rhetorics elements in this news in the form of a figure of speech, for example:

"…tidak ada dasar hukum yang mengatur hal tersebut." (there is no legal

basis that regulates it.) - paragraph 1

Negara tetangga (neighbouring country) – paragraph 4 *dipikirkan masak-masak* (to be thought out) – paragraph 14

In this news, it can be seen in the detail element mostly the reporter wrote about some opinions of Indonesian figures who

stated that they would support the death penalty for those convicted in drug cases. By giving those details, the reporter implicitly wanted to say that he/she agreed with the Indonesian Government"s decision to reject the Australian government"s offer because it did not make sense and it was not based on the law.

iii. Micro Structure

1. Semantics

The **background** of this news is a situation that describes the Australian Government who had done many ways to cancel the execution including unsuccessful diplomacy.

The **detail** elements of this news are found in Paragraphs 2 and 4. In Paragraph 2 is a statement from Australia Senate member, Nick Xenophon, who explained his reason to visit Nahdlatul Ulama (NU) was to request support for his government"s desire to postpone the death penalty.

The **purpose** elements in this news are in Paragraphs 1 and 2. Both of them stated the wish of the Australian Government to postpone the death penalty execution.

*Berbagai cara ditempuh oleh Pemerintah Australia <u>untuk</u> membatalkan eksekusi mati, Andrew Chan dan Myuran Sukumaran. (*There were various ways taken by the Australian Government <u>to</u> cancel the execution, Andrew Chan and Myuran Sukumaran) – Paragraph 1

There is also **a presupposition** element in this news, which is in Paragraph 3 *Lebih lanjut Kafrawi mengatakan, pihaknya khawatir jika hukuman mati tetap diberlakukan terhadap duo*

"Bali Nine" maka yang terjadi adalah permusuhan antara Australia dan Indonesia. (Furthermore, Kafrawi said he was worried if Indonesia still executed the duo "Bali Nine" then there would be hostility between Australia and Indonesia.)

2. Syntax

This news uses both **active and passive sentences**. For example, in the first sentence and second sentence of Paragraph 1:

Berbagai cara <u>ditempuh</u> oleh Pemerintah Australia untuk membatalkan eksekusi mati, Andrew Chan dan Myuran Sukumaran. (There were various ways <u>taken</u> by the Australian Government to cancel the execution, Andrew Chan and Myuran Sukumaran.)

Setelah cara diplomasi tak berhasil, Australia berusaha <u>membatalkan</u> eksekusi mati dengan <u>menggunakan</u> perantara tokoh Islam negeri Kangguru. (After unsuccessful diplomacy, Australia tried <u>to cancel</u> executions <u>by using</u> intermediaries Islamic figures in kangaroo country.) By looking at the sentence structure above, we can see that the reporter wanted the readers to focus on the efforts/ the ways that the Australian government had done to cancel the execution of Andrew Chan and Myuran Sukumaran.

3. Stylistics

There are some **rhetorics** elements in this news in form of a figure of speech.

negeri Kangguru (Kangaroo country) - Paragraph 1 *narkoba membawa bahaya yang sangat besar* (drug has a very great danger) – Paragraph 2 *tidak semua hukuman mati kami dukung*

(We do not support all death penalties.) – Paragraph 4 *narkoba sudah membunuh…* (drug has killed…)

2. Social Cognition Analysis

In Teun A. Van Dijk‟s point of view, discourse analysis is not limited to the structure of the text only. To uncover the hidden meaning of a text, we need a social cognition and a social context analysis. News can be used as a tool of social control. It means that news can affect public perceptions of events or particular parties reported. *Suara Merdeka* as one of the biggest media in Indonesia, especially in Central Java resulted in the news published by *Suara Merdeka* has considerable social control on society.

3. Social Context Analysis

After observing the analysis above, the writer can conclude that the news as a social control tool could provide an advantage which was to generate public opinions. News can also become a bridge of communication between the readers and the decision-maker. Therefore, the Indonesian citizens' opinions, help the Indonesian Government in taking a decision on a certain event, or in this case, was the death penalty case of the duo Bali Nine convicts. Media could help produce discourse and distributed it to the reader through their news.

Conclusion and Suggestion

1. Conclusion

In conclusion, the findings of this study can be summarized in the following ways:

a. These texts are able to explain the text structure well, such as the description of the background and the details of the overall texts.

By analyzing the text structure, it can help the writer to uncover the reporters' hidden purpose.

b. In the social cognition dimension mostly the reporters reported news about the various ways and the struggle that were done by the death-row inmates and the Australian government to cancel the execution of the convicts. However, those ways always lead to failure. In writing the news, the reporters did not exaggerate or speak badly about

c. From the text structure and the social cognition analyses, it can be seen that the reporter secretly and implicitly favored the Indonesian Government to implement the death penalty and asked the readers to agree too. However, the discourse about Bali Nine's built-in society (social context) raised the pros and cons.

2. Suggestions

The writer realized that this research had some limitations. Therefore, the writer proposes some suggestions for better research in the future:

a. The number of text news needs to be more in numbers in order to make the analysis more reliable.

b. If it is possible, the future research uses other data collection method such as an interview of the reporters who produce the text or people in the society. Therefore, we can improve social cognition, even though it is not always the case.

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CHAPTER IV

CONVERSATION ANALYSIS

Conversation analysis (hereinafter abbreviated as CA) is one approach to discourse analysis adopted from the discipline of sociology. The CA was pioneered by Harold Garfinkel, also known as the father of sociology. CA is rooted in the approach that has been developed previously, namely ethnomethodology which is influenced by the phenomenology of Alfred Schutz. However, it is different from other branches of sociology because CA is not analyzing social institutions themselves, but rather finding out how members of society form the nature of a social institution.

Conversation Analysis then is basically used to look at conversations and analyze what was said, why it was said and how it was said. CA then becomes a discipline that aims to explain the many intricacies and tacit knowledge deriving from the conversations. In most cases, everyone involved in a conversation understands what occurs during a conversation, but couldn't implicitly state why it happens that way or what social actions are being performed during the ongoing process of a conversation. Much of conversation analysis focuses on institutional interaction, how people communicate in different working environments such as lawyers in court, doctors and patients in a hospital, or teacher and students in the classroom settings, however, CA also concerns with even the most mundane and casual conversations.

In an analysis practice, the CA pays attention to the problems of social institutions and the way language works in shaping social institutions and the way social context shapes language. That is why CA is a specialist in disclosing social action manifested through conversations. CA is similar to communication ethnography in that both deal with human knowledge, however, CA has its own assumptions, methodologies (including terminology) and theoretical frameworks

Among the most generally investigatable aspects of conversation are 1. Turn-taking sequence, 2. Sequence organization, 3. Repairs, 4. Preference organization, 5. Pauses, 6. Overlaps, 7. Conversational floors.

When to use CA?

• Recurring patterns of talk -in- interaction: how the thing is done through it, how something is realized together with other participants who are doing what they are doing.

• Participants' orientations to relevant aspects of interaction which manifest through co-construction of meanings and what is characteristic to a particular institutional activity.

• Consequences of one type of action to action to what happens next within the interaction.

Three key questions deployed in the process of the CA analysis are:

1. Why that?
2. Why in that way?
3. Why in that particular context?

4.1 PEDAGOGICAL REFLEXIVITY IN THE INTERACTIONAL ORGANISATIONS OF ENGLISH CLASSES

Conversation analysis (CA) has increasingly been used to analyze classroom interaction in pursuit of understanding of whether the reflexivity resulted from the different pedagogical purposes differences in what language teachers and learners actually 'do' interactionally. This article reports the analysis of different classroom interactions differing in instructional focuses. The result suggests that different types of pedagogical purposes display differences of the elements of the interactional organization that comprise turn-taking pattern, sequence organization, repair works, and preference organization. The same conversational architectural machinery does not necessarily reflect the same or even similar pedagogical reflexivity as a result of the diversity of micro context and instructional focus of L2 instructions.

Keywords: *pedagogical reflexivity, pedagogical purposes, turn-taking patterns*

Introduction

Despite being relatively recent in its acceptance as one of the research methodologies, since its early introduction by trio Sack, Schegloff and Jefferson in the early 1970's in their seminal paper entitled '*The simplest systematics for the organization of turn-taking for conversation*' (see Sack, Schegloff and Jefferson 1974), CA has gained more and more prestige in the study of human interactions. Not only has it been used to uncover the social system inherent in ordinary conversations, as the predominant object of study, but it has also been extensively devised as a method to discover the machinery underlying various institutionally-based talk-in-interactions, including that of the classroom.

This paper attempts to investigate how pedagogical reflexivity emerges in the English class interactional organizations. In the forthcoming sections of discussion, I should like to start with an account of CA as a research method and underpin that CA is a viable method in disclosing how systematic the actions are performed in interactions. Further to it, I will present how the interactional organization is operating in the classroom context (as being goal-oriented), explicate how systematic and didactic the actions are performed, and eventually show how pedagogical reflexivity is manifested within the organization of classroom interaction. As the classroom data are analyzed, I will try to reveal how the pedagogical focus in different classroom contexts is linked to the interactional organization of the classroom from which turn-taking, sequence and repair as its architectural apparatus are manifested. In addition, code-switching, as one phenomenon observable in the database, will also be discussed.

CA as a method to investigate L2 interaction

It is an undeniable fact that CA as a method of research in L2 classroom settings has gained wider recognition among ESL/EFL researchers. Irrespective of the remaining pervasive misconceptions among researchers devising CA (see Seedhouse, 2004), the move towards the future use of CA is salient. The works on CA-based approach have been flourishing in a large array of fields ranging from Courtroom Interaction (Atkinson & Drew, 1979), Medical Area (Heritage Maynard, 2005) to among the most recent research on Media Broadcasting (Hutchby, 2006), as well as Internet-based interactions (Jepson, 2005; Simpson, 2005). Like them, through perseverant dedication and tireless efforts, Seedhouse has made a substantial contributions to establishing CA as a vigorous research method in the study of the language used in various classroom interactions (see Seedhouse, 1997, 1998, 1999, 2004, and 2005).

The recognition and acceptance by researchers sharing the interest in L2 classroom interaction are not incidental and without reasons. Guided by three fundamental assumptions that interaction is structurally organized; contributions to interaction are contextually oriented; and on the 'a priori' presumption that no detail of interaction can be dismissed or ignored as being disorderly, irrelevant or incidental (Heritage, 1984, p.151). They all stand on a common ground that the reality of classroom interaction always makes up orderly shared actions. They gain support from Schegloff who asserts that CA is capable of portraying and explicating the intersubjectively and socially distributed cognitions progressing in the classroom (Schegloff, 1991 in

Seedhouse, 2005) and believe that there is an inextricable connectivity between pedagogical focus and interactants' actions in an interaction which leaves a unique 'fingerprint' that is different from other institutional interactions (cf. Drew and Heritage, 1992b).

Another important point to recogn ize is how CA as a research method works. Interactants in a conversation are guided by both context-free and context-sensitive machinery in their talk progression. In this regard Seedhouse (2005, p.3) posits that 'the organizations are part of the context-free machinery which people make use to orient themselves in indexical interaction, i.e. we employ them in a context-sensitive way'. On that basis, Drew's and Heritage's (1992b, p.19) assertion that "CA embodies a dynamic approach in which context is treated as both the project and product of the participants' own action" is of high relevance.

In devising CA as a method, the major attention is to find out the machinery of the interaction traceable through the sequence and the structure of the talk, as through it the meaningful social actions and the natural organization of interaction can be interpreted (Psathas, 1995). Social actions are manifested in turn-taking practices performed by interactants in talk-in-interaction which according to Schegloff (2000) express features of social life that are deeply embedded in ordinary common-sense practice. There are three choices of questions underlying any description of action which provide clues pertaining to how the description is to be interpreted (Heritage, 1984, p. 150). They are 1. why that (this encapsulates perspective of interaction as action), 2. Why in that way (which is expressed by means of linguistic forms), and 3. Why

right now (verifiable through the developing sequence) (also see Seedhouse, 2004).

Now that the actions in an interaction are interpreted, the interactional organization can also be determined. By finding out the interactional organization of an L2 classroom, the production of teacher-students and student-student social actions as well as what signify the actions can be established (see Seedhouse, 2005). Each action that makes up an interactional organization of classroom talk is governed by both context-free machinery that is usable to orient indexically to the next turn of interaction and at the same time bound to context-sensitive machinery by which participants are able to make sense of the interlocutors' action. It is through these two intertwined contexts that the social actions in talk-in-interaction can be understood and verified (ibid).

This should be evident by now that actions performed in the classroom context are systematic and methodic. Thus, the adoption of CA as a method of inquiry finds its strong ground. Following the above, as well as considering Nagretti (1999) that turn-organization is inherent in any form of conversational transaction, and through it the development of action can be unfolded, CA should be the readily and justifiably an accepted vehicle to uncover how reflexivity performed a language classroom activity.

Interactional organization of L2 Interaction

An L2 classroom constitutes a unique social structure within which social actions are undertaken and performed. As a social structure, L2 classroom can be seen both as a setting for action and as the 'situ' where the social action is to be realized (Arminen, 2005). Its

uniqueness makes it different from other institutional interactions as it makes up of its own interactional architecture which in order to disclose it, following Seedhouse (2004, p. 183), we should identify its core goal, i.e. that the teacher will teach the learners the L2 and students should learn the language. Again it is unique in that the core goal remains unchanged no matter where the L2 lesson takes place and what the pedagogical framework is used by the teacher, even in the case when the role of the teacher is delegated to the learners (ibid). This, in the end, makes it a distinctive interactional feature incomparable to other institutional interactional features.

According to Seedhouse (2004, pp. 183-184), there are three distinctive features underlying characteristics of ELT discourse applicable to all L2 classrooms, i.e:

1. Language is both the vehicle and the object of instruction.

2. There is a reflexive relationship between pedagogy and interaction.

3. The linguistic forms and patterns of interaction which the learners produce are subject to evaluation by the teacher.

The three features above can be further delineated as follows. First, in an L2 classroom where interactions take place, language plays a dual role, as a vehicle and as an object, making the classroom interaction a unique interactional enterprise (see Seedhouse, 2004). To put it another way, language serves as both a means and an end of the interaction. Second, the reflexive feature manifests in the way the linguistic forms and patterns of interaction are linked to the pedagogical purposes which the teacher introduces throughout the ongoing process of the

instruction. During the progression of the classroom, as observable through turn-taking, both teacher and learner will from time to time display their analysis of the relationship between pedagogy and interaction. Seedhouse (2004, pp. 184-187) further illustrates, 'as the pedagogical focus varies, so does the organization of the interaction". Third, unlike other contexts of teaching, the linguistics forms and patterns of interaction in the L2 are subject to evaluation by the teacher (ibid). However, it does not necessarily mean that every utterance made in every turn by the learners has to be assessed in terms of appropriateness of meaning or accuracy of form. From previous research, evaluation is generally made only if the language production is rationally deviant from the intended pedagogical focus.

As repeatedly argued in various CA literature, every talk-in-interaction is, by nature, contextual leading to achieving the shared goals. But unlike ordinary conversation, classroom interaction is characterized by institutional goal-orientation and the interaction is organized in a way leading to the attainment of classroom interactional goals. The progression of classroom interaction is, thereby, made up of the co-constructed actions to achieve instructional goals. Here is where context plays a paramount role in the completion of the actions. Each action in the progression of interaction is bound to adhere to both context-shaped and context-renewing principles (Heritage, 1984). The former refers to the idea that contributions would not be adequately understood unless they have reference to the context where they occur, whilst the latter refers to the notion that each action will in itself constitutes a new context where the next sequential action will be formed and understood (see Seedhouse, 2004). Thus, the whole

mechanism within an L2 interactional organization will vary depending on the 'social dynamic'(ibid) in which a particular sequence of the talk will manifest. As a consequence, all interactional components, i.e. adjacency pairs, turn-taking patterns, repair work, preference organization will work on the basis of what (Seedhouse (2004) termed as 'the match and mismatch' mode.

On the above basis, through the sections to come, some typologies of classroom interactional organization will be discussed by looking into the pedagogical focus. Then, the organization of turn-taking, the sequence and the repair work are scrutinized in their relationships with it. Through this way, we will be able to see how pedagogical reflexivity emerges from within.

Methodology

Data

The data used as the object of analysis were taken from 4 out of 7 different lessons given to Norwegian students. Each lesson has separate sub-lessons focusing on different goals conducted in different classrooms. For space reason, not all data are taken for analysis but rather only some extracts relevant to the purpose of analysis are chosen. Each extract taken will be put under certain headings representing different classroom pedagogical focuses. By so doing, it will clarify that talk-in-interaction happening in one single institutional context may manifest itself in different sub-varieties of context and thereby, reconfirming Seedhouse's and Richards' (2007) assertion that "each of the sub-varieties has its own peculiar institutional aim and appropriate interactional organization in terms of turn-taking, repair, etc.".

Table 4. 1.Data sampling information

The data set is taken from Norwegian Data (Seedhouse 1995b)

Lesson	Classroom activities	Extract used
1	(group and whole class discussion of a text on American immigration)	2
2	(group and whole class discussion of a literary text)	1
3	(coursebook work on a text about Australia, with some pair work)	1
4	(group discussion of paintings)	1
5	(vocabulary work including colouring, bingo and pair work)	0
6	(glove puppet work, singing, games)	0
7	(coursebook work on a text about Captain Cook, with translation and pair work)	0

Data Analysis

For the purpose of this study, all data are scrutinized inductively on the basis of the parameter of the CA set for the investigation. Considering that the focus of the investigation of this classroom extract is to find out the machinery of the classroom interaction as reflected by its interactional organization, the analysis will try to disclose the social actions traceable through turn-taking organization, repair works, preference organization, topic, and sequence relevant to the analyzed extracts. I should make it clear from the onset that what is meant by organization is dissimilar with

the general concept of identifying the quantity of occurrence of actions that are generally understood within quantitative SLA research tradition, but rather whether, as evidently shown in the data, each category of action performed by both students and teacher reflectively orients to the attainment of the pedagogic-institutional goals. Analysis, thereby, should try to be consistently noticing the production of social actions deployed as a reference point for the interpretation of the interactants' actions (see Ustunel & Sedhouse, 2005). It is important to reiterate that in the foregoing sections, I should like to make explicit the evidence of the reflective relationship between the social moves performed by each interactant and their link to the pedagogical goals.

Extract 1: Focus on meaning and fluency (student group discussion)

1   L1:   explain the difference between the melting-pot and the salad bowl
2   ideas.
3   L2:   I thought it was the same.
4   L1:   yeah me too.
5   LL: (laugh)
6   L1:   the difference is that.., .., .., in the salad bowl there they melt or=
7   L2:   mix
8   L1:   =mixed all culture groups.
9   L2:   and meltingpot that's like whole America together with=
10 L1:   yeah?
11 L2:   =ethnic groups and melted
12 L3:   *eg fatter ikkje forskjellen.* ((tr: I don't get the difference))
13 L1:   the problem is that the religion is not mixed in the saladbowl and and

14 L3:   =do they have their own ... they keep their religion?

15 L1:   yeah in the saladbowl.

16 L2:   we're trying the difference between the meltingpot and the saladbowl.

17 T: oh that's interesting. cause we can make spend time on that later on

18 L2:   ((unintelligible))

19 T: yeah well I think so too, and that's why you have to to read it several

20   really get into it.

21 L1:   yeah I think so.

22 T: you can't just read through it ((unintelligible 2 sec)) because these this

23   information is really heavy thing.

24 L1:   e:r the difference is it is it big is it the difference between the
            melting-pot and

25   the   saladbowl is it many differences?

26 T: no if I'm going to say it very very shortly just in a few sentences I would

27   that meltingpot-idea is that everybody who comes there with their

28   different background and culture they mix in a way so that they in the

29   become the typical   American. that's the meltingpot-idea. e:r or the

30   American. and the saladbowl if you have seen a saladbowl especially a

31   saladbowl of glass and you have all the   ingredients into it you see

32   colour, red color, yellow, you see all the   ingredients e mixing in a

33   but keeping their e:r flavor and characteristics.

34 L1:   I see.

35 L2:   they don't change.

Extract 1 is taken from Lesson 1a group1 where the context is a student workgroup in which the topic brought down is the difference between the idea of the melting pot and salad bowl. The turn organization is focusing on the expression of personal meaning and

on promoting fluency (Seedhouse 2004, p. 111). The pedagogical focus is on the speakers' expression of personal meaning and on the contribution of new information to the language classroom. So the turn-taking pattern is ultimately an incremental adding up contribution by group members leading to an understanding of the difference between the two ideas above. The sequence of the interaction is randomly distributed among the members of the group depending on the contribution made and personal meaning raised by each individual person.

Repair works, as can be seen on (lines 7, 12 and 14), are particularly intended to establish mutual understanding and negotiating meaning. Since the pedagogical context of this interaction is meaning and fluency, it becomes obvious that form production mistake or inaccuracy of grammar is undermined. However, though it is not particularly a linguistic form correction, line 7 is specific in that it is intended to be a lexical correction for the mistake made by L1. S/he tries to show that the word '*mix*' is a more appropriate word to substitute '*melt*'. This type of correction is necessary for the interactants to come across the meaning correctly and to get the context of interaction back on track.

By and large, the extract above can be further analyzed into the following. The group discussion was begun by L1 reading a statement written on the book asking the students to differentiate between the idea of salad bowl and melting pot. Both L1 and L2 shared the same previous understanding that both ideas were the same. However, albeit sharing the same agreement (see line 3, 4), right after LL laugh, L1 began to doubt his/her previous understanding, as s/he clearly displays it through his assertion that there must be a difference

between the two ideas. With a little hesitation showing his short of understanding about saladbowl, he said *'....... in the saladbowl there they melt on='* preceded by a pause (0.9 seconds) indicating uncertainty. In the suitable transition relevant place, L2 notices the doubt as proven by another initiated repair *'mix'* instead of *'melt'* which makes L1 self-repair *'= mix all culture groups'*. Feeling that his repair initiation is taken by L1, L2 gets the ground to suggest the idea of what melting pot is (see line 9). However, following L2's account of what melting pot is, L1 and L3 display disaffiliated action indicating disagreement with L2's opinion. Albeit without delay of utterance, by saying *'yeah?'* (rising intonation) response, as generally indicative in dispreferred responses, L1 indicates his doubt about L2's opinion and so does L3 by expressing his explicit disagreement. Without trying to mitigate his response, L1 reacts to L2's statement by answering *'I don't get the difference'* in Norwegian, an example of Code-Switching intended to ask for clarification (see Ustunel and Seedhouse, 2005). So it is evident here that together L1 and L3 are co-orienting their shared disagreement to L2's unclear point. Further to that stage, each of them takes turn by proposing their reasons for their disagreements, i.e. L1 expresses her/his negative (disaffiliated) statement' *the problem is that the religion is not mixed in the saladbowl and it it'* (line 13) as another repair initiation which is then followed by other repair (line 15) *'yeah in the saladbowl'* while L3 expresses disagreement (line 12) and then proposes a question (line 14) *'=do they have their own ... they keep their religion?'*. Here, as shown by the extract, it becomes self-evident that preference organization comes into play in a group discussion involving agreement and disagreement.

The next important point to make here is how pedagogical focus relates to the above agreement and disagreement moves displayed by the students in determining the difference between the idea of saladbowl and meltingpot. The extract points out that a group discussion involving students above ends up with a dead-end, as unfortunately none of them has a correct answer to the debated ideas. In response to the unresolved puzzle, having heard from L2's appeal on how complicated it was to explain the difference, the teacher turns up with a brilliant approach mitigating the tension by iterating that such an issue is hard to discuss and that this can only be understood after the group discussion is properly undertaken. In this extract, however, the puzzle is resolved after L1 asks the teacher how much difference between the two ideas is which is finally responded to by the teachers. The reason for doing that can be argued as an inseparable part of the pedagogical purpose set by the teacher which at the same time is reflecting teachers' reflexivity in response to students' interaction stagnation. Rather than interrupting the debate or providing the answer early on, the teacher lets the students try to orient to one-another's co-participative meaning-searching and meaning-making. This characterizes a meaning-focused pedagogical goal that has been successfully achieved by both teachers and students. Thereby, the final turn taken by L1 and L2 above is a display of understanding in co-constructing meaning and the whole set of interactionwhich signals the high degree of reflexivity between interaction and pedagogical purposes, as clearly indicated through its turn-taking, repair work and preference organization. By then it is right for Levinson to suggest that "the structural organization of institutional talk is

rationally and functionally adapted to the point or goal of the activity in question" (Levinson, 1992 in Seedhouse and Richards, 2005).

Extract 2: Focus on meaning and fluency (teacher-led discussion)

Lesson 1b

Lesson 1b (the same class after the break) was a teacher- led discussion on exactly the same subject as lesson 1a (workgroup discussion).

1 T: yeah, but you and you also eh when eh if you go as far back as when I eh

2   listened to that kind of mu-music, when the Beatles eh went to America,

3   they   said that it was impossible for a European group to have a breakthrough

4   in the United States. so that I think they were the first who who really made

5   a success of their music in in America. and eh: well one of them still lives

6   there. doesn't he? or may be two? and also, oh eh::…,…, what do what do they

7   call the other very great rock group from my youth?

8 L4: Stones?

9   T: yes, the Rolling Stones, also they have had a success, and I think they also

10   live in America today if I am not totally mistaken.

11 L1: Oh, but now you have a lot of different groups from all over the country.

12   T:yes. that's right. …,…, eh:: so, would you say that diversity is reflected its

13   political and cultural institutions then?

14 LL: yes.

15   T: really?

16   L: yeah, in the cultural, not in the political.

17   T: not in the political. should we agree on that?

18   LL: ///yes///

Extract 2 is taken from Lesson 1b where the context is a teacher- led discussion bringing in the same topic previously discussed in groups. The setting of the class is no more group discussion but rather a classroom plenary one. The major aim of this discussion is to highlight the previous topic of discussion that was not properly understood by the students. The turn organization of this extract is focusing on meaning and fluency. As always, in such pedagogical focus, the expression of personal meaning is noticed by students (see line 8, 11, 14, 16, 18) and teacher (see the rest). On the whole, it looks like that the teacher is dominating the interaction, but such kind of domination is common in a typically teacher-led discussion, especially if this is to make sure that the issue raised in group discussion has been thoroughly discussed and understood by the learners. Even so, as evident from the extract, the pedagogical focus is still on the speakers' expression of personal meaning and on the contribution of new information to the classroom members. While in extract 1 the teacher was simply a pseudo-participant, in this extract (2), by contrast, the teacher takes a major role in the discussion. So, it is rationally understandable why the turn-taking pattern transforms into a question and answer turn, orienting to a topic comprehension check. The sequence of the interaction is equally distributed interchangeably by one to one, a T-L-T-L sequence. This reconfirms the notion that the micro context in which an interaction takes place will determine the type of interaction. In spite of the identical pedagogic focus as shown by extract 1 and extract 2 above (which are both focusing on meaning and fluency),

the product of interaction is dissimilar as a result of the context differences.

As it is evident in line 8, a repair initiation is made by L4 when s/he notices that the teacher is stuck with a forgotten name. An approximately 10 second pause preceding the teacher's appeal for assistance in recalling the forgotten name of the rock group is understood by L4 as a potential trouble that makes him propose an other-initiated repair which is followed by the teacher's self-repair. In various literature, the teacher tends to initiate repair, in particular where the form and accuracy are the focus of pedagogy, but it does not seem to be the case in extract 2 above. This may be argued that repair initiation does not necessarily come from the teacher especially when the focus is meaning and fluency where new information and personal contribution are the centre of pedagogy. Using a logical common sense, the trouble of communication can happen anywhere and can be made by anyone, including by the teacher.

In this extract, a teacher starts by asking the students if music could be a means by which American immigrants integrate themselves into the context of American diversity. It is obvious from the extract that the opportunity in which students can share their personal meanings is wide open. It is indicative in the extract that students are able to contribute and nominate their own information concerning the issue raised in the discussion. Being uncertain about the name of the musician, the teacher tried to throw it to the floor and no sooner did s/he do it, L4 responded to him/her by saying '*Stones?*' (which at the same time functions as a repair initiation) proposing if the name of the group intended by the teacher is Rolling Stones. This response is an evidence that L4 understands the name to whom the teacher is

orienting. The response was not made as a result of the teacher's nomination but rather of the student's self-analysis of the previous move by the teacher. Following L4, L1 contributes his ideas that there are many more music groups from different parts of the world to orient to the idea of diversity which is amended by the teacher by saying '*yes that's right'*.

Again, as indicated in the turn-taking, the classroom interactional focus of instruction now is on meaning instead of form. The teacher's role in building up the moves leading to it is indicative through his consistent effort to lead the student's understanding yo the idea of diversity. The teacher's question '*would you say that diversity is reflected in its political and cultural institutions then?'* (line 12 and 13) following his/her agreement to L1 contribution, is evidence of such a role, as unless s/he does that, the students' understanding about the idea of diversity may not be properly understood. The choral answer by LL '*yes'* (line 14) which was then followed by teacher's confirmation request '*really?'* (line 15) provides students with an impetus to be more critical about which aspect of diversity is manifested within the life of American people. By so doing, which is then responded by L (see line 16) saying '*yeah, in the cultural, not in the political'*, students understand that diversity is shown through the cultural expression but not in politic. The final checking by the teacher's question '*should we agree on that?'* (line 17) results in once again the second LL's choral response '*yes'* (in line 18) which is different from the previous '*yes'*. This finding confirms the assertion that CA is capable of portraying and explicating the progress of intersubjectivity or socially distributed cognition (Schegloffs, 1991).

Finally, unlike in the form and accuracy focus where the teacher and students are in asymmetrical position, in meaning and fluency, as accountable through the turn-taking pattern, sequence, as well as the repair works of the above extract, the teacher co-exists in an equal position with students. In the former, the teacher allocates turn by turn progression to make sure that students produce correct language forms as the predetermined pedagogical goal. In the latter by contrast, as indicative in the extract, regardless of how knowledgeable the teacher is about the topic of discussion, s/he tries to expose herself/himself as being in a symmetrical position with the students.

Extract 3: Focus on form and accuracy

Lessons 3i and 3ii are two consecutive 45 minute lessons involving the same teacher covering the same material with two different classes (each with about 10 students . Both classes are Ungdomsskole 8th grade and the students are aged 13-14 years.

Lesson 3i:

1   T: page sixteen two A .. how strange.. (student's name) would you be so kind as to

2   start reading?

3   L: a cry of help .. Tasmanian fishermen could hardly believe their eyes yesterday

4   afternoon .. suddenly at least fifty dolphins started jumping and diving around

5   their boat the blue sea .. the six foot long animals started making loud whistling

6   noises .. obviously they wanted something

7   T: thank you can you decide the next one to go on

8   L: (student's name)

9   L: the blue sea followed the dolphins until they reacheed

10   T: reached reached

11   L: a booyoy

12 LL: (laugh)

13   T: a buoy a buoy it's pronounced a buoy

14   L: a buoy.. there they found a baby dolphin caught in the fishing net .. it must have

15   swum into it hungry for fish and crayfish the captain said later .. when the men

16   set it free the intelligent dolphins whistled to thank them

17   T: yes (student's name) words here could you repeat intelligent

18   L: intelligent

19   T: and whistled

20   L: whistled

21   T: a living toy the next one (student's name)

22   L: Melvin Stacey an assist..

23   T: an assistant

24   L: at the toyshop in Adelaide got the shock of his life yesterday .. as he was

25   down a two foot teddy bear from one of the she..

26   T: one of the shelves

27   L: shelves it bit his finger .. somebody had put a live koala bear up there, far

28   from its natural home among the [yore]..

29   T: eucalyptus eucalyptus

30   L: it must have=

31 T: = can you say eucalyptus eucalyptus?

32 L: eucalyptus

Extract 3 is taken from Lesson 3i where the context is teacher-fronted reading and pronunciation for accuracy. The pedagogical focus of this interaction is on form and accuracy. The teacher's dominant role typifies the interaction in which s/he is tightly in control of the interaction in order for the students to produce an accurate form of the language. The turn-taking organization is also very much directed by the teacher. The teacher allocates turn by turn progression to a specific student by mentioning name by whom a certain linguistic form should be produced within the criteria of accuracy set by the teacher. Despite the existence of one single opportunity for a student to allocate the turn to another student (see line 8), it does not mean that the teacher wishes to shift the pedagogical focus from form to meaning and fluency. Still, the student does it after the teacher asks him/her to do so. S/he is nominating only after being nominated. Thus, again the above finding validates Seedhouse (2004, p 104), i.e. if the pedagogical focus is exclusively on the linguistic form, the organization is necessarily formal and strongly constrained within a quite sharply defined procedure. As evident in the extract, unless students produce correct reading and pronunciation, the teacher is strictly bound to impose on their production of the correct form of pronunciation. This can saliently be observable through different turns (see lines 10, 13, 17, 19, 29, and 31). Such a stern and strict form focus definitely affects the sequence of the conversation which is typically teacher-led. So, the sequence predominantly looks like this. The teacher nominates student, the student conducts a

language activity, the teacher gives feedback of mistake and finally, the student makes corrections (in a rigid T-L-T-L sequence). In other words, the predominant sequence organization is a teacher fronted adjacency pair.

As a consequence of such a pedagogical focus, repair works found in the above extract is mostly orienting to the production and reproduction of the correct and accurate form of pronunciation. Repair initiations are repeatedly made by the teacher, mainly intended to make the student aware of the importance of producing a correct form of language. The repairs, as it is evident in lines 10, 13, 17, 19, 29, and 31, are typically correctional kinds of repair (mistake repairs as opposed to non-mistake repairs) which are meant to correct the mistakes produced by the students. There are two types of repair initiation worth noting here, as being specific, i.e. those found in line 23 and line 27. Line 23 is a typical trajectory of other initiated move ending up with no repair, whilst, line 26 followed by line 27 follows a repair trajectory of other initiated self-repair. So, again as the teacher's pedagogical focus is a string of linguistic form productions by the learners, the repair work initiation is always made by the teacher when learner's production deviates from the pedagogical focus.

The relationship between pedagogy and interaction demonstrated in the above extract can be further explained this way. The teacher starts by introducing the purpose of the activity which is understood by a student whose name is nominated by the teacher to start reading. Being aware that there is no mistake indicative in the L's reading, the teacher rewards him/her with 'thank' before giving him/her a chance to select another student to take the next turn of

reading. Unlike the previous student, this student who has just been doing his turn produces inaccurate pronunciation of *'reached'* that makes the teacher offer him/her a correctional repair initiation twice which is unfortunately ruled out. Instead of correcting L (line 16) carried on speaking and produced another inaccurate pronunciation *'buyoy'* instead of *'buoy'*. This time with the second offer of repair initiation, this student produces correction. Once again, since the student does not produce the expected language form, the teacher chooses to firmly re-establish the focus by producing two further models of pronunciation (intelligent and whistled) to be repeated by the student. Further to that point, the teacher's role remains the same, i.e. strictly noticing if other students also produce inaccurate forms. Once inaccurate form is produced, s/he plays her/his role as a whistle-blower and initiates correction.

No matter how irritating it might be for the students, the teacher keeps on going with her/his consistent role to over and over again re-establish the pedagogical attention. At the same time student also over and over again tries to re-orient to such pedagogical purpose by trying to produce the correct form of language. In other words, turn-taking sequence is predominantly student's form production followed by either reward if it is correct or correct model of pronunciation to be repeated if a mistake is spotted.

Extract 4: Focus on meaning and form combined

Lesson 2

A double lesson (90 minutes in total) with a 2nd year videregaende skole English literature class. The text under discussion is J.B. Priestley's "An Inspector Calls".

The first half of the double lesson will be called Lesson 2a.

The second half of the doublelesson will be called Lesson 2b.

1   T: all these aspects come into the word style ..., how does the writer or the speakers

2   in the play express themselves? (5 sec pause) then we come to symbols, what is

3   a symbol (5 sec pause) oh come on! what's a symbol? ..., give an example

4   symbol!

5   L: ((cough))

6   T: John?

7 L12: the cross

8   T: the cross! what's the cross a symbol for?

9 L12: Christianity

10 T: yes

11 L: ((unintelligible 1 sec))

12 T: other well-known symbols? Anders?

13 L5: red light

14 T: a symbol for?

15 L5:   you have to stop in the traffic

16 T: danger! ...,..., other symbols?

17 L: a [dowe -dov]

18 T: a dove!

19 L: peace

20 T: a symbol of peace! good .., Lisa!

21 L8: a four-leaved clover for good luck

22 L: ((cough))

23 T: a four-leaved clover for good luck

24 L: ((cough))

25 T: what about a heart? what's that a symbol of? Herman?

26 L13: love

27 T: love ..., ok, then you know what a symbol is! anything which would signify

28   something else ...,..., symbols are often used in a particular sort of literature ...,

29   which? (5 sec pause) novels? ..., plays? ...,..., poetry? ...,...,..., you find

30   ...,..., in poetry, and you find it in art generally, painting ...,..., yes ...,..., the

31   of a text ...,..., is the moral or the philosophical idea conveyed by a literary text

Extract 4 is taken from Lesson 2 English Literature Class. The pedagogic focus, as set early on by the teacher, is on meaning. As has been argued in the previous literature (for example Seedhouse, 2004), the characteristic of such a pedagogical focus is primarily the contribution of personal meanings to the interaction. The interaction may be termed as focusing on meaning if learners contribute new information to the progressing interaction and on fluency if the learners nominate and contribute personally meaningful information. It is evident from the teacher's first turn when s/he starts with the need to explicate the word style and symbol which is then turn-by-turn responded to by student with word or phrases signifying meanings. In this particular context, the teacher nominates a student to contribute some different kinds of symbols and explicate what they mean. Just right in the middle of the turn-taking progression (line 18), however, the teacher without necessarily fully

shifting the focus from meaning into a new focus of form and accuracy digresses into form focus. Such a phenomenon can be called an example of meaning and form focus-combined rather than fully a meaning-focused or simultaneously meaning and form focused-combined. Needless to say that such a combination is not implausible though it is not a pretty common case.

As encapsulated by Seedhouse (1997), such a simultaneous dual focus can be established as follows: first, the interaction is focused on meaning but if the linguistic errors are made by the students, they are corrected rather than ignored. Considering that linguistic form mistake is something that needs to be corrected in addition to exchanging meaning, the interaction above qualifies to be called as a dual focus interaction. As the interaction begins to take a shape, the teacher nominates the student to contribute his/her understanding of symbol by naming it and what each signifies. Four students in four different turns (lines 7, 13, 17, and 21) nominate different kinds of symbols and contribute to the running of the interaction by proposing personally meaningful information about what the symbols mean (lines 9, 15, 19, 21, and 26). At this point, it is obvious that the focus of interaction is on meaning. Right in the middle of the turn-taking progression, however, a student (L) inaccurately pronounces 'a dove' by saying 'a dowe – dov' which the teacher notices as a potential source of trouble in the undergoing progression of talk that eventually makes her/him initiate correction (a type of repair) to put thing right. By so doing, s/he helps make other students correctly come across the example of sign and its meaning. To put it simply, such an action may be termed as co-constructing meaning. Having completed the turn and been aware that the students are cognisant about the idea of symbols and what

they signify, s/he rounds it up by explicating where the symbols can generally be found.

In general, the turn-taking type is a typical question and answer where the teacher initiates questions in order to attract student's contribution to the interaction. Such a kind of turn-taking is common in meaning focus only but may not be in fluency focus only. The typical question and answer sequence as indicated in the extract above could be one common characteristic of classroom interaction where the meaning contribution is highlighted. This what makes it different from meaning and fluency focus combined. The emphasis of the above pedagogical focus is for the student to be able to nominate and contribute new information relevant to their personal knowledge. In contrast, focus on fluency is mostly typified by a self-managed interaction, usually among students. Once again context is of prime importance in understanding reflexivity between pedagogy and interaction. By way of understanding such a context of turn-taking, we can understand it as a means of achieving the pedagogical goals. (Levinson, 1979: 384). Through the question-answer sequence initiated by the teacher, both students and teachers are together to co-construct actions leading to goal achievement.

Conclusion

We have thoroughly discussed four different extracts representing different classroom pedagogic focuses. In spite of the same macro context of occurrence, i.e. L2 classrooms, viewed from its micro-context, each of the classroom interactions has its own characteristics of the interactional organization. As the pedagogical goals vary, so do the interactional organization and it is in the micro

context that the idea of reflexivity between interaction and pedagogic focuses manifests. Although sharing the same pedagogical focus, extract 1 and 2 are dissimilar. Extract 3 and 4 have sequence organizations which are similar in common but they are different in pedagogical focus. So, they have all validated the notion that the L2 classroom is indeed unique. Seeing through the different types of pedagogical purposes we managed to see the differences of the elements of the interactional organization that comprise turn-taking pattern, sequence organization, repair works, and preference organization. The same conversational architectural machinery does not necessarily reflect the same or even similar pedagogical reflexivity as a result of the diversity of micro context and instructional focus of L2 instructions. Finally, it validates the proposition that L2 interaction has a unique feature that is different from any other institutional interaction.

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4.2 CONTRASTIVE CA: TURN ORGANISATIONS OF TEXT-BASED VS SOUND-BASED CMC

Alongside with the Information and Communication Technology (ICT), Conversation Analysis (CA) research on human interaction developed robust analytical tools to identify and understand the unique interactional resources which are available to users in technologically mediated contexts. This is a report of the study comparing the tern organizations beyween text-based and Sound-based CMC, using ethnomethodological approach as the prime principle in a CA study. From the analysis, we have seen that the two modes of the Internet chat indicate the distinctive features which are typical in each of its categories. The contrastive features listed in the table above make up of its own characteristics that differentiate one mode from the other.

Keywords: *CMC, ICT, Conversation Analysis, Turn Organization*

Introduction

Research interest in CMC has gained enormous popularity in recent years. Different researchers have tried to look into different aspects of CMC phenomena. To mention among a few are Herring (1999), Nagretti (1999), Simpson (2005), Jepson (2005), Okuyama (2005), Greenfield & Subrahmanyam (2003), Smith & Gorsuch (2004). Their researches, without doubt, have contributed to the opening up this particularly under-researched area of the newly-invented technology that provides a new human communication environment. In spite of some handful of researches, the one whose nature is comparative is still hardly found. The one conducted, for instance, by Jepson (2005) was focusing on the comparative quantitative and brief qualitative account on repair moves between two NNS groups chatting online. Researches or articles comparing turn organizations found on two different modes of online conversation, i.e. text-based and voice-based chats, to the best of my knowledge is never conducted before.

Due to the reasons above, through the following limited amount of inquiry data I am trying to look into two short extracts of conversation taken from two different online chatting modes. The first extract is the typical synchronous text-based CMC and the second is the sound based CMC. The primary focus of this succinct investigation is to compare the two types of CMC in the light of the Conversation Analysis perspective, by which an effort would be invested to find out if there are some distinctive features that contrast them in terms of their turn organizations.

Method

The adoption of CA as the method of this inquiry is grounded on the belief that social actions are meaningful and have natural organization that can be discovered and analyzed (Psathas, 1995). Social actions are manifested in turn-taking practices performed by interactants in talk-in-interaction which according to Schegloff (2000) expresses features of social life that are deeply embedded in ordinary common-sense practice.

On their comparative study of SMS text messaging, Hutchby and Tanna (2008) used sequential organization terms to mean how text message exchanges can be built up into a more extended series of turns. More specifically, Schegloff (2000) refers to it as an organizational device that would allow parties to achieve the design feature of a one-party-at-a-time principle. I use turn organization term in lieu of sequential organization which by its very basic nature has a similar meaning. I, however, slightly expand it covering a bit broader area of how turns in interaction are constructed or managed in what is so-called interaction management as proposed by Herring (1999), covering the area of overlaps and disrupted turn adjacency as manifested in the degree of sequential coherence (Herring, 1999); a term which is defined by Cook (1989) as "the property of being unified and meaningful". Using this approach I should like to try to reveal how turn organization is constructed and managed in both types of dialogue.

Following the above as well as considering Nagretti (1999) that through turn organization the development of action can be unfolded and that turn-organization is inherent in any form of conversational transaction, I consider that CA should be the most

readily and justifiably accepted approach to investigate such a phenomenon. The major attention to which the analysis is going to be given is finding out the machinery of the discourse traceable through the sequence and the structure of the talk and that through it the meaning of the social actions can be interpreted (Psathas, 1995).

A. Text-based chat extract analysis

This chat was taken from the Nice Room on November 28 November 2008, at 10:18

The chat involved 4 people: Little Antonov, Fairy, Stevo 1985, Silver Shadow

1. <u>Silver_shadow</u>: hi

2. <u>Silver_shadow</u>: hi everyone

3. <u>stevo1985</u>: and drifted into a concreate bollard

4. <u>LittleAntonov</u>: jeezuz

5. <u>Silver_shadow</u>: i said hi 😎

6. <u>fairy</u>: damn...thats bad

7. <u>stevo1985</u>: at 50mph

8. <u>Silver_shadow</u>: you are so polite

9. <u>LittleAntonov</u>: jeez

10. <u>fairy</u>: not so fast

11. <u>LittleAntonov</u>: hr silver

12. <u>LittleAntonov</u>: hey

13. <u>Silver_shadow</u>: hey

14. <u>Silver_shadow</u>: at last

15. <u>fairy</u>: but yet u manged to lol

16. <u>Silver_shadow</u>: lolz

17. <u>fairy</u>: at last?

Viewed from the organization of the interaction using criteria made by Herring (1999), the extract above can be said to have a lack of coherence characteristics. She posited that in a normal spoken conversation, the transition from one speaker to the next is supposed to take place with no or minimum gap, and no overlap between speakers (Herring, 1999). Following Schegloff and Sack, 1973), two major features of conversation coherence are the notion of sequential relevance and its turn construction. It is apparent from the extract that each turn is joined as follows: (turn 1, 2 to turn 11 and 12) or (line 5, 8 to line 11 and 12), (turn 3 to 4 and 6), (turn 7 to 9, 10 and 15), (turn 12 to 13), (turn 14 to turn 17). This is confirming Simpson's finding (2005) that the lack of fine-tuning in CMC turn-taking is the responsibility of two fundamental facts of 1) turns cannot be seen until they are sent and 2) the visual and auditory cues which normally present in the spoken discourse underpin the turn-taking system are missing. The data also prove true what has been theorized by Schegloff (2006) in Hutchby and Tanna (2008) that a single action turn in text-based CMC can have multiple action responses.

The absence of gaze, body language, gesture and eye contact typifies the computer-mediated talks. As a result, the interactants do not know when the immediate turn is supposed to take place and which further results would come by in a less natural sequence of the talk than that normally taking place in the face-to-face conversation. Such an opinion is in line with Herring (1999) who stated that CMC interactants rely on limited channels than that of the face-to-face interaction for message transmission. She said further that participants make use of "one way" rather than "two-way" message transmission where the speed of typing and the

pressing of the keyboard return button is primarily contingent. In other words, overlaps and discontinuity of talk are partly the by-product of the limited absence of the feedback.

Another unique characteristic of text-based CMC is the frequent talk breakdown as saliently indicated from line 11 on when Little Antonov responds to Silver Shadow's gesture to get into the talk. Such an insistent interruption won't definitely happen in a face-to-face mode of conversation. The talk about the accident that Stevo has just been undergoing is temporarily interrupted by an insistent gesture by Silver Shadow to get him involved into the talk and that the organization of talk is temporarily disrupted; a typically frequent turn adjacency disruption in multi-participant chatting as reported by Negretti (1998, and Herring (1999). In addition, as clearly indicated by the extract above, the flow of talk is not linear, in which one turn is not followed by another, and that the talk breakdown results from the interference of other interactants', a typical sudden irrelevant turn coming in between two supposedly relevant pairs as advocated by Schegloff and Sacks (see line 48, 65 and 82).

It is obvious from the extract that turn disruption is dominant in the way the turns are organized. What makes it different from face-to-face interaction is that many of the turn construction units are frequently followed by irrelevant responses. It can be seemingly argued that either lines 1, 2 are disrupted by subsequent 7 or 8 lines or conversely line 1 and 2 themselves disrupt the conversation that was previously undergoing. The data, however, reveal that the latter is more likely to be true as it can be inferred from the further turns that from what keeps going from line 3 on,

line 4 and 6 should be the relevant responses to line 3 and that this latter analysis seems to be more accurately depicting the real motions or actions. Furthermore, line 7 is a logical continuation of line 3 as a further explanation of what driving speed Stevo 1985 had when the car accident took place.

The way the turn organization was organized and maintained can be explained as follows. The three guys (Stevo 1985, Fairy and Little Antonov) try to keep on interacting about what has just happened with Stevo 1985 in the lines to follow, but then Silver Shadow insists on having himself recognized and allowed to get into the chat. His insistence is obviously indicated by his saying of "Hi" 3 times (line 1, 2) and finally re-emphasized by saying" I said Hi" (line 5) with a stern look of emoticon signaling his petition to get involved in the talk to compensate for the lack of the usual nonverbal components (Krohn, 2004). Considering that such an effort didn't make any result, he kept on interrupting and his effort finally got paid off in line 11 after he got a response "Hey silver" from Little Antonov. So, in other words, from the perspective of turn organization, in spite of the interference or interruption, there is a clear effort by the interactants to maintain the flow of the turns by trying to ignore the interruption (line 6,7 and then 9,10).

Finally, there is an interesting thing worth mentioning out of the way the turn is managed. In spite of insistent interference by Silver Shadow as is indicated in lines 1, 2, 5, 8, 13, 14 and 16, the interactants, in this case, Little Antonov, Fairy and Stevo 1985, tried hard to keep their conversation going. Despite a brief drifting response by Little Antonov, they basically managed to maintain their turn-taking in order to perform and complete their social actions. Such a kind of phenomenon might be justified by the

importance of the topical issues that according to my observation should play a very important role in such a chat room involving in particular young guys (male participants). Though it might need further research, I could say that topics that go very well with their day-to-day life will determine the success of the social action in a chat encounter as indicated in the extract above. Discussing such topics as cars (as part of young people's hobbies and pride), love, life style would make every individual interractant feel it as their own and thereby, they feel a need to keep it going rather than shifting to other trivial things. In other words, they would feel sorry to miss the topic in spite of other people's interference.

B. Sound -based chat extract analysis

SPEAK SLOWLY

1. S1: A[h   on a]ir (.) ya ya [So   ]ore there [(0.1) (inaudible)

2. S2   [hh::sure]   [yes ↑]   [ah::]

3. S2   Anu:: your pronunciation and your accent (.) is very excellent. .hh

4. S1: Oh (laugh) .hh. Thank you very much

5. S2: (0.5)   you're welcome

6. S1: I try to speak very slowly slowly because this is English practice room

7. S1: So[:: (.)] everyone should talk slowly And (.)[We have] te::ya we have to wait

8. S2:   [ya::]   [o:::k..   ]

9. S1   (inaudible) for comment   And (.) ok :: s[o try]in out

10. S2:   [ok::]

11. S1: Ya [ok (inaudible)]

12. S2:   [Ok↑ I'm in here with you

13. S1: ok tryin out::[so]what're you doing a::> what do you do for reading

14. S2   [ya]

15: S1   Student or a worker↑

16.   (0.5)

17. S2: Ok I am a:: a International teacher(.) or so (.) a:::yes:: a te. (0.2)This is....

In contrast to the previous extract, turn organization in the sound-based CMC, as observed from the extract in general, similarly follows the patterns normally taking place in verbal face-to-face talk-in-interaction. The pattern of one-speak-at-a-time as advocated by Schegloff, et.al. (1974) is salient in the data. Except for lines 2 and 3 and then 6 and 7, the rest follows the pattern of one-speak-at-a-time. Thus, compared to that of the text-based CMC, sound-based CMC can be said to be more coherent. It means that on the whole, it meets both the sequential relevance and turn construction which are similar to that of the normal face-to-face pattern. The interactants in this second extract practice face-to-face turn adjacency conventions and adhere to discourse coherence structure, despite the absence of one another's environment such as gestures, moods or emoticons that are commonly observably present in the text-based CMC. The coherence may be particularly achieved through the attention given to the interlocutors' turn as well as the clarity of the message passed on through the relevant turn.

Even so, overlaps of utterances took place in five supposedly adjacency pairs, i.e. in lines 1 & 2, 7 & 8, 9 &10, 11 & 12, 13 & 14. From the relevant places of overlaps mentioned, I argue that they firstly result from a lack of clarity of meanings and thereby need assurance. My opinion is validated by two overlaps made by S2 in line 2 and line 12 where both of the overlaps are expressed with a high pitch rising intonation. Secondly, other overlaps of utterance

are a result of simply adherence to the interlocutors' statements. Such an attitude may be argued as social behavior needed to show that the co-interactant follows or attends what his counterpart is saying, despite the uncertainty of the real message understanding. From the data, it is obvious that S2 in some parts of the overlaps indicates his lack of understanding about what S1 is talking about but by saying either "ya" or "ok", at least he pleases his interlocutor that he follows the conversations and he allows the actions to be completed irrespective of the amount of undecipherable message. Again it is validated by three overlaps made by saying "ok" and another three overlaps made by saying "ya/yes".

Another important feature that is clearly observable through the extract is the dominant phenomenon of self-repair as a means of completing actions. Jepson (2005) claimed that repairs are made based on the interlocutors' cues and that repetition is mostly made in an effort to attend to pronunciation and communication breakdown. Thus, this phenomenon reconfirms his research finding reported in 2005. He reported that repairs of utterances are much more salient and frequently made by speakers in voice chat than that in text chat which tends to result in incorporation of meaning negotiation. The repair moves above, as I can argue, are intended to make the utterance more decipherable or understandable by the interlocutor. Such a move is indicated in line 7 when S1 repairs what she has said simply because she heard an overlap cue from S2. The point of repeating utterance is to make sure that what she said is what should be understood by S2.

Some repetitions and repair are shown through the following samples. Repetition is first shown through lines 7 when S1 says

"We have te" which she repeats the time she hears S2 say "o:::k" in a stretching utterance indicating his unconvincing understanding that makes her feel a need to repeat what she has said. The second example is in lines 9 and 13. In line 6, S1 said to the interlocutor that she has tried to speak as slowly as she could just to make sure that S2 got what she meant and wanted that S2 to respond to what she said in such a chat room for the purpose of English Language practice. She, however, did realize that she herself was the one actively speaking and she realized that she didn't get a commensurate response from S2. Realizing that, she feels a need to speak even much slower and also feels a need to repeat some already clear words and phrases simply to make sure that S2 understands what she said to him. It is proven through line 9 when she said " *Ok… tryin out"* which she later on repeated in line 13 by saying *" ok.. tryin out".* Repair is shown in line 13 as she realized that her question of *"What are you doing?"* is not immediately responded, she simplifies it by asking two separate questions to mean the same thing by saying *"What do you do for reading?"* and then is clarified by saying " *student or worker"* in line 17. There she finally got the response despite lengthily awaiting (0.5) / five-second pause.

Discussion

Unlike ordinary face-to-face talk in interaction, text and voice-based CMCs are particularly lack of paralinguistic features, despite their likely appearance in text chat. There is an obvious absence of gaze, body language, gesture and eye contact typifying the computer-mediated talks. (cite). Even so, some cues as represented by emoticons and acronyms may be usable by the text

chat interactants to represent feelings and emotional states. In other words, compared to verbal face-to-face interaction, the two-mode of chats are essentially different despite voice chat's closer similarity.

Table 4. 2. Features of two modes of CMC

Aspects of turn organisation	Text chat	Voice Chat
Actions	multiple actions	single action
Cues	the emoticon as cues	pauses and disfluency as cues
Types of overlaps	common turn interruptions	common turn overlaps
Flow of talk	non- linear	linear, closer to the principle of one person talk at a time
Message transmission	one way	two-way
Feed back	absent	present
Talk breakdown	resulted from message interruptions	resulted from talk disfluency

As can bee seen from Table 4.2 there are some obvious differences between the features of text chat and voice chat. The differences are primarily as a result of the way by which the messages are transmitted. The computer only allows the text-based chatters to read and write asynchronously without instant signals or cues whether someone on the other side of the computers is right in front of the computers writing or reading, or whether he/she does write and read at the same time or not. In the voice mode chat, in contrast, the chatters can simultaneously control the flow of the chats just like the live face-to-face conversation.

Conclusion

The above brief comparative inquiry has tried to look into the differences of both text and sound-based chats. In spite of some limitations such as in the categorization of the aspects of inquiry and the pre-validated definition of turn organization, this brief analysis has tried to overview the differences between the two modes of CMC chats. From the analysis, we have seen that the two modes of the Internet chat indicate the distinctive features which are typical in each of its categories. The contrastive features listed in the table above make up of its own characteristics that differentiate one mode from the other. To validate the result of this inquiry further research should involve the analysis of a larger amount of data since by involving more data the consistency of the differences can be more scientifically established. Besides, to see the differences may also involve different categories, such as interaction strategy and how floors are maintained.

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CHAPTER V

MISCELLANEOUS APPROACHES

Despite its being recent in its emergence, discourse analysis is a fast-developing field of language research, embracing methodological field, discourse analyses, comparative research, translation studies, and teaching realm. The diversity of subject areas and methodologies illuminate the scene of the expansion and development of the current research in this field. The prolific contributions made by more and more dedicated researchers open up far-reaching avenues into the realm of human thought that encompasses ideas and topics of the expanding discourses. Within each of the approaches, variations in the use of both theoretical and analytical frameworks by different researchers result in the newer and broader outlook of the field. The longer list of research topics and areas seems like inexhaustible, making each year yields novel real-life analysis of languages of various nationalities. What is more, comparative studies deploying discourse approaches are also abound.

Among a few cases in point to mention is a study of discourse in the area of metaphor and a comparative study of language features contrasting written and spoken language. These two research samples using a different approach to discourse are to be presented in the section to come. The present state of the multitude of approaches to discourse analysis allows researchers to diversify the way in which identification, categorization, analysis

and interpretation of data analysis is made. Metaphors, as a case in point, can be investigated across communication channels, situational contexts, genres and social spheres. A researcher can take it either in the communicative, the cognitive modeling or the multimodality perspectives, all of which may emerge from the common ground of the Lakoffian's Conceptual Metaphor Theory.

This ever-advancing contemporary world marked by the sophistication of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) also opens up broader spheres of discourse research. Language change, language shifts, and language mixing resulted from the revolutionary change of human beings bring with it substantial ramification in the way language is used and expressed. The written language features which in the past were typically formal standard slowly resembles the spoken language styles, and vice versa. Another area worth exploring is the different features of different language written or spoken in different modes. This is not the end of the story as discourse approaches will continue to grow and expand. A few researchers in the field of psychology begin to introduce a new approach to a discourse by doing self-dialogical discourse. Other researchers from different disciplines may come up with new approaches which in turn will potentially make the field of discourse one of the richest and rosiest areas of language studies that offer more choices and opportunities to venture into the language research businesses.

5.1 CROSS-CULTURAL LOVE METAPHORS IN POEMS: A CASE OF ENGLISH AND INDONESIAN

A metaphor is a lingyustic function that convey a comparison between two things that states one thing is different ways, in order help explain an idea or show hidden similarities. Unlike a simile that deploys "like" or "as" to compare ideas or concepts, a metaphor does not use these two words.This study attempts to cross-culturally compare metaphors in the love poems written in two different languages, English and Indonesian. Using qualitative approach, the data analysis demonstrated the presence of both types of metaphors in which both Indonesian and English poem writers have partly used shared source domains that have made up of the universality of the metaphor and partly culturally specific source domains that have created metaphorical variations. In addition, for the purpose of expanding the previously pervasive cognitive beliefs about a metaphor that has been so predominant, this paper has also helped underline the relevance and importance of the cultural aspect to be taken into consideration in the study of metaphor in particular where cultures other than English are involved.

Keywords: *cross-culture, metaphor, contrastive anlysis, metaphorical variations*

Introduction

Research on metaphor has hitherto placed imbalanced weight on the cultural aspect as emphasis has been ultimately given to the idea that metaphor is a cognition process as it is much researched in Cognitive Science and Psychology (Gibbs. 1999, Ortony, 1979). Despite the general acceptance of a cultural role in metaphor, not much attention has been given to look into its entailment in metaphorical use and thereby research specifically taking culture into account is of necessary relevance (Queen, 1991, Wee, 2006). In addition, among the limited amount of research involving both fields of metaphor and culture, most of their conclusion was drawn primarily from English-language or English-culture-based data. Therefore, it is necessary to carry out more research focusing on cross-cultural aspects of metaphor (Ying, 2007). It is in this light that the writer wishes to explore the cultural aspect of metaphor by looking into the collection of love poems from two different cultures, i.e. English and Indonesian. Despite my general agreement with the universality of metaphor, within a cross-cultural perspective, I would particularly highlight the variation of metaphor that is arguably denoting to Indonesian or English culture.

Through this paper, I should like to briefly review some literature with respect to some previous articles and studies on metaphor which specifically concerned with the use of metaphor within the cultural context in general and in the perspective of cross-cultural investigation in particular. The discussion will then move on to a brief account on the use of metaphor in poems, why people use them in their poem writing as well as how we can understand

metaphor in them. Despite the fact that metaphor has been claimed to be universal, the major aim of my paper is mainly to show that besides being universal, metaphor is also culturally specific. To substantiate this position the researcher will present succinct comparative data of poems written by writers of two different cultural backgrounds, i.e. Indonesian and English.

In the first part of the comparative data, the researcher will show some examples of "universality" of metaphors and on the second part, he will then underpin the existence of variations rooted from the differences of cultural backgrounds. It is worth noting that for the purpose of this current discussion, the focus of attention will only be given to how love is expressed metaphorically within two different contexts of culture. That means any other metaphorical expressions likely present in the poem samples will be overlooked.

In analyzing a number of metaphorical expressions found in approximately 100 love poems, the two following questions will be tackled: What universal metaphors do exist in the investigated English and Indonesian poems and are there evidence for cross-cultural differences in the two and if any what has been most likely reasons for the differences?

A previous study on metaphors

Lakoff's proposition that metaphors are universally shared by humans from different cultures is drawn from the conceptual theory of metaphor which believes that bodily experience is universal (1993). Furthermore, the universality of metaphor is mostly contributed by empirical studies in cognitive science showing that besides being linguistics in nature, metaphor constitutes a fundamental concept of people's thought, reasoning,

and imagination (Gibbs, et al. (2004). Researchers working on cognitive and psycholinguistic traditions are, inter alia Lakoff and Johnson (1990, 1999), Johnson (1987), Gibbs (1994, 1996), Turner (1996), who mostly concerned with how metaphor works in human's mind (see Kovecses 2005), although later on in their recent research some of them began to pay attention to the cultural aspect of metaphor use, for instance, Gibbs (1999). Due to their over-emphasis on the structure of the metaphorical expressions, they were prone to ignore the non-universality of the metaphorical concept (Fernandez, 1991 in Kovecses, 2005).

The universality of metaphor has been extensively explored within the context of cognitive and psycholinguistic studies which notably yielded hierarchical mappings and collection of metaphorical expressions. Among the most revered mapping has been the one made by Lakoff in his Contemporary Theory of Mataphor (1992). In his theoretical stance, he among other things mentioned the following:

Table 5. 1. Mapping

Mappings	*example*
Life is a journey	I am at the crossroad in life
Love is a journey	My relationship is down to the rock
A career is a journey	She's on the fast track
Achieving goals is getting something to eat	He's hungry for success
Lack of progress is lack of movement	We are going nowhere with the job.

Other documented mappings among other things include: purposes are destinations, means are routes, difficulties are obstacles, counselors are guides, achievements are landmarks, choices are crossroads, a lifetime is a day, death is sleep; a lifetime is a year, death is winter, life is a struggle, dying is losing a contest against an adversary, life is a precious possession, death is a loss, time is a thief.

As yet, such a cognitive-based view has been predominantly influential in understanding the metaphorical construct which makes it a widely used research framework in the ample of previous research on metaphor. In these recent years, however, researchers working on social science have been critical to the above notion. Unlike the cognitivists who are more concerned with how metaphors work in the human mind, social scientists whose research interest mainly finds the answer to the question of what metaphors do within a socio-cultural context, are more interested in looking into the cultural aspect of metaphor (see Kovecses, 2005). Deignan (2003), for instance, contends 'if culture is understood in its broadest sense, it could be argued that every aspect of human experience is filtered through it'. It means that differences of culture should contribute to the creation and the use of metaphorical expressions within different contexts of culture. This assumption gains support from Gibbs (1999 as cited in Deignan, 2003) who maintains that the physical world is inextricable from the cultural world as such a world is highly constrained by cultural beliefs and values. Some evidence of cross-cultural research has underpinned his reservation about the existence of the cultural-based metaphorical variation.

Further to Gibbs' proposition, some have begun to call for the consideration of scope expansion in metaphor research by means of taking cultural context into consideration. Among the strong proponents who suggest that culture should be given a more role in understanding metaphor is Queen (1991). In a similar vein, Wee (2006) suggests that despite the importance of the conceptual perspective of metaphor, its cultural dimension is of high relevance. In spite of general agreement with the universality of metaphor, Covecses (2005) in his recent publication has managed to make a comprehensive review of metaphor from its very cultural outlook. He established the dimensions of metaphor variation from within and from a cross-cultural perspective. From within culture, he proposes that such dimensions as social, ethnic, regional, style, subcultural, etc. can exist and he maintains that variation itself should be the corollary of differences of experience, cognitive preference and style before he finally outlines the causes of cross-cultural variations.

To put it another way, many social scientists researching metaphor generally accept both the universality and variation in the metaphorical use of language. It is by no means that in looking into the cultural specificity of metaphor researchers should necessarily extricate metaphor from its universal concept. Thus, researchers interested in cross-cultural or inter-cultural aspects of metaphor may still consider the relevance of the conceptual meanings of metaphor in their research. This paper particularly would like to view metaphor from two different angles which mean acknowledging the existence of universality as well as contend that there is a degree of cultural variation of the metaphorical expressions used in the poems, i.e. English and Bahasa Indonesia.

With regards the previous research on cross-cultural metaphor, Boers (2003) points out that metaphorical variations generally take three usages, in which the first is the most salient:

(1) Variations as regards the particular source-target mappings that have become conventional in the given cultures;

(2) Variations as regards value judgments related to the source or target domains shared mappings;

(3) Variations as regards the degree of the pervasiveness of metaphor, as compared with other discourse forms.

With the saliency of the first type of variations, his finding suggests that within different cultures, the metaphor may take different source domains that map onto the same target domain. With the findings, he has made it evident that metaphor is not only strictly limited to cognition domain per se but also the product of culture as a result of differences of source domains.

Metaphor in poems

The history of metaphor might have been as old as the history of mankind as a metaphor is a way to get the message across as well as to help people explicate truths that may not be clear if they are plainly stated. It is a way to accentuate beauty, pain, happiness or any other feelings that may be undeliverable through ordinary words. As often, if we don't want to say always, when we read an appropriate metaphor we are immediately drawn between the truth of the ideas and the comparison being alluded. This way, we are nurtured by the liveliness and the power of the language. Needless to say that the ability to understand metaphoric language

opens up the key to the beauty of language including the one used in literary texts such as poems.

In the past, the metaphor was largely considered ornamental and limitedly used by poets or politicians but in recent days, it is an important tool for communication (see Gentner, 1982, in Lakoff & Johnson 1980). Besides, metaphoric language has been a cutting-edge phenomenon in both spoken and written discourse. Not only is it used within the context of diction or word choice in which the writers or speakers of the language express their ideas to create sense and beauty of languages such as in the prose and poems, but lexically and grammatically it is also used in mass media. For different reasons such as practicality, message conciseness, beauty effect on the language ideas, people these days are prone to develop a trend to employ metaphorical language in their daily discourse including in poem writing.

In writing a poem people usually just write exactly what they are thinking about or very often they are simply triggered by simple thoughts. These are among the reasons why people write poems: feeling happy and therefore he/she needs to express the happiness in poems, or just feeling lonely and therefore needs to write to get rid of his/her loneliness, while others may have just fallen in love with something or someone and thereby he/she feels a need to express his/her feeling through poems. People start by writing down the poem that they have in mind, without worrying about getting muddled by complicated logical or argumentative thoughts as the main essence of writing poems is describing feelings. All that matters is finding something tangible that describes the feelings or thoughts we have written about which can be many different

things such as a person, thing, object, place or any other ideas. The ideas or feelings may just be an abstract subject that needs to be turned into a concrete thing that describes what they mean to convey.

How to make the metaphor workable in a poem writing, based on my personal experience, is try to find the emphasis of the ideas or the feelings that I am trying to deliver throughout my poem, for example, I try to find words that closely express my feeling either sadness, anger, loneliness or love. Then, to add to a sense of liveliness and to provide a stronger emotional effect on the message I am delivering, I turn the concrete things in my poems into something comparable to my thoughts or feelings by taking any possible and understandable resources around my life. Here is where the role of metaphor manifests in my poem writing and through this way I allow for the metaphors to take their ultimate function in poem writing. Once this is done, I can feel the flow of the ideas and the beauty of the poetic messages as they are imbued by the beautiful presence of the metaphors.

How metaphor can be understood

In Dictionary.com, metaphor is defined as a figure of speech in which a term or phrase is applied to something to which it is not literally applicable in order to suggest a resemblance, as in "A mighty fortress is our God." Metaphor in a poem can be described as a figure of speech in which a thing is referred to as being something that it resembles within the writers' environments and is used as a source domain. As has been previously argued, the environment can be either universally or limitedly understood by people in the different contexts of culture. For example, a fierce

person can be referred to as 'a lion' or a smooth look of the sky can be referred to as 'silk'. In this way, elements that could not be described in ordinary language manifests through the metaphorical expressions.

With regard to universality and cultural variation, the word lion and silk may be limitedly used as a metaphor by writers who are familiar with the words in their environment. Thus, the world lion will be less likely used metaphorically by a poet living in an environment where a lion does not have a particular physical reference. Other examples such as the metaphor of a glimpse of hope as 'a glimpse of candle light ' or 'sadness' as 'dark cloud in the sky', however, could be potentially universal given the fact that both light and darkness are universally understood by all people on this planet.

In Sternberg's view metaphor contains four elements, two being items compared and the other two make up of a tenor and a vehicle, ways in which the items are linked (2009). The terms tenor can be understood as the topic, eg. 'beautiful house', and the vehicle is how the item is described, eg. 'heaven'. In understanding its concept, very often metaphor is conflated with simile as they both are very similar in particular in terms of the way the meanings are conveyed. An easy way to understand metaphor is to view it as a simile without the word 'like' or 'as', or in the same way simile is metaphor using 'like' or 'as'. The obvious difference is that a simile is mainly used to compare two things, for example:' he is like a beast'. By using a metaphor the writer usually assumes that the relationship will be understood by the reader without the explicit use of linking the word 'like' or 'as'.

To provide an illustration, let us take a look at the following sample of metaphor poem:

For The First Time
Into my world
of darkness and silence,
you brought light and music.

When you lit my candle,
I began to see and understand
the taste and texture of love.

- John Irvine –

In the above short poem, we can see a sample of metaphor. If we take the very last line of this stanza we see that "love" is metaphorically comparable to food that the people can taste and touch. In the first stanza, the poet initiates a relationship between darkness and light also silence with the sound of music, then on the second, when the candle is lit, it illuminates light that allows him to know what love is like. Irvine, in this poem considers love as something we can taste and touch. Love may be interpreted like a heart-shaped lollipop, which tastes sweet and has a touchable heart shape. The heart shape contour is universally understood by anyone eventhough blind.

Data collection and the origin of the poems

For the purpose of comparison, data are collected purposively by considering the theme of the poems which is 'love'. In addition, in order to closely meet the criteria for the cross-cultural investigation of the love poems, despite the anonymity of the writers, the choice of poems has also taken the diction and grammatical arrangement of the sentences of the poems into

consideration (see appendix). By looking into each of the data and focusing on the use of metaphor to express the idea of love in the poems, I classify the metaphor of love into three categories, i.e.: (1) what love is, (2) who the lover is, (3) what to love means.

I should admit that assuring the origin of the poems in terms of their native language is of an eminent challenge due to the fact that many of the titles are anonymous. It is almost impossible to verify the origin of the poems found on the Internet, even if there is personal identification. The justification I can make is the choice of words (diction) and the grammatical expressions. It means that there is a possibility the poems have been adapted or translated to another language but as seen from the way messages are expressed, the possibility is relatively low.

The universality of love metaphor

In the table below, there is evidence that the ideas expressed metaphorically in the two poems are truly universal in the sense that the same ideas are expressed to mean the same sense and meaning. The similarity could be because the writers of the poems might have used the same source domains rooted from their cultures which coincidently denote the universal ideas shared by the two cultures. In addition, the similarity could be due to the possibility that they may have shared the same source domain to refer to the same ideas as a result of the similarity of their recognition about the resources around their day-to-day lives. They both share the same knowledge of the moon, the sun, the fire, the sunlight, bright star etc., along with each of their denotations simply because all the objects are common source domains that are equally recognized by both cultures.

(1) the universality of 'What love is'

English		Indonesian	
Metaphor	*Examples*	*Metaphor*	*Examples*
The moon	You are the chime of warm rain, **the moon** that glows through the trees	Bulan **(the moon)** in my city, the moon in my heart…	**Bulan** di kotaku, **bulan** di hatiku… Namun di sudut hati yang lain ada yg tersenyum,
fire	It began as all **fires** do, a spark soon ignited into a blaze of warmth and colourful delight.	api **(fire)** burns my chest looking up while fingers stroking the warmth	**api** membakar dada menengadah jemari mengusap kehangatan
sun's light	The **sun's light,** they are all the beauty that is you.	sinar mentari **(Sun light)** love it's the sun light shining on my heart.	Tapi aku di butakan oleh **sinar fajar mentari** yang twerus kau pancarkan buatku Cinta Engkaulah *Sinar* *Mentari* Yang Menerangi Hati Ini **mentari** menyengat rerumputan batu kering
the morning dew	the **morning dew,** they are all the beauty that is you.	embun pagi **(morning dew)** Love is the morning dew that refresses my heart	Cinta Engkaulah **Embun Pagi** Yang Menyejukan Hati Ini
bright star	And there you were, my **bright**est **star**	bintang terang **(bright star)** your light is truly beautiful	**Bintang yang terang** sinarmu sungguh indah
boat	Onto the sea I sailed my **boat** And prayed that it would stay afloat	perahu **(boat)** I am drown my boat submerges. Now my boat has been anchored in my life	Aku tenggelam **Perahuku** karam Kini **perahu** tlah ditambatkan pada satu sisi kehidupan

(2) universality of 'who the lover is'

No universal reference to 'who the lover is' is found in the data.

(3) universality of 'What to love means'

English		Indonesian	
Metaphor	*Examples*	*Metaphor*	*Examples*
Fires sparks and ignites blaze of warmth and delight	It began as all **fires** do, a **spark** soon **ignited** into a blaze of warmth and colorful **delight**.	Burn me … to make me warm	**bakarlah diriku**…supaya hangat dirimu

In this category, the only similarity noticeable in the data is the use of 'fire'. They use it to convey the idea that love works the same way the fire does, i.e that it ignites the flame that produces warmth. Like fire, love sparks the spirit of life and lightens life which in turns energizes anyone who feels it.

Variations of love metaphor

The data show that despite the similarities, some variations of metaphorical use are arguably present as some metaphorical expressions can be traced through the writers' cultural backgrounds. As has been previously argued, among the most commonly identified cross-cultural variations of metaphor is the variations as regards the particular source-target mappings that have become conventional in the given cultures (Boers, 2003). This current comparative data confirm his proposition that the variations in the use of metaphors to express the idea of love has

partly been traceable through the writers' conventional mappings rooted from each of the writers' cultural backgrounds. While not easily argued as being cultural, some more variations do indicate the contrast between two types of the poems which may be argued as being typical variations as regards the degree of the pervasiveness of metaphor commonly used in poems or simply because of the common style shared by the poets in the same culture. Before an explanation is further provided, these are the summary of the data. The following is the comparative look of the two.

(1) variations of 'What love is'

English		Indonesian	
Metaphor	*Examples*	*Metaphor*	*Examples*
roof	YOUR LOVE, the ultimate **roof**	bulan purnama (**full moon**)	**Purnama** yang mengapung di rangka langit malam ini seperti bercerita
force	What is love, but a **force** To bring the mighty low, With the strength to shame the mountains	Sinar rembulan (**moon light**)	Malam itu dia menoleh sesaat kepadaku **Sinar Sang Rembulan** pun menatap lembut pipinya
triump	What is love, but a **triumph,** A glorious goal attained	jantung hidup (**life heart**)	Cinta Engkaulah **Jantung Dari Hidupku** Yang Fana ini
beacon	What is love, but a **beacon,** To guide the wayward heart	hujan (**rain**)	**Hujan** menyemai benih di hati
eternity	And what is love, but **forever,** Eternal and sincere	bayang-bayang (**shade**)	**Bayangku** meneduhkanmu,
King, jewel, blue sky, clean river, white	You're my man, my mighty **king**, And I'm the **jewel** in your	angin (**wind**)	**Angin** menghembuskan benih yang mebawaku ke langit

clouds, huge mountain, green-wide valley, firm – strong body, rib bone, eagle flying high	crown, You're the **sky** so vast and blue, And I'm the **white clouds** in your chest, I'm **a river** clean and pure,		
red rose	Our love is that of a **red rose** Whose splendor rises as the sun shows its face	aroma (**scent**)	Akan tetapi kemana pun ku berjalan **aroma** itu masih tetap di dekatku belum bisa ku tuk menggapainya.
spark	My love, the **spark** that ignited the day we met remains an eternal **flame.**	Cahaya di lorong (**light in the tunnel**)	"Pada akhirnya, saat semuanya usai, **cahaya di ujung lorong** akan meredup perlahan, lalu lenyap bersama harap
Air	I breathe your love: it is my **air**	Fajar (**dawn**)	**Fajar** yang merebak dari bening matamu, kekasihku adalah serupa **kerlip kunang-kunang**
breeze	There came a soft and gentle **breeze**	singgasana (**throne**)	Jikahati adalah istana, Cinta adalah **singgasana**
		lilin (**candle**)	aku hanya ingin menghayal setiap garis wajahmu adalah purnama atau kau menjadi **lilin** untuk setiap malam yang dingin
		sentuhan hangat (**warm touch**)	Pertemuan itu b'lum berganti hari Masih t'rasa **sentuhan hangat**
		Baying-bayang (**Shadow**), air (**water**), phon teduh (**shady tree**), pagi setelah petang (**morning after dark**), tempat	Aku butuh **bayangan** untuk **mengikuti** Aku butuh **air** untuk **menyirami** Aku butuh **pohon** untuk meneduhiAku butuh **pagi** setelah gelap hari

| | | untuk didiami (place to stay) | Aku butuh **tempat** untuk **kudiami** |
| | | air laut (**sea water**) | Cinta adalah **air laut** yang mengisi sebagian isi bumi… memberi banyak kehidupan.. |

(2) variations of 'Who the lover is'

English		Indonesian	
Metaphor	*Examples*	*Metaphor*	*Examples*
air, spring	You are my **air** The **spring** in my step You are my everything.	sebait lagu (**a stanza of song**)	kekasih adalah **sebait lagu melankolis** yang mengalun pilupada barisan waktu
Sky, water, heart beat	You are the blue **sky** in my day, You are the **water** in my ocean, You are the **wind blowing** through my hair, You are the **beating in my heart**,	kerlip kunang-kunang (**glowing animal flying at night on the paddy field**)	Kau adalah serupa **kerlip kunang-kunang**,
The hand,	Be the **hand** that lifts your veil Be **the spark** that lights you up	dua ilalang liar (**two growing weeds**)	*Kita, Katamu, adalah* **dua ilalang liar**
Doctor, army, umbrella, rock, shield, spirit, pillow, ear, comfort, hero, inspiration, hand and kiss	your **doctor** when you are ill, your **army** when you go to war, your **umbrella** when life rains down on you, your **rock** when you get weary, your **shield** when you need defense, your **spirit** when you are drained, your **pillow** when you need to rest,	bau tanah (s**oil smell**)	*Kita, Katamu, adalah* **bau tanah** *basah seusai hujan pagi*

(3) variations *of 'Wh*at to love means'

English		Indonesian	
Metaphor	*Examples*	*Metaphor*	*Examples*
Igniting light and spark warmth	It began as all **fires** do, a spark soon ignited into a blaze of warmth and colourful delight. Dark turned to **light** The **glowing embers** provide comforting heat	Kaki-kaki hujan yang runcing (refreshing and awakening)	Kaki-kaki hujan yang runcing menyentuhkan ujungnya di bumi
give direction	A lost girl found **direction**, As the eastern orb rose high, The dark **sky** turned to **blue**, Like the colour of his eyes. **Grey** turned to **blue**, Lost became **found**	Baynagan mengikuti **(the following shadow)**, air untuk menyirami **(water to water)**, pohon meneduhi **(tree to shadow)**	Aku butuh **bayangan** untuk **mengikuti** Aku butuh **air** untuk **menyirami** Aku butuh **pohon** untuk **meneduhi** Aku butuh tempat untuk kudiami

In all the three comparative tables above, it is obvious that the way the writers make use of both source and target mappings of ideas that are culturally specific has made the Indonesian poems in many respects different from their English counterparts. While Indonesian writers, in defining love and the lover take moon, shade, shady tree and rain, and wind as being an important source, the English counterparts do not. In addition, the way Indonesian poets use animal '*kunang-kunang'(fireflies), an animal* which is commonly noticed at night at the paddy field and '*ilalang*' *wild grass* does indicate cultural variation specific to Indonesian culture. The possible explanation to such difference could be because of the tropical climatic nature that has made Indonesian people take

particularly shade, shady tree and wind as being important in their life as a means by which people get relief from the extreme heat in the day time; rain and wind altogether as two important things for Indonesian people to sustain their day-to-day agrarian lives. They both together nurture nature in particular for farmers in keeping their crops growing.

By contrast, English people do consider the heat of the sun and the sunlight in general as something being important and so much awaited rather than avoided and thereby, shade and shady trees are not generally used as the source domain. In the same way, the rain which is so pervasively used as the source domain by Indonesian writers is not used by English poets simply because English people, in general, do not so much expect it in their daily life as their life has been mostly industrialized, even for many rains is considered an annoyance. English writers instead take force, roof, and triumph as the source domain of metaphor. This is possible because they have been living in a competitive life where power, competition, resilience are among predominant aspects of day-to-day lives.

In the three tables, other variations such as doctor, kiss, umbrella, ear, pillow, hand, melancholic song, army, breeze, scent and spring can not be easily delineated culturally. They can be either universal or the typical variations that may be addressed to Boer' s previous denotation that they may be examples of metaphors pervasive in the poem in general. Similarly, the use of throne, crown, the candle that appear in the poems may not be claimed as being culturally distinct.

Conclusion

The paper has primarily argued for the acceptance of both the universality and variation of metaphors as can be shown through their presence in the two cultural backgrounds of poems. It is obvious that the data presentation demonstrated the presence of both types of metaphors in which both Indonesian and English poem writers have partly used shared source domains that have made up of the universality of the metaphor and partly culturally specific source domains that have created metaphorical variations. In addition, for the purpose of expanding the previously pervasive cognitive beliefs about a metaphor that has been so predominant, this paper has also helped underline the relevance and importance of the cultural aspect to be taken into consideration in the study of metaphor in particular where cultures other than English are involved. By so doing, it helps critically verify the theory of metaphor as well as open the broader scope of research in metaphor.

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Appendix 5.1 English Love poems

5.1.1

A gentle word like a spark of light,
Illuminates my soul
And as each sound goes deeper,
It's YOU that makes me whole

There is no corner, no dark place,
YOUR LOVE cannot fill
And if the world starts causing waves,
It's your devotion that makes them still

And yes you always speak to me,
In sweet honesty and truth
Your caring heart keeps out the rain,
YOUR LOVE, the ultimate roof

So thank you my Love for being there,
For supporting me, my life
I'll do the same for you, you know,
My Beautiful, Darling Wife.

- David G. Kelly –

5.1.2

You're my man, my mighty king,
And I'm the jewel in your crown,
You're the sun so hot and bright,
I'm your light-rays shining down,

You're the sky so vast and blue,
And I'm the white clouds in your chest,
I'm a river clean and pure,
Who in your ocean finds her rest,

You're the mountain huge and high,

I'm the valley green and wide,
You're the body firm and strong,
And I'm a rib bone on your side,

You're an eagle flying high,
I'm your feathers light and brown,
You're my man, my king of kings,
And I'm the jewel in your crown.

- Nima Akbari –

5.1.3

What is love, but an emotion,
So strong and so pure,
That nurtured and shared with another
All tests it will endure?

What is love, but a force
To bring the mighty low,
With the strength to shame the mountains
And halt time's ceaseless flow?

What is love, but a triumph,
A glorious goal attained,
The union of two souls, two hearts
A bond the angels have ordained?

What is love, but a champion,
To cast the tyrant from his throne,
And raise the flag of truth and peace,
And fear of death o'erthrow?

What is love, but a beacon,
To guide the wayward heart,
A blazing light upon the shoals
That dash cherished dreams apart?

And what is love, but forever,

Eternal and sincere,
A flame that through wax and wane
Will outlive life's brief years?

So I'll tell it on the mountaintops,
In all places high and low,
That love for you is my reason to be,
And will never break or bow.

- Matt Dubois –

5.1.4

A path winding across the horizon
over mountains, across seas
through blue skies and gray
never ceasing, continuous.
My love for you.

- A.J. Miller –

5.1.5

You are my air
The sun in my day
The moon in my night
The spring in my step
You are my everything.

You are the stars in the sky
The birds in the trees
The shimmer, the sparkle, the shine.
Without the light you put into my life
I would be nothing
A single leaf on the ground in autumn,
Lost, forgotten, alone.

5.1.6

You Are My Life
By Andy Hughes
You are the stars in my night time,
You are the blue sky in my day,
You are the water in my ocean,
You are the light showing me the way,
You are the sunshine in my eyes,
You are the wind blowing through my hair,
You are the beating in my heart,
You are my life - you're always there.

My Everything

I want be the wind that fills your sail
Be the hand that lifts your veil

5.2 THE SPOKEN FEATURES OF PERSONAL OF PERSONAL BLOG WRITING

Both writing and speech are useful in conveying messages in representing verbal communication, writing differs from speexh in its being a reliable form of information storage and transfer. Writing systems require shared understanding between writers and readers of the meaning behind the sets of characters that make up a script. Writing is usually recorded onto a durable medium, while speech is less formal and fleeting. This mini research explores the feature of spoken language by emphasizing how personal blog employs aspects of spoken language. By deploying pre-determined research dimensions, this project is attempting to discover the spoken features used in the personal blog. Using NVIVO qualitative anayzer, the results suggest that the Personal Blogs strongly indicate features of spoken language. From the three criteria, format, grammar, and style the writers opt for featuring the spoken style of writing to convey their intended meanings and messages. These include evidence of the format, the grammar and the style of the writing, the length of sentences, the editability, use of contractions, the briefness of sentences, the avoidance of complex sentences, the many colloquial aspects of expressions, as well as the use personal expressions. Besides, in terms of vocabulary choices, they are more the reflection of speech than writing, probably in order for them to reach out broader audience and to give the impression that the readers are very welcome to read and to closely interact with one another

Keywords: *writing system, spoken features, Personal Blogs*

Introduction

Research on written and spoken language often poses a challenge in determining parameters to be used. This is mainly because of the complexity of measures to separate the two domains and how exactly the two language modes differ. The complexity should be more acute now than it was in the past as currently, the features of both modes are getting less and less easily noticeable. With the advent of technology featuring a large range of communication media such as e-mail, short text messaging, blogging space up until many synchronous Internet chatting facilities available for people to choose from, the spoken language is more widely used in the written format. Spoken language is not only mediated restrictively by face-to-face encounters but also by the plethora of technological media. Many technologically-mediated communications may exhibit features of spoken language that can be studied from the perspective of written discourse. Previous studies have mostly given much attention to E-mail, whilst Personal Blog as another genre of the Internet-based medium of communication is still very much under-researched. This mini-project, therefore, will consider a means of exploring the feature of spoken language by emphasizing how personal blog employs aspects of spoken language. By deploying pre-determined research dimensions, this project is attempting to discover the spoken features used in the personal blog.

The prevalent notion of written language

The existence of language as a medium of communication is striking especially when we see it in terms of the writing systems. How could we not get stunned by the fact that a combination of

alphabetic arrangement consisting of vowels and consonants (in an alphabetic language like English) can make up words, phrases and sentences? How could not we be amazed by the fact that particular symbols link to meanings in a language like Chinese and Japanese? Arrangements of syllables as well as a set of symbols representing meanings are made by writers to convey messages to readers in the writing systems of different languages. Myriads of messages have been documented in various record devices such as stones, leaves, books, journals, encyclopedia, up until electronic databases accessible and retrievable for various purposes.

In the earlier time, no matter how important the written language has become in the lives of human beings, unlike the spoken language, it was not considered as a language on its own, as it is merely a way of recording language by means of visible marks (Bloomfield 1933 in Venezky 1999c). Others think that spoken language is primary whilst writing is secondary as it is essentially a means of representing speech for writing (Lyons, 1968, p: 38). Its being secondary is on the basis of the idea that speech came before writing (Lado, 1964). This indicates that until this recent decade written language has still been placed on the peripheral rather than center of language study at least in terms of the importance.

Some linguists' reasons for the priority of speech over writing are:

1. Speech comes before writing in children's development

2. Speech comes before writing in the development of human societies

3. Some languages have spoken form, no written form, but not vice versa.

4. Some individuals cannot write, but unless with physical constraints, everyone can speak.

5. Writing is taught, while speech is not.

In day-to-day life, nonetheless, written language plays more determining factor in changing society, as social development is geared by the extent to which its members of society master a reasonable degree of literacy. The more they read and acquire knowledge through reading, the faster the society will likely progress. In a narrower sense, it can be argued that an individual person is changed by literacy. Thus, the more number of individuals are literate, the greater their opportunity to participate in changing and developing their society.

In addition, the writing system has transformed the spoken languages fixed through visual records documentable, transferable and translatable across languages both in time and spaces cumulative outside the memory of an individual person. Thus, it is true what Goody (1977) posits that writing transforms speech by abstracting its components and that written texts allow people to revisit the pre-documented thoughts for the purpose of revision and correction. These are among the features absent in the oral language. It is by no means, however, that the aforementioned features make the written language a discrete entity separable from its spoken counterpart as features of written language can easily be found in the spoken language just as written texts can exhibit aspects of spoken language.

Complexity of differences

The linguists' interest in providing attention to the relationship or differences between spoken and written language is relatively recent. Among some literature exposing them are Baron (2000), Biber (1988), Olson (1988), Goody and Watt (1968). Even so, up until recent years, there have still been prevalent differences of opinions among researchers and linguists concerning the importance of researching the features of written and spoken language. Some believe that the investigation on the similarity and differences is essential whilst others purport that the dichotomy is pointless. Among some attempting to differentiate them are Chafe (1982) who contrasts the explicitness and the implicitness of written language. Halliday (1985) contrasts the prosodic features and grammatical intricacy of speech with the high lexical density and grammatical metaphor of writing. Biber (1988) compares written versus spoken by using three major dimensions: functional, situational and processing consideration. Even so, many studies have not managed to offer a vigorous basis for shorting out the complexity of the differences.

There are at least two reasons why research in contrasting between written and spoken language is of high complexity. First, making a clear cut between them is not an easy job, as there are some overlapping and complementary elements in between that are not fully clear-cut. In many ways, written language is like a transcription of spoken language. People have to speak the language in order for them to be able to write or transcribe the language. Many deaf people might also still need to learn spoken language by way of deciphering lips movement. This provides

evidence that written language is not separable from spoken language and that it is not difficult to agree with the notion that written language is nothing more than a transcription of spoken language expressed through a standard dialect. Further, we find it hard to show an example of written language which has no direct or indirect correspondence with the spoken language. Sign languages which originated from spoken feature have also been recreated in the written forms represented through emoticons that are widely used in the Internet-based communications. It may have been such a connectedness that has motivated Scott Fahlman in inventing emoticons in 1982. Thus, written language is always associated with a spoken language or in some cases with a sign language. This is where the distinction between them is complex and hard to make.

Secondly, studies in the area of written and spoken language often involve various areas ranging from linguistics, formality, and informality, the process of simplification, linearity and non-linearity, shared context vs. non shared context, spoken language features and written language features, etc. The area of linguistic investigation that involved analysis and definition of spoken and written varieties of a particular language can be found in Chafe 1982, Halliday 1985, Biber 1988, Miller/Weinert 1998. Written variety is generally considered more complex simply because it includes a lot of parameters such as more rules of grammar, more morphological forms, more variability in syntactic constructions. Interestingly, the more recent analysis of the written language discovers that 'writing is both less and more than a mirror of speech' (Baron 2000, p.7). She means less because it omits pronunciation, intonation and facial cues but it is more because it

has its own properties such as vocabulary, syntax, and usage conventions (ibid). In contrast, the general assumption about spoken language variety is that it is simpler than the written kind. Spoken variety has a lower degree of complexity, compared to their written counterparts simply because of the above parameters. From various literature, the characteristics of both languages have been mentioned and among them are listed on the different tables below:

The features of spoken and written language can be seen on the following chart:

SPOKEN LANGUAGE	WRITTEN LANGUAGE
Involves prosodic element	Limited prosodic element
Fleeting (gone as you say)	Static and permanent
Spontaneous first draft	Final draft
Loose expression and rephrasing	Compact expression complex grammar
It happens in real time (present)	It is revisited and redrafted record
Involves paralinguistic aspects	Lack of visual contact
involve intonation	Uses punctuation
Less formal language properties	More formal language properties

Cook's lecture notes, 2009

The following characteristics may also be worth noting.

SPOKEN LANGUAGE	WRITTEN LANGUAGE
More redundancies	Using more content words
Simplified	Strict and complex
Sensitive to fashion including the use of slang	Standard grammar and lexical elements

Time-bound	Space bound

The following examples are provided to illustrate the differences between the written and spoken language:

Written Language	Spoken Language
One of the expectations of university study which surprise many students commencing study is making oral presentations. Not only do students need, therefore, to develop their written skills to meet the academic expectations of their lecturers and tutors, but they also need to become competent speakers of the language of their disciplines. The level of formality of language use is one indicator. Other indicators include specific jargon and technical terminology, idiomatic use of language and even grammatical use that is specific to the discipline.	*All students at uni have to do oral presentations in tutes. And the problem is that not most people starting uni don't know about this so they get a real shock when they get here. And suddenly they have to talk in front of a huge class. I mean, they've usually heard all about the weird way of writing that they have to learn to do but doing oral presentations is usually a surprise. You have to be able to understand what they want from the question so you need to know how to analyze questions carefully. And that's not easy!*

From the example, we can characterize the written language as being more formal and dense. It has more technical words and more complicated sentences. Although it is easy to read, it sounds difficult to read. Spoken language, in contrast, is more loose and informal in the way words are constructed into phrases or sentences. Despite having more variety of words, each sentence tends to be shorter and is ornamented by some informal short forms of words such as *uni* for university, *don't* for do not. The use

of 2nd person subject (*you*), as well as personal expression (I mean), can be spotted in the given example.

Personal weblogs

Over the last decades, Internet technology has made a fantastic leap which makes it a lot harder to distinguish between spoken and written language. E-mail as Baron (2000, p. 9) puts it, has all but replaced more traditional (oral) communication. Like short messaging, it resembles the way people in the past speak in face-to-face mode. Compared to the Middle Ages language, current language, in particular in the post World War II, the written language increasingly resembles everyday speech (ibid). In many ways, e-mail is replacing conventional telephone and traditional mails for person-to-person communication. E-mail, as has been widely known, is more like a letter sent through phone or spoken language transmitted through the Internet. This is what makes it a unique language that has both the characteristics of written and spoken language. The research by Thornton (1996) founds that what makes more and more people tend to use computers to communicate is that e-mail enables people to interact in a less constrained way than communicating face-to-face.

Like e-mail, **weblogs** (popularly known as a **blog**) have gained more and more popularity as a space to express ideas and it is among the fastest-growing Internet-mediated communication media featuring distinct characteristics. At its simplest sense, a blog is a personal web-based space for people to compile pieces of writing that are linkable to other web pages sharing the same or similar interest. One blog is usually managed by an author who compiles lists of links. Writing and editing processes of a weblog are generally managed by an editor or the blog owner by using a web

browser available on the Internet. "Blogs are personal journals or reversed-chronological commentaries written by individuals and made publicly accessible on the web, and they have distinctive technological features that set them apart from other forms of CMC (Herring et. al. 2004a).

A personal blog is a site managed by an individual who compiles lists of links to personally interesting materials, ornamented by information and editorial relevant to his/her interest. The user can instantly place his/her words, thoughts or ideas onto it through one of the many pieces of blogging software available. It can be updated from time-to-time by deleting and adding new information. A personal blog generally provides space for other people sharing the same interest to provide relevant comments or posting. For the most part, it often looks like a personal diary equipped with a calendar that highlights the dates on which entries were made. Some sites have a basic text search engine to assist in finding material of interest. A personal blog may contain a record of experience, observation, advice, the know- how-knowledge, opinions and other large range of subjects.

 As a publishing tool, it has the following features:

- Installation is not required as it is a-ready use software.

- No web-programming codes are needed

- opportunities for others to comment or provide feedback for each blog post;

- Linked to other users and is readily accessible by others

- User-friendly and ease of use

- The look and the way it operates depend on personal taste.

Despite being monologous in its generic nature as opposed to the dialogic nature of e-mail, the personal blog has a characteristic which is reminiscent of e-mail in a sense that it provides an opinion which then allows other people to respond to it. Thus, in this way, it permits others to exchange ideas asynchronously. From various samples observable through many personal blogs (see appendix 4), they have a certain degree of similarity in the way such a feature is presented. With such a characteristic, it also inclines to be used as a space to exchange written messages whose nature (in terms of content and linguistic features) resembles that of the e-mail. This is the major reason why Personal Blog is worth investigating and the question to be answered in this mini project is "What features of spoken language are found in personal blog language?

Methods of study

According to Biber (1988), there is no absolute spoken and written distinction is identified in the previous study as a result of the complexity of the two. Every effort to make a clear cut distinction is always constrained by a various variety of situational, functional and processing considerations. Besides, there is no single dimension is sufficient to measure the differences. The non-existence of the single dimension is mainly on the argument that the differences between spoken and written relationship are unlikely measured using opposition model as the reality of both is continuous rather than dichotomous (binary opposition) (Biber 1988 &and Baron 1981).

Biber (1988) proposes two different major categories of dimension i.e. functional, situational. Functional dimension alone, for instance, has different components that make up of very broad

parameters identified within 1. integration, 2. fragmentation, 3. involvement and 4. detachment which requires a very extensive and careful study. (see Biber 1988, p. 43). Unlike Biber, Baron (2000), proposes four dimensions usable to measure the data, i.e. social dynamics, format, grammar and style. Due to space and time constraints, this project will adopt Baron (2000) by excluding social dynamics simply because it has been clear from the way the interlocutors are physically separated.   In using the three dimensions, however, I should like to make an adaptation of the model proposed by Baron by adding some measures previously used by Biber:

1. Format: includes such aspects as the length of sentences, degree of editability and the use of contractions.

2. Grammar: includes the use of 1st and 2nd person and the active verbs, the linked coordinate clauses using *and, or* and *but.*

3. Style: includes colloquial day-to-day spoken style and the use of personal expressions.

Given all the above accounts and choice of methodology, now we can start determining what features of spoken language are found on personal blogs. Seven samples of personal blogs, each with multiple pages of contents, are chosen randomly and then data are coded using QSR NVivo 8 software program to classify the qualitative data on the basis of pre-determined dimensions. This software use allows me to classify and present the features of the spoken language in a more systematic and careful way. It is worth noting, however, that the presence of percentage following every

coded reference refers to the length of the sentence and in this analysis, it is not essential and thus ignored.

Findings and analysis

It is clear from the data that the spoken features are clearly noticeable in the way the Personal Blogs are written. Despite being physically written, it is evident from the data that they employ lots of spoken language to describe and express the personal messages and although it is different from e-mail in a sense that it is generally monolog as opposed to dialog, the characteristics of the spoken language bear resemblances with those found in the previous study of e-mail (see Baron 2000).

1. Format

The length of sentences	Degree of editability	The use of Contraction
70 references coded	70 references coded	121 references coded
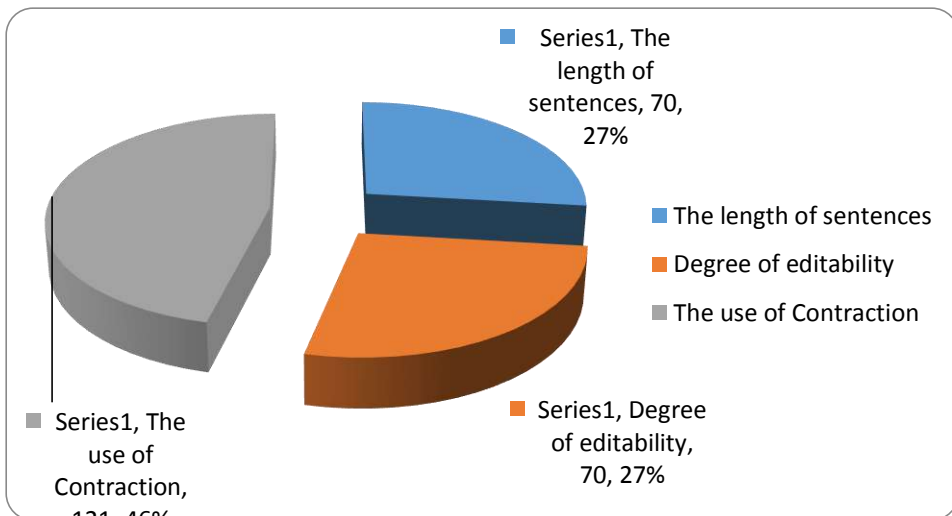
Graph 5. 1. See the coded reference in appendix 1

In terms of format, the data sample of the personal blogs uses lots of contracted forms of *is, was, will, would*, and *had*. There are 121 encoded data from the chosen sample (see appendix 1). While, the length of sentences and editability share the same frequency, i.e. 71 encoded data for each category (see appendix 1). As it is generally understood, spoken language is simplified, not so strict about grammar and often concise. The findings showed the consistency of such characterization. The sentences tend to be short which resemble the way the ideas are expressed in oral conversation and are even very often verbless. Such examples as *'skydiver plum ejected', 'sunny side up?', 'Burden lifted'* (see appendix 1 ref.3, 13, 48) are verbless sentences intended to shorten the expressions. Mistakes of typing, misspelling, punctuation as well as the rule of lower or upper case use are frequently spotted in the data that require editing. The examples like *'this content have been republished WITHOUT permission.', 'We're all puppets, Laurie.' And 'Health Behaviour.. How do We Change it?'* (appendix 1. ref. 2, 8 and 40) are just a few to mention.

2. Grammar

The use of 1st and 2nd person and active verbs	Linked coordinate clauses using and, or, but
165 references coded	63 references coded

Series1, Linked coordinate clauses using and, or, but, 63, 28%

The use of 1st and 2nd person and active verbs

Linked coordinate clauses using and, or, but

Series1, The use of 1st and 2nd person and active verbs, 165, 72%
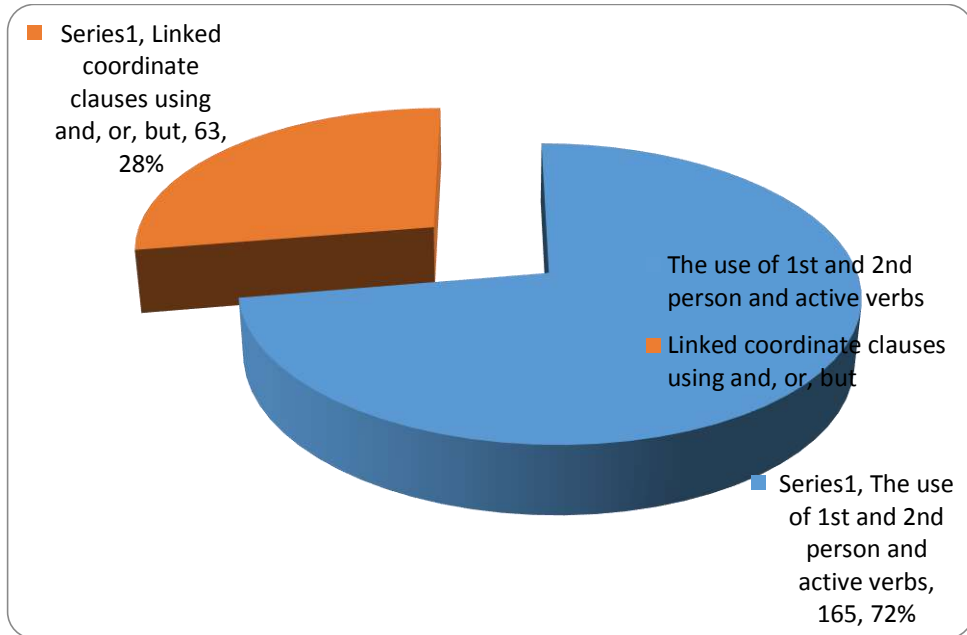
Graph 5. 2. See the coded reference in appendix 2

One way of determining the spoken features of a written text is to find examples of the use of 1st and 2nd person pronouns and the use of active sentences. In his study of e-mail, Carey cited in Baron (2000), reported extensive use of those two grammatical aspects. This data similarly show lots of such grammatical features which are 165 cases of the use of 1st and 2nd persons in various active sentences. In addition, instead of using complex subordinate clauses generally characterizing written feature, the data show that co-ordinate clauses are preferably used. There are 63 cases that managed to be encoded. This is not to claim that complex sentences were totally absent in the data. One interesting point worth mentioning here is that the data are littered with simple coordinating conjunctions more prevalent in speech such as *'and', 'but'* and *'so'*; very often used in so deviant way that makes it so different from the standard structure of English. These two are

taken as an illustration *"And of course Loughborough and the surrounding countryside are particularly beautiful so all their plans and those put forward by developers are deeply controversial". (*see appendix 2, ref 24). *Today I spent a day meeting and chatting with all of the staff about the roles they carry out and what an exciting time to be involved."* (See appendix 2, ref. 33). From the examples, we can see the deviation from the formal writing standard. '*And'* is not acceptably used to start a sentence and '*but'* is not supposed to be used at the beginning of the sentence.

3. Style

Colloquial (day-to-day) spoken style	The use of personal expressions
71 references coded	31 references coded
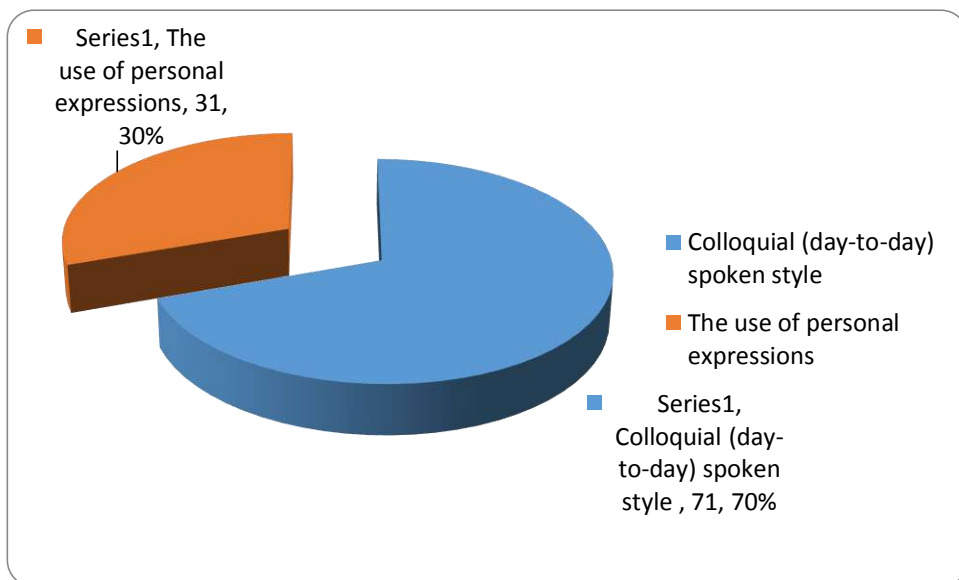
Graph 5. 3. See the coded reference in appendix 3

Again, the data show some more spoken features that in many respects look more like a spoken conversation. In writing their blogs, the writers were as if speaking to the reader in a similar sense that they have some kinds of interlocutory relationship. As such, the message exchange is much the same as that found email. The use of colloquial day-to-day expressions is relatively frequent, i.e. 71 cases (see appendix 3). We can see it through the following examples like *'It's gonna be fucked up!', 'I was noooo way.thats stupid!!!..',' Don't think Lindt Bunny does though.'* (appendix 3, ref. 11, 38 and 39).

In addition to the evidence of colloquial expressions, there is also extensive use of personal expressions. Biber (1988, p.106) mentions that 'Emphatics and amplifiers both mark heightened feeling, and sentence relatives are used for attitudinal comments by the speaker … marking high interpersonal interaction or high expression of personal feelings'. Such examples as *'I guess no amount of money would ever compensate', 'I think I will add an updated summary of the situation',' I don't think we could sustain it spiritually either'* (appendix 3. ref. 7, 15, 19) can be found in the data. All in all, we can say that the language of the Personal Blogs has a substantial affinity with that of the spoken language rather than the written language. This may be because the writers of the Blogs mean to be accepted by the readers as being sociable and easy-going kind persons in addition to the intention to produce a more friendly and less formal style of communication. Remember that Personal Blogs more resemble a personal diary than a journal report.

Conclusion

This paper has attempted to delineate what constitutes spoken features within the context of written discourse. By looking into a set of data found in various Personal Blogs, it has managed to characterize the presence of their typical characteristics in the sample data. In spite of its written physical appearance, the selected samples of the Personal Blogs strongly indicate features of spoken language. From the three criteria, format, grammar, and style the writers opt for featuring the spoken style of writing to convey their intended meanings and messages. These include evidence of the format, the grammar and the style of the writing, the length of sentences, the editability, use of contractions, the briefness of sentences, the avoidance of complex sentences, the many colloquial aspects of expressions, as well as the use personal expressions. Besides, in terms of vocabulary choices, they are more the reflection of speech than writing, probably in order for them to reach out broader audience and to give the impression that the readers are very welcome to read and to closely interact with one another. Finally, I should admit, however, that this mini-study may have some limitations. So, since a similar study on a Personal Blog is still limited, research involving the larger sizes of data and broader dimensions may reconfirm the above findings.

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Appendix 1:

FORMAT

The length of sentences	The degree of edibility	The use of contraction
<u>\<Internals\Is the Internet language spoken or written></u> - § 70 references coded [6.02% Coverage]	<u>\<Internals\Is the Internet language spoken or written></u> - § 70 references coded [6.02% Coverage]	<u>\<Internals\Is the Internet language spoken or written></u> - § 121 references coded [6.15% Coverage]
Reference 1 - 0.05% Coverage	Reference 1 - 0.05% Coverage	Reference 1 - 0.02% Coverage
		I'm better now.
TIM IS COOL! (he did not tell me to say that)	TIM IS COOL! (he did not tell me to say that)	Reference 2 - 0.06% Coverage
Reference 2 - 0.06% Coverage	Reference 2 - 0.06% Coverage	Microsoft's new system's easier for browser switch
this content has been republished WITHOUT permission.	this content has been republished WITHOUT permission.	Reference 3 - 0.06% Coverage
		One thing's for certain, it ain't easy bein' green.
Reference 3 - 0.02% Coverage	Reference 3 - 0.02% Coverage	Reference 4 - 0.03% Coverage
skydiverPlumb ejected	skydiverPlumb ejected	Don't Forget Daylight Savings!
Reference 4 - 0.03% Coverage	Reference 4 - 0.03% Coverage	Reference 5 - 0.11% Coverage
Your Hair is Different	Your Hair is Different	**It's been great fun on blogspot** and it has been greatly beneficial to my online learning curve.
Reference 5 - 0.04% Coverage	Reference 5 - 0.04% Coverage	Reference 6 - 0.02% Coverage
A com-arts grad who ended up a banker	**A com-arts grad** who ended up a banker	We?re all puppets
Reference 6 - 0.06% Coverage	Reference 6 - 0.06% Coverage	Reference 7 - 0.05% Coverage
One thing's for certain, it ain't easy bein' green.	**One thing's for certain, it ain't easy bein' green.**	**I?m just a puppet** who can see the strings
Reference 7 - 0.03% Coverage	Reference 7 - 0.03% Coverage	Reference 8 - 0.04% Coverage
Let's begin with a caveat.	Let's begin with a caveat.	I'm not sure why I thought of this.

Reference 8 - 0.03% Coverage

We?re all puppets, Laurie.

Reference 9 - 0.14% Coverage

I?m just a puppet who can see the strings, written 4 days ago, Inside many superhero stories is a Greek tragedy in hiding.

Reference 10 - 0.05% Coverage

There is the godlike hero, and he is flawed.

Reference 11 - 0.02% Coverage

Sunnyside up?

Reference 12 - 0.04% Coverage

I was scheduled to work 6-close but

Reference 13 - 0.07% Coverage

 went in at 10PM tonight because of a family situation ...

Reference 14 - 0.04% Coverage

20 Affirmations for Busy Mom Bloggers

Reference 15 - 0.03% Coverage

two **others'** are coming up

Reference 8 - 0.03% Coverage

We?re all puppets, Laurie.

Reference 9 - 0.14% Coverage

I?m just a puppet who can see the strings, written 4 days ago, Inside many superhero stories is a Greek tragedy in hiding.

Reference 10 - 0.05% Coverage

There is the godlike hero, and he is flawed.

Reference 11 - 0.02% Coverage

Sunnyside up?

Reference 12 - 0.04% Coverage

I was scheduled to work 6-close but

Reference 13 - 0.07% Coverage

 went in at 10PM tonight because of a family situation ...

Reference 14 - 0.04% Coverage

20 Affirmations for Busy Mom Bloggers

Reference 15 - 0.03% Coverage

two **others'** are coming up

Reference 9 - 0.10% Coverage

A friend of mine just had a birthday, and two **others'** are coming up, **so maybe that's it.**

Reference 10 - 0.03% Coverage

Or maybe it's something else!

Reference 11 - 0.13% Coverage

we're rounding third base we decided it was time to find a lead developer who could help make the site even better.

Reference 12 - 0.04% Coverage

We're looking for someone who's ...

Reference 13 - 0.05% Coverage

a control freak who doesn't like to plan.

Reference 14 - 0.05% Coverage

I'm married to a guy who's a more typical

Reference 15 - 0.08% Coverage

Even if you're just saying it to be nice, I still appreciate it...

Reference 16 - 0.10% Coverage

Ew, not sure if I would go for this, but there's oatmeal for a buck at Jamba Juice

Reference 17 - 0.08% Coverage

I'd like to finish this blog by taking some quotes from an excellent book

Reference 16 - 0.04% Coverage

gdgt is looking for a lead developer

Reference 17 - 0.06% Coverage

Honeymoons/Destinations ExpertI'm a bit of an odd duck

Reference 18 - 0.04% Coverage

Ew, not sure if I would go for this

Reference 19 - 0.10% Coverage

The shape and form of a story helps the teller (and the listener) to organise information

Reference 20 - 0.06% Coverage

thanks for the blog **and i am now an active member**!

Reference 21 - 0.01% Coverage

Hear Hear!!!

Reference 22 - 0.05% Coverage

On a serious **note..i couldnt agree more**

Reference 23 - 0.04% Coverage

When **i was first told of this idea,as**

Reference 18 - 0.04% Coverage

I'm not yet the person I can be,

Reference 19 - 0.06% Coverage

 I'd heard people twittering about it for a while now,

Reference 20 - 0.04% Coverage

but hadn't the time to check it out.

Reference 21 - 0.11% Coverage

It's a cool little site that lets you create a mosaic of your twitter followers or friends.

Reference 22 - 0.02% Coverage

it's   a   long   wait.

Reference 23 - 0.06% Coverage

New Zealand hasn't taken firm hold among the people

Reference 24 - 0.02% Coverage

But I'm afraid

Reference 25 - 0.07% Coverage

I'd rather rush off to twitter mosaic and get me a pretty mug

Appendix 2:

GRAMMAR

The use of 1st and 2nd person and active verbs		Linked coordinate clauses using and, or, but
<u><Internals\Is the Internet language spoken or written></u>165 references coded [2.66% Coverage]	Reference 113 - 0.01% Coverage I have heard	<u><Internals\Is the Internet language spoken or written></u> - § 63 references coded [10.83% Coverage]
Reference 1 - 0.01% Coverage I receive	Reference 114 - 0.03% Coverage I am now going to get hold	Reference 1 - 0.13% Coverage we will introduce new payout methods so you get your payments faster, and new lower pricings for the text links.
Reference 2 - 0.02% Coverage You can still set	Reference 115 - 0.02% Coverage I have a great	
Reference 3 - 0.01% Coverage We have	Reference 116 - 0.01% Coverage I attach	Reference 2 - 0.08% Coverage He was captured and spent 6 years in a communist Vietnamese prison. ...
Reference 4 - 0.02% Coverage you will receive	Reference 117 - 0.01% Coverage I add	Reference 3 - 0.09% Coverage **I forget where I read this tip**, but I have used it many times with great success.
Reference 5 - 0.02% Coverage You will now receive	Reference 118 - 0.01% Coverage I am asking	Reference 4 - 0.08% Coverage You might not notice, but a woman is very aware of these small deviations
Reference 6 - 0.01% Coverage We add	Reference 119 - 0.02% Coverage I have added	Reference 5 - 0.08% Coverage I arrived here on Friday and am getting settled in at my cousin's home
Reference 7 - 0.01% Coverage you can deny		Reference 6 - 0.06% Coverage I shop for a new home and await the arrival o...
Reference 8 - 0.03% Coverage you don't like to appear	Reference 120 - 0.01% Coverage I believe	Reference 7 - 0.11% Coverage **It's been great fun on blogspot** and it has been greatly beneficial to my online learning curve
Reference 9 - 0.02% Coverage You could see	Reference 121 - 0.01% Coverage I get	Reference 8 - 0.05% Coverage There is the godlike hero, and he is flawed.
	Reference 122 - 0.01% Coverage I often say	Reference 9 - 0.08% Coverage **Well** I did dishes for most of the time, and I ended up only ta...
Reference 10 - 0.03% Coverage If you are not viewing		Reference 10 - 0.18% Coverage

Reference 11 - 0.01% Coverage

I have used

Reference 12 - 0.02% Coverage

You might not notice

Reference 13 - 0.01% Coverage

I've spent

Reference 14 - 0.01% Coverage

I see

Reference 15 - 0.01% Coverage

I arrived

Reference 16 - 0.01% Coverage

I shop

Reference 17 - 0.01% Coverage

You know

Reference 18 - 0.01% Coverage

I have moved

Reference 19 - 0.02% Coverage

we had returned

Reference 20 - 0.02% Coverage

I fly over to

Reference 21 - 0.02% Coverage

I figured I would get

Reference 22 - 0.01% Coverage

I did dishes

Reference 123 - 0.02% Coverage

I won't meet

Reference 124 - 0.02% Coverage

I never want to

Reference 125 - 0.02% Coverage

I will update

Reference 126 - 0.02% Coverage

I will advise

Reference 127 - 0.02% Coverage

I have found

Reference 128 - 0.01% Coverage

I spent

Reference 129 - 0.01% Coverage

I won't buy

Reference 130 - 0.02% Coverage

I Twittered on

Reference 131 - 0.02% Coverage

I have been asking

Reference 132 - 0.02% Coverage

I had 'influence'

This is required not just so that more people can help those with problems, but also so we can tackle the stigma and prejudice that exists in society.

Reference 11 - 0.27% Coverage

People with or having had substance use problems are critical to this process of understanding and their views and experiences must be used continually in a considered and serious manner to inform strategic service development.

Reference 12 - 0.15% Coverage

those stories give rise to still others, and soon we find meaning and construction within a web of story making and story living

Reference 13 - 0.10% Coverage

Print them off and circulate them to your family, friends, clients and work colleagues.

Reference 14 - 0.08% Coverage

You can do so as a full story or slowly put it together as blogs,

Reference 15 - 0.09% Coverage

Don't start worrying whether it is good enough or that your style is not great.

Reference 16 - 0.15% Coverage

I was walking back from the kitchen, holding my macbook in the crook of one arm, and my freshly-made hot chocolate in my free hand.

Reference 17 - 0.23% Coverage

was browsing through the sites on Damien Mulley's Tuesday Push blog there, and I came across Twitter Mosaic. I'd heard people twittering

Reference 23 - 0.02% Coverage

I need to repeat

Reference 24 - 0.01% Coverage

I love

Reference 25 - 0.02% Coverage

I don't hang out

Reference 26 - 0.01% Coverage

I moved away

Reference 27 - 0.03% Coverage

I'm never going to get

Reference 28 - 0.02% Coverage

I have been working

Reference 29 - 0.02% Coverage

We're looking for

Reference 30 - 0.01% Coverage

Reference 133 - 0.02% Coverage

I have lobbied

Reference 134 - 0.03% Coverage

I could and should just ignore

Reference 135 - 0.01% Coverage

I did laugh

Reference 136 - 0.02% Coverage

I got to hear

Reference 137 - 0.01%

about it for a while now, but hadn't the time to check it out.

Reference 18 - 0.22% Coverage

Tell me it's brilliant and I'll go all red and my heart will beat faster and something happens behind my ears (not sure what but they tingle a bit) and I'll say 'Did you *really* like it?

Reference 19 - 0.16% Coverage

I can't wait to see it in bookshops where I can tell people 'buy it - but it now for the love of God and fill your head with wild lands

Reference 20 - 0.15% Coverage

It gave you the name, location and age of each child artist. And I would sit glued to the screen judging the artists by their age.

Reference 21 - 0.26% Coverage

And in the years since, I've often remembered the gallery in Tony Hart's shows, and remembered that

Appendix 3:

STYLE

Colloquial (day-to-day) spoken style	The use of personal expressions
<Internals\Is the Internet language spoken or written> - § 71 references coded [4.15% Coverage]	<Internals\Is the Internet language spoken or written> - § 31 references coded [2.05% Coverage]
Reference 1 - 0.04% Coverage	Reference 1 - 0.04% Coverage
We have no minimum payment amount	It seems obvious, to me at least
Reference 2 - 0.10% Coverage	Reference 2 - 0.07% Coverage
You will now receive paycheck every 1st of the month, without any waiting period!	You know, the things that interest her or strike her fancy.

Reference 3 - 0.09% Coverage

We add a new feature where you now can deny text links that you don't like

Reference 4 - 0.03% Coverage

Just go to your account

Reference 5 - 0.04% Coverage

You could see the price here below

Reference 6 - 0.08% Coverage

Can Jim Darkmagic hang upside down from a rope ladder and cast spells

Reference 7 - 0.03% Coverage

Something is waiting for them

Reference 8 - 0.01% Coverage

TIM IS COOL!

Reference 9 - 0.02% Coverage

Smashing your face!

Reference 10 - 0.02% Coverage

Concert April 30th!

Reference 11 - 0.03% Coverage

It's gonna be fucked up!

Reference 12 - 0.03% Coverage

Who Packed Your Parachute ?

Reference 13 - 0.03% Coverage

Your Hair is Different

Reference 14 - 0.15% Coverage

Reference 3 - 0.07% Coverage

I know, two posts in a day, what will the neighbours think?

Reference 4 - 0.07% Coverage

I figured I would get a few deliveries and help close up.

Reference 5 - 0.04% Coverage

I'm not sure why I thought of this.

Reference 6 - 0.09% Coverage

I thought it was a bit weak there in the third paragraph on the second page.

Reference 7 - 0.07% Coverage

I guess I should admit that after watching Tony's programme

Reference 8 - 0.09% Coverage

I think I would think reasonable force would be pretty heavy to stop him.

Reference 9 - 0.08% Coverage

It is wrong for me as an individual MP to do the picking for them.

Reference 10 - 0.09% Coverage

So guess what I am am not going to give a full response on here today because

Reference 11 - 0.06% Coverage

I guess no amount of money would ever compensate

I arrived here on Friday and am getting settled in at my cousin's home while I shop for a new home and await the arrival o...

Reference 15 - 0.12% Coverage

A com-arts grad who ended up a banker - go figure! **One thing's for certain, it ain't easy bein' green.**

Reference 16 - 0.03% Coverage

Don't Forget Daylight Savings!

Reference 17 - 0.11% Coverage

Don't forget to move your clocks ahead one hour and check your smoke detectors before bed tonight.

Reference 18 - 0.06% Coverage

Just the ramblings and passions of Marisa Shreve.

Reference 19 - 0.02% Coverage

Sunnyside up?

Reference 20 - 0.03% Coverage

A Penny Foy My Thoughts?

Reference 21 - 0.04% Coverage

I'm not sure why I thought of this.

Reference 22 - 0.07% Coverage

Do you realize just how privileged you and your kids are?

Reference 23 - 0.05% Coverage

Stick him in front of anything with wi-fi...

Reference 24 - 0.08% Coverage

Even if you're just saying it to be nice, I still appreciate it...

Reference 12 - 0.07% Coverage

A constituent has said they don't think they are paid enough.

Reference 13 - 0.05% Coverage

 guess we would all agree with that sentiment.

Reference 14 - 0.05% Coverage

I believe there are ways to use incentives

Reference 15 - 0.06% Coverage

I think I will add an updated summary of the situation

Reference 16 - 0.14% Coverage

I don't know the answer but I wonder if the planning process and other civic responsibilities should be taught much earlier.

Reference 17 - 0.08% Coverage

Perhaps we should all spend a bit more time in a variety of jobs.

Reference 18 - 0.04% Coverage

So to be honest I do laugh about this.

Appendix 4

Raw data taken from Blog

1. Taken from www\personal blog1.mht

Yesterday, I receive an email from ask2link that announce about something new in their service. It is the sample of their email..

2. Taken from www\Personal Blogs Blog Directory2.mht

<u>WWdN: In Exile</u>

"Can Jim Darkmagic hang upside down from a rope ladder and cast spells? **Fuck yeah he can.**", written 3 days ago, Episode three of the Penny Arcade/PVP/Me D&D Podcast is online!Part 3 continues with a visit down the hole in the broken tower….Something is waiting for them (and their rop...

<u>Mindless Entertainment</u>

BORN TO PARTY, written 14 hours ago, TIM IS COOL! (he did not tell me to say that) Smashing your face! Concert April 30th! Lamb of God, As I Lay Dying, Children of Bodom, and Municipal Waste It's gonna be fucked up!

<u>Dooce</u>

I am Heather B. Armstrong and this is my blog. Chronicles my life from a time when I was single and making a lot of money to the postpartum depression that landed me in a mental hospital. **I'm better now.**

<u>Miss604</u>

Vancouver Opera: Blogger Night at Rigoletto, written 4 days ago, Copyright © 2009 Miss604 - Rebecca Bollwitt. If you are not viewing this post through the Miss604.com feed then this content has been republished WITHOUT permission. Visit the original article at http://www.miss604.com/2009/03/vancou...

<u>Twenty Major</u>

Careful, the 80s are coming, written 8 hours ago, It seems obvious, to me at least, that the attack on the British soldiers at the weekend was not the work of the Real IRA or any other flavour of IRA. It was clearly an attempt by some sinister organisation to drive Ireland back to the 80s. Last time...

<u>Tyas Jetra Blog</u>

Who Packed Your Parachute ?, written 1 day ago, Charles Plumb was a US Navy jet pilot in Vietnam. After 75 combat missions, his plane was destroyed by a surface-to-air missile. skydiverPlumb ejected and parachuted into enemy hands. He was captured and spent 6 years in a communist Vietnamese prison. ...

<u>The Dilbert Blog</u>

Your Hair is Different, written 3 days ago, **I forget where I read this tip**, but I have used it many times with great success. It starts with the notion that most women change their hair all the time. You might not notice, but a woman is very aware of these small deviations in everything from highlig...

<u>Thinking About It</u>

My adopted soldier…, written 1 week ago, **I've spent more than my share of time in airports over the past two years.** (I'm in Oregon and my family is scattered across the Midwest, South and in Peru, South America). **Each time I see a young man or young woman in Army fatigues traveling to be ...**

<u>Skeets Stuff</u>

Self Portrait Sunday for March 8, 2008, written 13 hours ago, **Do I look any different? I'm a new person**, one of that peculiar species identified as "**Texan" (once again.)** I arrived here on Friday and am getting settled in at my cousin's home while I shop for a new home and await the arrival o...

Technology as a way of life

Microsoft's new system easier for browser switch, written 2 days ago, NEW YORK (Reuters) - Microsoft Corp is developing a feature in its new operating system that allows users to turn off Internet Explorer and other key Microsoft programs. The new feature is a major step for the world's larg...

Milk River Blog

OBT: Horton Foote, written 4 days ago, Playwright, screenwriter Horton Foote dies 'Tender Mercies,' 'Trip To Bountiful' screenwriter died at age 92 The Associated Press, updated 4:36 p.m. CT, Wed., March. 4, 2009 Playwright and screenwriter Horton Foote, who movingly portrayed the broken dr...

Pond Perspective

GLOSSARY

adjective

An adjective is a word which describes something, usually being used to give additional information about a noun or pronoun. Many adjectives can be evaluative and are thus important in discursive representation as they reveal.

attitudes

An attitude is a person's judgement towards something. Attitudes are generally positive or negative, although people can potentially also possess ambivalent attitudes (e.g. be both positive and negative) or profess to have no attitude (e.g. not really care). In traditional social science research, attitudes were often measured by using questionnaires or surveys which asked people to tick a box to indicate where their attitude fell on a scale (with one end representing an extreme negative attitude and the other end being extreme positivity).

audience

A theory developed by Allan Bell (1984) which argues that speakers change styles in response to their audience. Bell identified a classification system for different types of audiences, depending on three criteria: whether the audience is *known* to be part of a speech context, whether the speaker *ratifies* or acknowledges the listener's presence, and whether the listener is directly *addressed*.

classroom discourse

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

collocation

Collocation refers to the ways that certain words tend to regularly occur next to or close to each other. It can be thought of as the 'company that a word keeps'. Most native speakers of English are probably aware of some colloca- tions (such as *tough* and *luck*), although there are many which are less noticeable

(particularly to non-native speakers) and can only be revealed by **CORPUS LINGUISTIC** methods.

computer-mediated communication (CMC)

Forms of interaction such as email, chat rooms, instant messaging, blogging and commenting that occur between people who are using computers, although the term is also sometimes used to refer to other electronic means of communication such as text messaging via mobile telephones.

context

An important aspect of many strands of **DISCOURSE ANALYSIS** – which helps in the interpretative process of linguistic phenomena as well as providing explanations. The analysis of context forms part of most **CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS** approaches.

conversation analysis (CA)

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

corpus linguistics

McEnery and Wilson (1996: 1) describe corpus linguistics as the 'study of language based on examples of "real life" language use', noting that it is 'a methodology rather than an aspect of language requiring explanation or description'. Corpus linguists use computer software to examine frequencies and relationships between words in (often large) sets of authentic texts that have been electronically encoded.

co-text

The parts of **TEXT** (e.g. sentences or utterances) that come before and after a particular piece of text under examination.

critical discourse analysis (CDA)

An approach to the analysis of discourse which views language as a social practice and is interested in the ways that ideologies and power relations are expressed through language. Critical discourse analysts are particularly

interested in issues of inequality, sometimes keeping in mind the question 'who benefits?' when carrying out analysis.

discourse

A term with several related and often quite loose meanings. (1) Perhaps in its most general usage, it can refer to any form of 'language in use' (Brown and Yule 1983) or naturally occurring language. (2) It can also refer more specifically to spoken language, hence the term **DISCOURSE MARKER**, which tends to refer to speech. Stubbs (1983: 9) also makes a distinction between dis- course, which is interactive, and text, which is a non-interactive monologue.

discourse analysis

Just as **DISCOURSE** has numerous meanings, there are equally plentiful concep- tualizations of discourse analysis, which have changed over time. Brown and Yule (1983: ix) refer to it as 'how humans use language to communicate'. Stubbs (1983: 1) refers to it as 'attempts to study the organization of lan- guage above the sentence or above the clause; and therefore to study large linguistic units such as conversational exchanges or written texts'.

discourse community

A term used by Nystrand (1982) and then developed by Swales (1990: 24–27), who defines a discourse community according to six characteristics: (1) a broadly agreed upon set of common goals, (2) mechanisms for intercommu- nication among members, (3) participatory mechanisms to provide information and feedback, (4) owns and uses one or more genres to further its commun- icative aims, (5) has acquired specific lexis and (6) has a number of members who have a suitable degree of relevant content and discoursal expertise.

Domains

A sociolinguistic term referring to distinct terrains that structure the social purposes that literacy serves and how it is learned. Domains are affiliated with a society's institutions. The domain of the home, for instance, is largely structured by the so- cial institution of the family; likewise, the domains of schools, hospitals,

and courtrooms are affiliated with educational, medi- cal, and legal institutions, respectively.

ethnomethodology

A term coined by Harold Garfinkel in 1954 (Garfinkel 2002: 4), ethnomethod-ology is a sub-discipline of sociology which involves studying how people produce and share social orders, or rather how they make sense of their everyday lives. Ethnomethodology is a descriptive rather than interpretative form of analysis and was influential in the development of **CONVERSATION ANALYSIS**.

ideology

Ideology can generally be thought of as the set of ideas, beliefs and aims that a person or group holds. Fairclough (1992: 87), drawing on Althusser (1971), views ideologies as 'constructions of reality . . . which are built into various dimensions of the forms/meanings of discursive practices, and which contribute to the production, reproduction or transformation of relations of domination'.

identity

Gleason (1983: 918) points out that the term identity is relatively new, emerging into social science literature in the 1950s and made popular by the psychoanalyst Erik Erikson. For Gleason, most definitions tend to fall into one of two opposing conceptions. In one sense, identity can be called intrapsychic' in that it comes from within, is fixed and stable and is what people speak of when they talk about 'who we really are'.

keywords

In **CORPUS LINGUISTICS**, keyworda is the relative frequency of a particular linguistic item in one text or corpus when compared against another text or corpus via statistical tests of significance (usually chi squared or log likelihood). Many tests of keyness are carried out on single words, deriving a list of **KEYWORDS**.

metaphor

A way of representing something in terms of something else. The identification and analysis of metaphors are often used in the **DESCRIPTION** stage of **CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS** as a way of revealing ideologies or discourses surrounding a subject.

modality

Modality can be expressed via a set of verbs known as modal verbs, including *should*, *would*, *will*, *could*, *can*, *may*, *must* and *shall*. In addition, 'semi-modals' such as *have to*, *need to* and *want to* are increasingly used to express modality (Leech 2002). Modal adverbs include *perhaps*, *probably*, *necessarily* and *inevitably*.

national identity

National identity is a concept that is built around the idea of the nation state. According to Barker and Galasinski (2001: 123), a nation state refers to the political and administrative apparatus that has a claim of 'sovereignty over a space or territory'.

nominalization

Nominalization refers to the conversion of processes into nominals (or verbs into nouns), for example,

1. Move (verb) → movement (noun)
2. Difficult (adjective) → difficulty (noun)

This has the effect of backgrounding the process itself and can sometimes omit the participants who are the agents in the processes

passivization

Passivization is a term used in grammar to refer to the transformation of an active sentence into a passive one. An active sentence is one with an subject verb object (SVO) basic pattern, such as 'John hit Mary'. Here 'John,' the **SUBJECT**, performs the act of hitting on 'Mary', the object. When the same sentence is transformed into a passive, 'Mary was hit (by John)', its structure

changes to subject verb adverbial, where the adverbial ('by John' in this case) is optional.

qualitative methods

This term refers to a number of research methods which involve non-numerical data collection or explanation. Such methods include **ETHNOGRAPHY**, **PARTICIPANT OBSERVATION**, unstructured interview, case study, **FOCUS GROUP** and **CONVERSATION ANALYSIS**

reflexivity

Reflexivity (sometimes called *self-reflexivity*) refers to a process of reflecting on the research process as it is being carried out, and it is usually an integral part of discourse analysis. For example, the researcher may try to consider how aspects of his/her **IDENTITY** and the society he/she has been brought up in could impact on the way that the research proceeds, such as choice of topic, research questions and methods of data collection and analysis. Reflexivity is thus the methodological principal of using one's self-awareness in order to deal with possible inherent researcher bias.

social identity

Social identity refers to the socially constructed attributes that are ascribed to individuals by themselves or others. Examples of social identities include labels which reference familial relations (*mother*), occupations (*nurse*), hierarchical roles (*boss*), religion (*Muslim*), sexuality (*gay*), region (*northerner*) and age (*pensioner*).

social practice

A social practice is a body of structured, usually institutionalized, activities mediated through language. For example, politics, the media and the law are social practices that have language as an integral part of those practices. Language itself is a social practice because it is an intrinsic part of a society.

text

Definitions of the term *text* are difficult as different researchers have conceptualized texts in a range of ways. A prototypical text would be something which has lots of written words in it, such as a book. However, De Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) define a text as a communicative

occurrence that meets seven standards of textuality: cohesion, coherence, intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality and intertextuality.

INDEX

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